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The Relationship Among Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Styles of Law Enforcement Executives

Gregory, Jr. Campbell
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COLLEGE OF MANAGEMENT AND TECHNOLOGY

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2012

Abstract

The Relationship Among Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Styles of Law
Enforcement Executives

by

Gregory Campbell Jr.

MA, California State University of Dominguez Hills, 1994

BA, California State University of Dominguez Hills, 1990

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Management

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Abstract

Policing in the 21st century is becoming more complex and dynamic as law enforcement executives deal with operational, political, and economic challenges. Organizational theory and research indicate positive relationships among emotional intelligence (EI), leadership effectiveness, leadership styles, and employee outcomes. But these relationships have not been investigated in law enforcement organizations. The purpose of this quantitative study was to fill this knowledge gap by exploring the above relationships in a sample of law enforcement executives. Situational leadership theory, full range leadership model, and trait EI theory comprised the theoretical framework for this study. Data were collected from 139 law enforcement executives from the International Association of Chiefs of Police via an Internet survey. Pearson's correlation coefficient and multiple linear regression analyses were performed to test the hypotheses. Statistically significant relationships were indicated in the studied sample between EI and all the five measures of transformational leadership style and one measure of transactional leadership style - contingent reward; but EI failed to correlate with the laissez-faire leadership style. Social change implications of this study include using the study results to expand leadership development programs that leverage a full range of leadership skills and EI traits to address the new reality of law enforcement for the benefit of American communities and society.

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my family and friends who have supported me throughout this journey to obtain my doctoral degree. I can never adequately express how much I appreciated your words of encouragement, prayers, telephone calls, and e-mails that were always on time to keep me motivated and moving toward the finish line.

I dedicate this dissertation to my wife, LaKeisha Campbell. Proverbs 5:18 states, “May your fountain be blessed, and may you rejoice in the wife of your youth.” Since we met in high school, you have always demonstrated the virtues of a Godly woman. I do not remember a time in my life when I have not experienced the blessings and favor of your love. A dissertation journey is full of sacrifice, but you, my love, have sacrificed the most. You have supported me physically, emotionally, and mentally, which provided me the motivation and strength to complete this doctoral journey. You are my gift from God, my queen, and my best friend. I dedicate this dissertation to you!

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Table of Contents

List of Tables	v
List of Figures	vii
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	3
Background of the Study	4
Purpose of the Study	7
Significance of the Study	8
Nature of the Study	9
Theoretical Framework of the Study	12
Research Questions and Hypotheses	16
Definition of Terms.....	17
Assumptions.....	19
Limitations	19
Scope and Delimitations	20
Summary	20
Chapter 2: Literature Review	22
Strategy for Searching the Literature	23
Theoretical Foundation and Evolution of EI	24
EI Models.....	28
Bar-On's Mixed Model.....	29
Mayer-Salovey-Caruso's Ability Model.....	31
Goleman's Mixed Model	32

Petrides’s Trait EI Model.....	34
EI and Leadership	38
EI and Leadership Effectiveness.....	39
EI and Performance.....	40
Critique of Emotional Intelligence Models.....	41
Theoretical Foundation of Leadership Styles	44
Transactional Leadership	47
Transformational Leadership.....	48
Laissez-faire Leadership	51
Transformational Leadership and Emotional Intelligence.....	51
Law Enforcement.....	53
Evolution of Law Enforcement in the United States	54
Law Enforcement and Organizational Change	57
Emerging Trends in Law Enforcement.....	61
Management Versus Leadership.....	64
Law Enforcement and Leadership Style	66
Leadership Style and Organizational Outcomes.....	68
Empirical Research Related to Study	69
Summary of Literature Review.....	70
Chapter 3: Research Method.....	75
Population	77
Research Design.....	77
Appropriateness of Design.....	78

Sample.....	80
Ethical Protection of Research Participants.....	83
Data Collection and Instrumentation	84
Demographic Factors	85
Leadership Style.....	85
Validity and Reliability.....	85
Independent Variables	87
Emotional Intelligence Level.....	90
Data Triangulation	93
Data Analysis	94
Usefulness to the Field.....	95
Summary	96
Chapter 4: Results.....	98
Data Generation and Data Gathering Processes	98
Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Variables.....	99
Descriptive Statistics for the Independent and Dependent Variables.....	100
Cronbach’s Alpha for the Independent and Dependent Variables.....	101
Data Analysis and Results	102
Research Question 1	102
Research Question 2	109
Research Question 3	113
Research Question 4	114
Summary.....	116

Chapter 5: Summary, Conclusion, and Recommendations	119
Overview	119
Interpretation of Findings	119
Research Question 1	121
Research Question 2	123
Research Question 3	125
Research Question 4	126
Limitations of Study	128
Recommendations for Future Research	129
Recommendations for Law Enforcement Executives.....	130
Implications for Management Practitioners and Social Change.....	131
Conclusion	133
References.....	135
Appendix A: Survey Consent Form.....	152
Appendix B: Demographic Questions	154
Appendix C: Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Short Form (TEIQue=SF)....	156
Appendix D: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X).....	158
Appendix E: Permission Granted to Use MLQ	159
Appendix F: Permission Granted to use TEIQue-SF.....	160
Appendix G: Frequency Tables for all Survey Questions	162
Curriculum Vitae	191

List of Tables

Table 1. Factors of Internet Survey.....	84
Table 2. MLQ 5X Leadership Categories and Subscales	85
Table 3. MLQ 5X Leadership Characteristics, Scales, and Item.....	87
Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for TEIQue-SF	92
Table 5. Descriptive Statistics for Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Style Scores ($n = 139$).....	101
Table 6. Cronbach's Alpha Reliability for Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Style Scores ($n = 139$).....	102
Table 7. Pearson's Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Idealized Influence Attributed.....	104
Table 8. Pearson's Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Idealized Influence Behavioral.....	105
Table 9. Pearson's Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Inspirational Motivation.....	106
Table 10. Pearson's Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Intellectual Stimulation.....	107
Table 11. Pearson's Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Individualized Consideration.....	108
Table 12. Pearson's Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Management-by-Exception (Active).....	110
Table 13. Pearson's Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Management-by-Exception (Passive)	111

Table 14. Pearson’s Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Contingent Reward	113
Table 15. Pearson’s Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Laissez-Faire	114
Table 16. Multiple Linear Regression of Emotional Intelligence Versus the Nine Leadership Style Scores	116

List of Figures

Figure 1. Graphical representation of the interrelationships of paradigms and theories that inform the literature review.	23
Figure 2. The evolution of EI models and theories related to this study.	28
Figure 3. The 15 facets of the TEIQue positioned with reference to their corresponding factor	36
Figure 4. Trait EI versus ability EI II.....	38
Figure 5. The Burke-Litwin model of organizational performance and change.....	58
Figure 6. The transformational factors.....	58
Figure 7. The transactional factors.....	59
Figure 8. Scatter plot of the emotional intelligence score versus the idealized influence attributed score.....	103
Figure 9. Scatter plot of the emotional intelligence score versus the idealized influence behavioral score.	104
Figure 10. Scatter plot of the emotional intelligence score versus the inspirational motivation score.....	106
Figure 11. Scatter plot of the emotional intelligence score versus the intellectual stimulation score.	107
Figure 12. Scatter plot of the emotional intelligence score versus the individualized consideration score.....	108
Figure 13. Scatter plot of the emotional intelligence score versus the management-by-exception active score.	110
Figure 14. Scatter plot of the emotional intelligence score versus the MBEP score.	111

Figure 15. Scatter plot of the emotional intelligence score versus the contingent reward score. 112

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Policing in the 21st century is becoming more complex and dynamic as law enforcement executives manage traditional policing, community policing, homeland security, and economic hardship. Since 2001, law enforcement executives have faced continuous change. After the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001, the role of law enforcement changed from a community policing era to the current homeland security era (Friedmann & Cannon, 2007; Oliver, 2008; Schmalleger, 2009). The acceleration of technology has influenced law enforcement agencies in terms of operations, forensic analysis, investigative tools, and criminal investigations, and law enforcement executives are facing significant budget constraints due to the global financial crisis, which is affecting employee staffing, recruitment, retention, and development (Fischer, 2009; International Association of Chiefs of Police [IACP], 2011). Due to the current economic environment, a new reality exists in American policing for law enforcement executives.

In addition to the current economic challenges, law enforcement executives are still responsible for the traditional functions performed since the early eras of policing. For instance, during the political era (1840s to 1920), law enforcement executives were confronted with the bureaucratic challenges of performing social services, arresting criminals, and handling immigrant workers (Marks & Sun, 2007; Schmalleger, 2009), which is currently a topic of political debate. The reform era (1920 to 1970) involved combating political corruption and police brutality (Bennett & Hess, 2001; Marks & Sun,

2007; Schmallegger, 2009), which continues to influence the public's perception of law enforcement.

Police officers continue to perform community policing activities that include new problem-solving strategies to improve citizen satisfaction and quality of life. In the current homeland security era, law enforcement executives are responsible for intelligence-driven terrorism prevention, agency interoperability, and new proactive intervention laws, such as the Uniting and Strengthening America by Providing Appropriate Tools Required to Intercept and Obstruct Terrorism (USA PATRIOT) Act (Friedmann & Cannon, 2007; Marks & Sun, 2007; Schmallegger, 2009). Ultimately, leadership plays a pivotal role in organizational effectiveness in every era of policing.

Furthermore, the effectiveness of a law enforcement organization is largely dependent upon the quality of executive leadership within the organization. For instance, Bass and Avolio (1994) explored how a full range of leadership could be applied in management, leadership, and organizational development to inspire and motivate employees. Bass and Avolio noted that full range leadership consists of nine leadership components (idealized influence attributed, idealized influence behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception [active], management-by-exception [passive], and laissez-faire leadership) categorized into the three leadership styles. A review of the literature indicated that leadership style positively affects job performance, job satisfaction, morale, organizational commitment, and other important employee outcomes (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Densten, 2003; Rowe, 2006; Sarver, 2008; Schafer, 2009).

Additionally, empirical studies have showed that emotional intelligence (EI) positively influences leadership effectiveness (Goleman, 1995a, 1995b; Janovics & Christiansen, 2001; Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, & Boyle, 2006; Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall, & Salovey, 2006; Petrides & Furnham, 2006; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Walter, Cole, & Humphrey, 2011) and performance (Goleman, 1995a, 1995b; Hawkins & Dulewicz, 2007; Kerr et al., 2006; Koman & Wolff, 2008; Quoidbach & Hansenne, 2009; Shih & Susanto, 2010). Ultimately, an executive's dominant leadership style might affect the overall performance and efficiency of an organization. The findings of this study increase the understanding of law enforcement executives regarding the relationship among trait EI and leadership styles.

Statement of the Problem

The acceleration of change has been one of the most critical problems facing law enforcement executives since 2001, in terms of managing traditional policing, community policing, homeland security, budget reductions, and organizational outcomes. The general problem is that the role of law enforcement executives is becoming more complex and dynamic (Fischer, 2009; IACP, 2011), which indicates a need for a full range of leadership and EI traits to address the operational, political, and economic challenges of an increasingly changing organizational climate. For example, more than 85% of the law enforcement executives surveyed by the IACP in 2011 indicated that they faced serious operational problems due to budget cuts. The findings of this quantitative correlational study on the relationship between full range leadership skills and EI traits could help law enforcement executives confront organizational challenges by

implementing leadership development programs to improve situational leadership behaviors.

EI training has become a common practice in leadership development as organizational leaders seek to identify leadership styles to implement through increased organizational change. Law enforcement executives are facing budget cuts, staffing reductions, attrition, generational blending, and reductions in police services, while at the same time assuming additional responsibilities such as interagency assistance and homeland security (Fischer, 2009; IACP, 2011). Although the areas of EI, leadership style, and leadership effectiveness have been well documented and are sometimes conflicting (Antonakis, Ashkanasy, & Dasborough, 2009; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Brown, Bryant, & Reilly, 2006; Fambrough & Hart, 2008; Goleman, 1995b; Kerr et al., 2006; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005), a gap in the literature exists regarding the relationship that links EI and leadership traits to organizational effectiveness. The problem is that few if any empirical studies exist in which the researchers considered the relationship among leadership styles and trait EI of law enforcement executives. Consequently, the results of this study on the correlation among leadership styles and trait EI might aid law enforcement executives in addressing operational, economic, and political challenges.

Background of the Study

Law enforcement executives are facing a new reality in American policing due to the acceleration of change in operations, economics, and politics. Although the operational responsibilities of law enforcement executives are increasing, many leaders are working with decreased budgets. For example, over 85% of the law enforcement

executives surveyed by the IACP in 2011 indicated that they faced serious operational problems due to budget cuts, including having to lay off or furlough employees. In addition to performing traditional law enforcement duties, agency leaders are being asked to continue community policing and homeland security responsibilities within their agencies. Although leaders in law enforcement have historically had to adapt to environmental changes, the results of the study may provide law enforcement executives with a full range of leadership and EI competencies to address a variety of organizational situations.

In every era of policing, leadership plays a pivotal role in organizational change and transformation. Since the 1800s, key crimes have influenced policing, public perception, and legislation in the United States. For instance, a crime epidemic occurred from 1850 to 1880 due to the Civil War and immigration (Schmallegger, 2009). Next, organized crime activities increased during the prohibition period. During the 1960s and 1970s, the Civil Rights Movement significantly affected policing, public perception, and legislation (Schmallegger, 2009). In the 1980s, the increase in illegal drugs played a vital role in crime and policing (Schmallegger, 2009). Law enforcement executives in the early years of American policing were confronted with bureaucratic challenges.

For instance, the 1840s to the early 1900s comprised the political era of policing. During this time, police departments were mainly decentralized, and police performed a broad range of social services including arresting criminals, handling immigrant workers, and running soup kitchens (Bennett & Hess, 2001; Schmallegger, 2009). Furthermore, the police officers worked closely with the communities they served by conducting foot

patrols with minimal tactical experience or technology (Bennett & Hess, 2001; Schmallegger, 2009). Ultimately, the bureaucratic environment led to corrupt police departments, which included top leadership.

Consequently, the reform era emerged after the political period to combat political corruption and police brutality. For example, police departments became less engaged with communities and police employed a centralized approach to law enforcement. Although the departments were decentralized, the police demonstrated a professional manner of crime control rather than a social services mentality. Unlike in the political era, officers had access to more technology that included law enforcement vehicles with emergency radios and equipment (Marks & Sun, 2007; Schmallegger, 2009). As a result, officers conducted preventive patrols and rapid responses to service calls versus foot patrols (Marks & Sun, 2007; Schmallegger, 2009). The reform era of policing eventually led to the reengagement of law enforcement officers with the community.

The community policing era incorporated elements from the political and reform periods. The departments were decentralized, but the focus was on law enforcement, professionalism, and a renewed relationship with the community (Friedmann & Cannon, 2007; Marks & Sun, 2007). In addition, officers participated on task forces and conducted foot, bike, and horse patrols to enhance community relationships (Friedmann & Cannon, 2007; Marks & Sun, 2007). The advancements in technology continued as law enforcement executives began to implement new problem-solving strategies to improve citizen satisfaction and quality of life. For approximately 25 years, police departments operated under the system of community policing, which changed

dramatically on September 11, 2001, when terrorists carried out attacks on American soil (Friedmann & Cannon, 2007; Marks & Sun, 2007).

Following the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001, law enforcement executives were forced into an era of homeland security. In addition to all the responsibilities performed in the community policing era, law enforcement executives began to focus on security, terrorism, crime, and fear (Friedmann & Cannon, 2007; Marks & Sun, 2007; Schmallegger, 2009). The era of policing includes intelligence-driven terrorism prevention, agency interoperability, and new proactive intervention laws. Ultimately, this era involves the greatest operational, economic, and political challenges to law enforcement executives.

The effectiveness and efficiency of a law enforcement organization are largely dependent upon the quality of executive leadership within the organization. Executive leaders can have a positive or negative effect on job performance, job satisfaction, morale, organizational commitment, and many other important employee outcomes (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Densten, 2003; Rowe, 2006; Sarver, 2008; Schafer, 2009). Executives' dominant leadership style might affect the overall effectiveness and efficiency of organizations. Therefore, the findings of this study might provide law enforcement executives with alternative ways of leading and thinking about leadership situations to become more effective leaders.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the quantitative correlational study was to examine whether, and to what extent, a relationship exists among leadership styles and EI levels of law

enforcement executives from the District of Columbia, Maryland, and Virginia sections of the IACP. Specifically, the general problem is that the role of law enforcement executives is becoming more complex and dynamic (Fischer, 2009; IACP, 2011), which indicates a need for full range leadership and EI traits to address the operational, political, and economic challenges of an increasingly changing organizational climate.

Significance of the Study

The quantitative correlational study included four research questions and hypotheses to examine the relationship among leadership styles and EI levels of law enforcement executives. The findings generated from this correlational study make significant contributions to EI and leadership literature. More specifically, knowledge of the positive correlation among leadership styles (transformational and transactional leadership) and EI could aid law enforcement executives in developing strategies that enhance leadership development programs.

The results of this study could effect positive social change in mangement and law enforcement leadership by (a) helping law enforcement executives use full range leadership behaviors to address organizational situations; (b) helping law enforcement executives understand the relationship between EI and a particular leadership style; (c) enhancing the understanding of the role of EI and leadership style on organizational outcomes; (d) providing law enforcement executives with leadership information to addresses the operational, political, and economic challenges facing their agencies; and (e) contributing to the development and implementation of leadership development

programs that enhance the leadership and EI competencies of law enforcement executives.

Nature of the Study

The nature of the quantitative correlational design was to examine whether, and to what extent, a relationship exists among the independent variables (leadership styles) and the dependent variable (EI). The independent variables consisted of the nine leadership components of the full range leadership model, including transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles. Quantitative research involves examining the relationship between variables to test hypotheses or research questions.

Correlational design is a type of descriptive quantitative research that includes investigating if and to what extent a relationship exists among two or more variables (Simon, 2006). Correlational studies take place in natural environments and do not include treatment and control groups. Unlike experimental designs, correlational studies do not describe causation; however, relationships between variables may be occurring concurrently. The correlational design lines up with the worldview of postpositivists, who seek to confirm or reject hypotheses rather than prove them (Creswell, 2009). Therefore, a correlational design was the most appropriate method of research for the study compared to other research methods.

Descriptive research is an effective approach to test the relationship between variables that allows researchers to describe a problem, situation, or group in a precise and accurate manner. Descriptive research involves a process of systematically gathering data within the contextual framework of a specific phenomenon (Simon, 2006; Singleton

& Straits, 2010). Although descriptive research does not permit researchers to determine cause-and-effect relationships, the design consists of a structured exercise of fact finding described by numerical data. When a survey is utilized, researchers generally describe the population data in the distribution of characteristics, attitudes, or experiences.

In addition to correlational design, three qualitative methods of research were considered: phenomenology, case study, and grounded theory. Qualitative methods are different from quantitative research in terms of philosophical assumptions, strategies of inquiry, data collection, data analysis, and the interpretation of data (Creswell, 2007; Singleton & Straits, 2010). For example, qualitative research consists of diverse strategies of inquiry and data analysis based primarily on text, interviews, and observation (Creswell, 2007; Singleton & Straits, 2010). A phenomenological study involves an attempt to understand and describe the lived experiences of a common phenomenon for several individuals (Creswell, 2007). A case study involves a search to understand a problem using the case as an example rather than to understand and describe the lived experiences of several individuals in phenomenological research (Creswell, 2007). A grounded theory study involves developing or discovering a theory based upon data from the field (Creswell, 2007). In the final analysis of research methodologies, a correlational design was the most appropriate method to examine the relationship between leadership styles and EI.

The target population consisted of active members of the District of Columbia, Maryland, and Virginia sections of the IACP. The three sections represented a cross section of small, medium, and large police departments, as well as executives from

international, federal, state, and local law enforcement agencies. Thus, 1,214 law enforcement executives are active members of the IACP from the District of Columbia, Maryland, and Virginia sections. A convenience sample of 139 participants out of 1,214 law enforcement executives participated in the study. A sample size of 139 produces 80% power to detect an effect size of 0.23, which is a medium effect size. Further justification of the sample size appears in Chapter 3.

Data collection consisted of a self-administered Internet survey that included demographic questions, Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Short Form (TEIQue-SF) questions, and Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X-Short) questions. The TEIQue-SF is a 30-item instrument developed by Petrides and Furnham (2006) based upon the theoretical framework of its full-length assessment. TEIQue-SF provides a total trait EI score by examining the facets of emotionality, self-control, sociability, and well-being.

The MLQ is a validated instrument created by Bass and Avolio (1995) to measure transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles. In the study, the 45-item MLQ 5X short form was used to measure nine leadership components (idealized influence attributed, idealized influence behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception [active], management-by-exception [passive], and laissez-faire leadership) categorized into the three leadership styles. All 1,214 active members of the District of Columbia, Maryland, and Virginia sections of IACP received an invitation via e-mail to complete the online survey.

Hypotheses were tested using Pearson's correlation coefficient and stepwise multiple linear regression analysis. Statistical analyses consisted of a two-tailed test with a .05 alpha level. Demographic characteristics of the study sample were described using descriptive statistics. Cronbach's alpha was used to measure the internal consistency reliability of the leadership style and EI scale scores.

Theoretical Framework of the Study

Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) situational leadership model was used to underpin the study to show how no particular leadership style works best in every situation. The foundational principles of the Hersey and Blanchard model were the leadership style and maturity level of followers. The fundamental theme of situational leadership was that effective leadership depends on the task. Hersey and Blanchard contended that effective leaders possess the ability to diagnose, adapt, and communicate through a particular situation. In addition to leadership ability, successful leaders adapt to changes in their organizational environment. The study involved examining the leadership styles of law enforcement executives, which Hersey and Blanchard defined as the leader's task or relationship behaviors as perceived by the followers.

The focus of Bass and Avolio's (1994, 2004) full range leadership model consisted of nine leadership components categorized into three leadership styles. A fundamental principle of Bass and Avolio's (1994) model is that every leader displays some degree of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership style. Bass and Avolio's model was used to underpin the current study to show how law enforcement

executives may improve organizational effectiveness by applying a full range leadership approach in the areas of leadership, management, and organizational development.

The heart of transformational leadership is the leader's capability to build a positive relationship with followers and focusing on providing rewards or punishment based upon performance (Ardichvili & Manderscheid, 2008; Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004). The focus of transactional leadership is the leader's ability to reward and punish rather than a relationship (Ardichvili & Manderscheid, 2008; Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004). Laissez-faire leadership represents how a leader passively manages employees using a hands-off approach, which may be more effective depending on the maturity level of the followers (Ardichvili & Manderscheid, 2008; Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004).

As law enforcement executives face continuous change, a full range of leadership skills is necessary to confront the operational, economic, and political challenges. Bass and Avolio (1994) noted that a full range of leadership skills is essential for leaders dealing with a changing workforce and globalization. Bass and Avolio (1994, 2004) reported that it is not uncommon for organizational leaders to exhibit varying degrees of both transactional and transformational leadership skills. Although a leader may demonstrate both leadership styles, dominant transactional skills lead to lower performance and ineffective change (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004). Dominant transformational leadership skills predict improved performance and organizational outcomes (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004).

Petrides's (2010) trait EI theory was used to underpin the study regarding the influence of the trait model on leader EI. Petrides (2010) compared and contrasted the EI theories of Bar-On (1997), Goleman (1995a), and Mayer and Salovey (1997) to Petrides's trait EI theory and contended that the three other EI theories did not contain scientific definitions but were merely defined using dictionary language. Petrides operationally defined trait EI as "a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies and measured via the trait emotional intelligence questionnaire" (p. 137), which acknowledges the subjectivity of emotions.

A common theme in contemporary literature is that EI has become a common practice in organizational leadership development for practitioners; however, research indicated that the field of EI is not aligned in relationship to ideas, concepts, models, and measurements (Fambrough & Hart, 2008; Groves, McEnrue, & Shen, 2008; Muiya & Kacirek, 2009). Fambrough and Hart (2008) noted that current literature contained contradictions and inconsistencies regarding the relationship between EI and leadership effectiveness, and they noted that findings on EI are divergent and lack a validated measure. Fambrough and Hart concluded that a leader might benefit from EI development to increase interpersonal effectiveness. In the current study, EI was measured using the TEIQue-SF, which is a valid and reliable instrument to assess individual differences in EI (Cooper & Petrides, 2010; Parker, Keefer, & Wood, 2011).

Petrides's (2010) theory was selected for the study because trait EI was reported to have four advantages over the other EI models (Petrides, 2010). First, trait EI theory acknowledges the subjectivity of emotional experiences. Second, trait EI was integrated

with differential psychology instead of separating the subject from other areas of empirical knowledge (Petrides, 2010). Third, the theory supports the premise that several EI instruments may be useful in measuring EI constructs. Finally, trait EI extends beyond the model itself and may be applied to other forms of intelligence.

Cooper and Petrides (2010) tested the psychometric properties of the TEIQue-SF using the advanced method of item response theory. Item response theory analysis provides detailed information across a range of factors rather than a single reliability estimate of the entire sample, which shows the validity of each item (Cooper & Petrides, 2010). The TEIQue-SF has effective psychometric properties for a global trait EI score (Cooper & Petrides, 2010), which was used to measure the dependent variable in the study.

Furthermore, several researchers have provided evidence that a significant relationship exists between EI and leadership effectiveness (Goleman, 1995b; Kerr et al., 2006; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). The EI of an organizational leader correlates with the quality of the leader's relationships with subordinates (Janovics & Christiansen, 2001; Lopes et al., 2006). Leaders with higher EI tend to have better working relationships with their subordinates. In turn, better working relationships with subordinates tend to produce better employee outcomes, such as job performance, organizational commitment, and employee retention. The gap in the literature supported examining the correlation among leadership styles and EI of law enforcement executives.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The overarching research question was what, if any, correlation exists among leadership styles and EI among law enforcement executives? The following research questions were addressed:

1. What, if any, correlation exists between a transformational leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives?
2. What, if any, correlation exists between a transactional leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives?
3. What, if any, correlation exists between a laissez-faire leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives?
4. To what extent do two or more leadership styles collectively add independent information in predicting EI among law enforcement executives?

H1₀: No correlation exists between a transformational leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

H1_a: A correlation exists between a transformational leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

H2₀: No correlation exists between a transactional leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

H2_a: A correlation exists between a transactional leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

H3₀: No correlation exists between a laissez-faire leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

H3_a: A correlation exists between a laissez-faire leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

H4₀: Two or more leadership styles do not add independent information in predicting EI among law enforcement executives.

H4_a: Two or more leadership styles add independent information in predicting EI among law enforcement executives.

Definition of Terms

Below are conceptual and operational definitions to delineate the use of key terms in the context of the study.

Emotion: “A feeling and its distinctive thoughts, psychological and biological states, and range of propensities to act” (Goleman, 1995a, p. 289).

Emotional intelligence (EI): EI was measured in the study using the most recent model known as trait EI, which was based upon the individual facets of the earlier models. The operational definition of trait EI is “a constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions and dispositions (e.g., emotion perception, emotion management, empathy, impulsivity) assessed through self-report questionnaires” (Petrides & Furnham, 2006, p. 554).

Intelligence: The capacity to carry out abstract thought and to learn from and adapt to environmental changes (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Laissez-faire leadership: Passively managing employees using a hands-off approach and avoiding decision making or becoming involved in issues (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Law enforcement executive: Law enforcement officers with executive authority or its equivalent such as commissioners; superintendents; chiefs; directors; assistant chiefs of police; deputy chiefs of police; executive heads; and division, district, or bureau commanding officers (IACP, 2011).

Leadership: The influence of an individual or group to reach goal attainment (Northouse, 2007).

Leadership style: How followers perceive the task or relationship behaviors of leaders (Hershey & Blanchard, 1977).

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ): A validated instrument created by Bass and Avolio (1995) to measure transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles.

Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Short Form (TEIQue-SF): A 30-item instrument developed by Petrides and Furnham (2006) based upon the theoretical framework of its full-length assessment. TEIQue-SF provides a total trait EI score by examining the subscales of emotionality, self-control, sociability, and well-being.

Transactional leadership: An agreement, transaction, or exchange between a leader and follower, in which the leader specifies the rewards or punishment the follower will receive for successfully completing a task or not (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Transformational leadership: “A process of influencing in which leaders change their associates’ awareness of what is important, and move them to see themselves and the opportunities and challenges of their environment in a new way” (Bass & Avolio, 2004, p. 94).

Assumptions

The research topic was selected to examine the relationship among leadership styles and trait EI of law enforcement executives. One assumption was that Bass and Avolio's (1994) full range leadership and Petrides's (2009) trait EI theory provide an adequate explanation of the research topic and justify the instruments used for data collection. Another assumption was that law enforcement executives involved in the study understood the survey questions on the TEIQue-SF and MLQ 5X-Short instruments and provided honest and accurate responses. A further assumption was that the sample was representative of the larger population of the IACP.

Limitations

In order for the study to make a significant contribution to leadership and EI literature, it is essential to recognize limitations. The use of a correlational design was one limitation of the study. Correlational research describes a relationship among two or more variables, but lacks the needed criteria to determine causation (Simon, 2006; Singleton & Straits, 2010). A second limitation of the study was the use of a self-report questionnaire that increased the risk of participants not answering all the questions in an accurate and honest manner.

A third limitation was the convenience sampling method, in which participants are selected from cases, associations, or organizations conveniently available (Singleton & Straits, 2010). The population consisted of law enforcement executives who agreed to participate in the study from among 1,214 active members of the District of Columbia, Maryland, and Virginia sections of the IACP. Although a nonprobability sample may

weaken the external validity of a study (Singleton & Straits, 2010), the use of this method provided an appropriate cross section of law enforcement executives from small, medium, and large police departments, as well as executives in federal, state, municipal or local, and military law enforcement agencies.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of the quantitative correlational study included the use of a self-administered Internet survey to examine the relationship between trait EI, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. EI was operationalized using the TEIQue-SF questions to measure the overall EI of law enforcement executives (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). In addition to the TEIQue-SF items, the survey included questions from the MLQ 5X-Short, which measured transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

The target population included members of the District of Columbia, Maryland, and Virginia sections of the IACP. Therefore, one delimitation of the study was that only active members of IACP were invited to participate in the Internet survey. Another delimitation was that law enforcement executives who are not members of IACP were excluded from the study.

Summary

Law enforcement executives are facing a new reality in American policing. The leadership aptitude of a law enforcement executive is crucial as agency responsibilities become more complex and dynamic. For instance, law enforcement executives are presently coping with the challenges of traditional policing, community policing,

homeland security, and economic hardship. Bass and Avolio's (1994) theory of transformational leadership provided the theoretical base for understanding how leadership styles can be applied to management, leadership, and organizational development. Furthermore, Petrides's (2009) trait EI theory informed the study regarding the influence of the trait model on the leaders' EI. A quantitative correlational design was an appropriate methodology to examine whether a relationship exists among leadership styles and EI in law enforcement executives.

Chapter 2 is a literature review essay that contains a synthesis of current research related to the problem statement, research questions, and hypotheses. Chapter 3 includes the rationale for selecting a quantitative correlational design for this study and an explanation regarding how the design was derived from the problem statement. Chapter 3 also includes a description of the research procedures, survey instruments, data collection, and statistical analysis.

Chapter 4 describes the demographic characteristics of the respondents ($n = 139$) who completed the Internet survey. The chapter is arranged around the research questions and hypotheses. The results of Pearson's correlation coefficient and multiple regression analyses are provided. The statistical tests reject or fail to reject the null hypotheses. Chapter 5 provides an interpretation of the research findings. The chapter explains the implications for social change, offers recommendations for action, and identifies areas warranting future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Policing in the 21st century is becoming more complex and dynamic as law enforcement executives deal with traditional policing, community policing, homeland security, and economic hardship. In a survey conducted by the Police Executive Research Forum, 51% of police chiefs indicated they received smaller budgets in 2010 than in 2009, and 59% expected more cuts in 2011 (Fischer, 2009). The economic challenges of police departments are causing executives to consider layoffs; furloughs; and cuts in training, technology, and special units (Fischer, 2009). The effectiveness of law enforcement organizations will largely depend upon the quality of executive leadership within an organization; hence, the current study involved examining the relationship among EI and the leadership styles of law enforcement executives.

The new reality in American policing for law enforcement executives requires an examination of several EI and leadership models and theories. The study may provide law enforcement executives with leadership knowledge to become more effective leaders in managing complex and dynamic law enforcement organizations. For this reason, the literature review encompasses seminal and contemporary theories as well as research concerning leadership effectiveness, organizational change, and organizational outcomes.

Chapter 2 contains analyses and syntheses of empirical research on EI and leadership styles that inform the understanding of the phenomenon that law enforcement executives are facing. The first section consists of the foundation, evolution, and models of EI. The first section concludes with a review of the literature on the relationship between EI, leadership, effectiveness, and performance. The second section contains the

theoretical foundation of leadership styles, including transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership. The third section begins with the evolution of law enforcement in the United States and ends with an examination of how organizational change, emerging trends, leadership, and organizational outcomes affect law enforcement executives. The final section contains a discussion on the relationship between prior empirical research and this quantitative correlational study (see Figure 1).

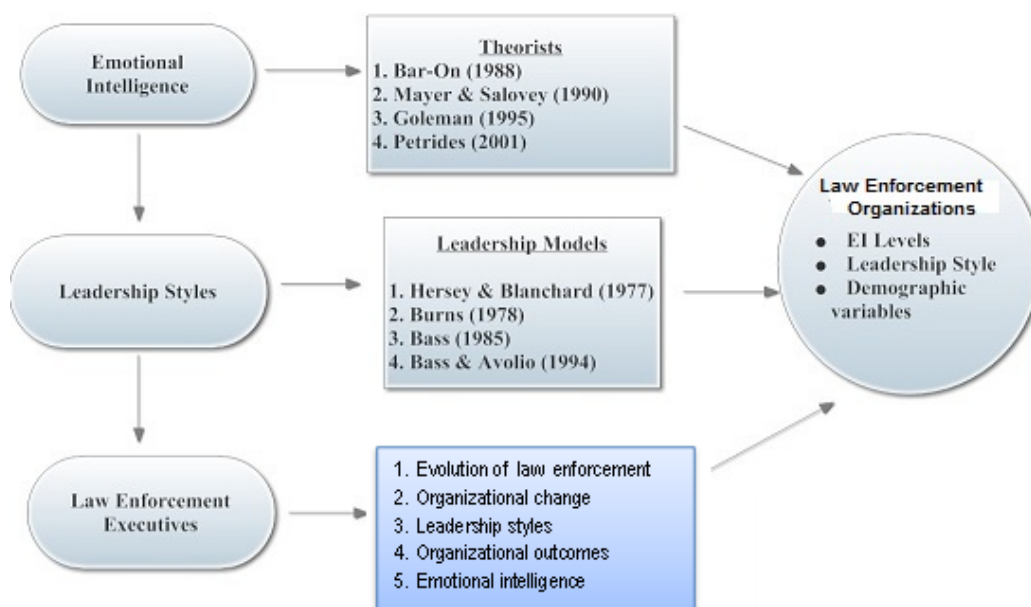


Figure 1. Graphical representation of the interrelationships of paradigms and theories that inform the literature review.

Strategy for Searching the Literature

The literature review consisted of primary sources such as books, peer-reviewed journal articles, dissertations, professional websites, and federal government publications. Articles were accessed through Google Scholar and the following Walden University research databases: ABI/Inform, Business Source Complete, International Security &

Counterterrorism Resource Center, PsycInfo, PsycArticles, and SocIndex. Extensive database searches were conducted using key words and phrases, including *emotional intelligence, leadership styles, leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, law enforcement executives, executives, police chiefs, law enforcement directors, police commissioners, and police administrators*. Variations on terms (e.g., leadership, leader, leadership style, leadership styles) were also used to locate articles that might have been otherwise overlooked. The search strategies yielded over 200 articles, of which 115 were germane to the topic.

Theoretical Foundation and Evolution of EI

Looking to the field of psychology to understand the correlation between human behavior, business, education, and government is not a new phenomenon. For instance, Thorndike (1920) pointed out how the military used principles of psychology to understand how to manage personnel efficiently. Thorndike noted that individuals do not consist of one form of intelligence, but rather different intelligences that vary based upon life experiences.

Thorndike (1920) suggested that an individual's level of intelligence be examined in three forms, specifically abstract, mechanical, and social intelligence, because people are not equally intelligent in all areas. Thorndike noted intelligence involves the ability to understand and manage ideas (abstract), environmental objects (mechanical), and people (social). Social intelligence is "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls—to act wisely in human relations" (Thorndike, 1920, p. 228).

The underpinning of the EI construct can be traced back to Thorndike's theory of social intelligence.

Although the distal roots of EI are associated with the theory of social intelligence, the proximal roots of EI link to H. Gardner's (1983) theory of multiple intelligences. More than 60 years after Thorndike (1920), H. Gardner explored the mind of an individual using the construct of social intelligence in terms of independent cognitive abilities rather than general intelligence. In the theory of multiple intelligences, intelligence is "a biopsychological potential to process information that can be activated in a cultural setting to solve problems or create products that are of value in a culture" (H. Gardner & Moran, 2006, p. 227). Similar to Thorndike, H. Gardner contended that individuals have a variety of intelligences that interact with one another to produce different outcomes.

H. Gardner (1983) noted that an individual may have more than one intelligence interacting together to produce a successful action or result. Multiple intelligences theory consists of linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, naturalistic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and existential intelligence (H. Gardner, 1983). To illustrate the concept of multiple intelligences, a successful musician may utilize a different mix of intelligences than a business leader or law enforcement executive. H. Gardner's interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences became two of the foundational elements of the initial EI constructs.

Based upon H. Gardner's (1983) principles of intrapersonal (emotional) and interpersonal (social) intelligences, Bar-On (1988, 2006) developed a construct called

emotional-social intelligence. Bar-On (2006) purported that effective human behavior is determined by combining emotional-social intelligence with other skills and attributes. The model of well-being involved the noncognitive skills or competencies that allow an individual to understand, control, and adapt to environmental stressors (Bar-On, 2006; Cherniss, 2010b). The five components of Bar-On's mixed model are (a) intrapersonal skills, (b) interpersonal skills, (c) adaptability skills, (d) stress management, and (e) general mood, which are measured with the self-report Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) instrument.

Challenging the perspectives of intelligence theorists, Salovey and Mayer (1990) were the first to use the term *emotional intelligence*. Salovey and Mayer used earlier research on social intelligence to underpin the development of the EI ability model, which correlates more with cognitive abilities than with personality traits and centers on a person's ability to perceive, express, assimilate, understand, reason, and regulate emotions in themselves and others (Cherniss, 2010b; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008; Stough, Saklofske, & Parker, 2009). Mayer et al. (2008) were the first to attempt to measure and operationalize EI. The four components of the EI ability model are (a) emotions perception, (b) facilitation, (c) understanding, and (d) management, which are measured via the self-report Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT).

Inspired by Mayer, Salovey, and colleagues, Goleman (1995a) popularized EI by authoring a book on EI and leader performance. Goleman's definition of EI centered on a person's capability to understand his or her own feelings and those of others to motivate

and manage relationships. The four competencies or clusters of Goleman's model are (a) self-awareness, (b) relationship management, (c) social awareness, and (d) self-management, which are measured with the multirater Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) or emotional and Social Competence Inventory instruments (Cherniss, 2010b; Goleman, 1995b). Goleman's dimensions involved hierarchical relationships in which self-awareness was the foundation (Muyia, 2009). Therefore, Goleman purported that leaders with high EI levels possessed leadership skills that were more effective.

The theoretical foundation of the current study was the most recent EI construct, the trait EI model by Petrides (2001). Although the trait EI model includes individual qualities of the earlier EI constructs (Cherniss, 2010b), Petrides (2001, 2009) focused on the personality facets of EI rather than competencies, cognitive abilities, or facilitators. The four components of the trait EI model are (a) well-being, (b) sociability, (c) self-control, and (d) emotionality, which are measured via the self-report TEIQue instrument.

One advantage of the TEIQue measurement is that the trait EI theory supports it, whereas earlier theories produced concerns related to construct, measurement, and operationalization (Cherniss, 2010b; Petrides, 2009; Stough et al., 2009). The difficulty in developing cognitive ability test items for the subjective nature of emotions presented challenges for measuring ability EI (Stough et al., 2009). The subjective nature of emotions, however, is a benefit to trait EI because of the compatibility of self-perceptions and behavioral dispositions (Stough et al., 2009). Although recent literature supported trait EI more than ability EI (Joseph & Newman, 2010; Martins, Ramalho, & Morin, 2010; Petrides & Furnham, 2006), both models are still in relatively early stages and

further research is necessary. Figure 2 shows the evolution of EI models used in the study.

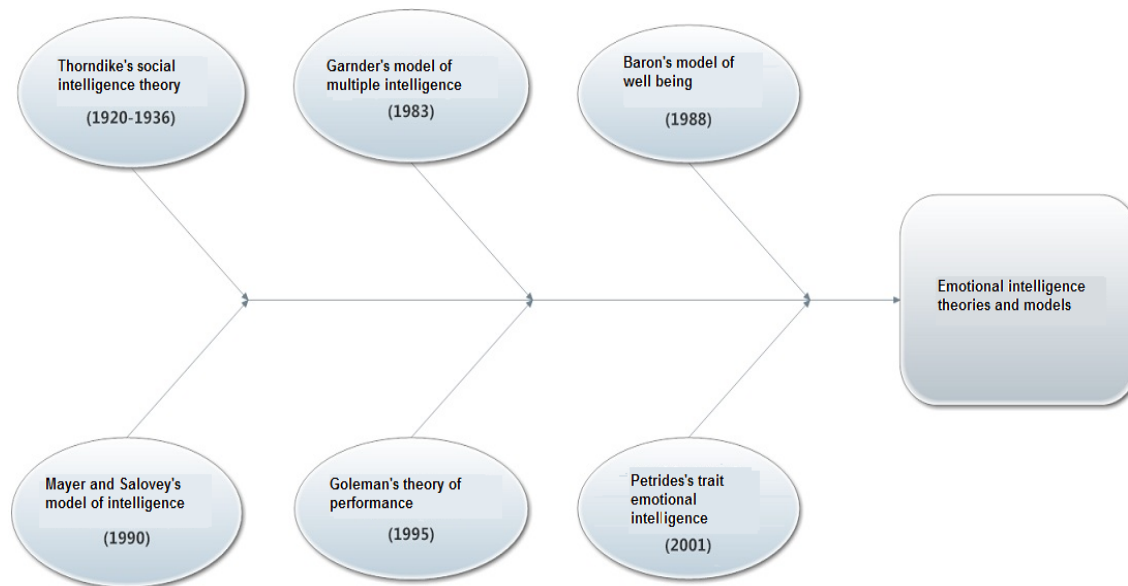


Figure 2. The evolution of EI models and theories related to this study.

EI Models

Bar-On (1988), Salovey and Mayer (1990), Goleman (1995a), and Petrides (2001) developed the four major models of EI. A review of the literature indicated that a lack of clarity exists in the field of research on the definitions, constructs, and measures of EI (Cherniss, 2010a, 2010b; Fambrough & Hart, 2008; Koman & Wolff, 2008; Maul, 2011; Muyia, 2009). Bar-On defined EI as noncognitive skills or competencies that allow an individual to understand, control, and adapt to environmental stressors. Mayer et al.'s (2008) definition of EI centered on individuals' ability to perceive, express, assimilate, understand, reason, and regulate emotions in themselves and others. The focus of Goleman's definition was a person's capability to understand his or her own feelings and

those of others to motivate and manage relationships. Petrides and Furnham (2006) defined trait EI as “a constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions and dispositions (e.g., emotion perception, emotion management, empathy, impulsivity) assessed through self-report questionnaires” (p. 554), which is the operational definition of EI used in this study.

The most common methods of EI are the ability and mixed models; however, the focus of recent research has been on trait EI as a separate approach. The ability model concentrates on cognitive abilities, intelligence, hierarchy, and performance. In contrast, mixed models describe EI in terms of aptitude abilities and personality traits rather than just intelligence (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Utilizing an inductive approach, both Bar-On (1988) and Goleman (1995) used the mixed model approach. Salovey and Mayer (1990) used an ability approach, and Petrides (2001) used a trait EI approach. The literature reviewed indicated that EI models were inconsistent on the use of measurements (Cherniss, 2010a; Koman & Wolff, 2008; Maul, 2011; Muya, 2009). This study involved examining the short-form instruments of the four common EI models, although all have long-version measurements.

Bar-On’s Mixed Model

Bar-On’s (1988, 1997) mixed model construct of EI includes emotion and personality combined into noncognitive components and competencies that explore how individuals adapt to environmental stressors. The five components of Bar-On’s mixed model are intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, adaptability, stress management, and

general mood (Bar-On, 1988, 1997; Stough et al., 2009). Bar-On's model contained the following competencies:

- *Intrapersonal component* (internal intelligence): self-regard, self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization.
- *Interpersonal component* (external intelligence): empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationships.
- *Adaptability*: reality testing, flexibility, and problem solving.
- *Stress management*: stress tolerance and impulse control.
- *General mood*: optimism and happiness (Stough et al., 2009).

Furthermore, Bar-On (1988, 1997) utilized the components to examine the individual behavior in relationship with personal success, happiness, and well-being. In the work environment, the focus of Bar-On's model is employee self-awareness and how employees understand and relate with each other in stressful situations.

The EQ-i Short (EQ-i:S) is a 35-item instrument developed by Bar-On (1997) from the long version of EQ-i. The EQ-i:S instrument provides a total EI score and scores on the dimensions of intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, and stress management. The instrument has demonstrated internal consistency and congruence with the long-form version, but more research is necessary because most of the studies were conducted using the full EQ-i (Parker et al., 2011). Although the multidimensionality of the EQ-i:S appears to have advantages over other short-form measures of EI, the four-factor structure and other psychometric properties of the short form need to be replicated in future studies (Stough et al., 2009). For example, EQ-i neglects the facets of emotion

perception, expression, and regulation but includes other facets that some theorists deem irrelevant (Perez, Petrides, & Furnham, 2005). In the final analysis, the review of the literature was unclear whether EQ-i has incremental validity beyond personality (Perez et al., 2005; Stough et al., 2009).

Mayer-Salovey-Caruso's Ability Model

Another popular construct of EI is the ability model developed by Salovey and Mayer (1990). Mayer et al. (2008) contended that EI involved individual aptitude or intelligence and cognitive abilities. The model correlates more with cognitive abilities with than personality traits and centers on an individual's ability to interact within an environment (Cherniss, 2010; Mayer et al., 2008; Stough et al., 2009). The ability model indicated that EI develops over time, correlates with IQ, is hierarchical, and is tested based upon performance (Muyia, 2009). The model is based on a deductive approach and has four key emotion components: perception, facilitation, understanding, and management.

Perceiving emotion represents an individual's ability to detect and interpret the emotions of others as well as their own (Muyia, 2009; Stough et al., 2009). *Facilitating emotion* involves an individual's ability to control his or her own emotions to solve problems (Muyia, 2009; Stough et al., 2009). *Understanding emotion* represents an individual's ability to comprehend the way people combine, progress, and transition emotions with each other (Muyia, 2009; Stough et al., 2009). *Managing emotion* is the ability to situationally regulate emotions in self and others (Muyia, 2009; Stough et al., 2009). The literature reviewed indicated that the ability approach moderately relates to

individual, team, and organizational performance; work environment; and group morale (Joseph & Newman, 2010; Muya, 2009; Stough et al., 2009).

Mayer et al. (2008) developed the MSCEIT based upon evidence from the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale, which was an instrument they designed previously. The MSCEIT is an ability test of 141 items designed to test four dimensions of EI: (a) emotion perception, (b) emotion facilitation, (c) emotion understanding, and (d) emotion management (Mayer et al., 2002; Stough et al., 2009). Although the dimensions and overall score show evidence of reliability over .75, some researchers have questioned the validity of the instrument. The correlation varies between the four components and intelligence, but emotional understandings produce the strongest relationship. The literature review showed that the MSCEIT components also differ in relationship with personality dimensions and generally do not correlate with personality traits (Stough et al., 2009).

Goleman's Mixed Model

The most popular EI model for business practitioners was Goleman's (1995a, 1995b) approach, which focused on the skills and abilities that transform average leaders into star performers. Goleman used the mixed method model to study work performance and organizational leadership. In the book *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*, Goleman (1995b) provided a statistic that indicated IQ accounted for approximately 20% of career success, which led to the misinterpretation that EI accounted for the remaining 80% of career success. Goleman contended that IQ may

predict the best employee to handle cognitive challenges, but EI was most effective at predicting strong leaders.

Goleman's (1995a) definition of EI centered on a person's capability to understand his or her own feelings and those of others to motivate and manage relationships. The four competencies of Goleman's EI model for business practitioners are self-awareness, relationship management, social awareness, and self-management (Cherniss, 2010b; Goleman, 1995a). Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) provided the following EI leadership competencies:

- *Self-awareness*: the ability of a leader to understand how feelings affect performance, which includes the subscales of self-assessment and self-confidence.
- *Self-management*: leaders demonstrating self-control, transparency, adaptability, achievement, initiative, and optimism.
- *Social awareness*: leaders who display empathy, organizational awareness, and service.
- *Relationship management*: leaders who inspire, influence, develop others, catalyze change, manage conflict, collaborate, and build teams.

Goleman's competencies involved hierarchical relationships in which self-awareness was the foundation. In the final analysis, Goleman believed that leaders with high EI levels possessed more effective leadership skills.

Goleman (1995b) designed a 360-degree assessment called ECI, which included self, peer, and manager ratings. The 110-item ECI instrument measures 20 competencies

and behaviors based upon the scales of self-awareness, social awareness, self-management, and social skills. The weakness of this measure pertains to validity and lack of peer-reviewed evidence (Muyia, 2009; Perez et al., 2005).

Petrides's Trait EI Model

Petrides's (2001) trait EI theory was used to underpin this study regarding the relationship between leadership styles and EI of law enforcement executives. As the trait EI theory is the most recent EI model, Petrides (2010) compared and contrasted the EI theories of Bar-On (1997), Goleman (1995a), and Mayer and Salovey (1997) to trait EI theory. Petrides contended that the three other EI theories did not contain scientific definitions but were merely defined using dictionary language. For the current study, trait EI is operationally defined as a constellation of self-perceived emotions and abilities that recognizes the subjectivity of emotions conceptualized at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Mavroveli, Petrides, Rieffe, & Bakker, 2007; Petrides, 2010; Petrides & Furnham, 2006), which accounts for criterion variance and incremental validity above the giant three and big five personality models (Petrides & Furnham, 2006; Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007; Vernon, Petrides, Bratko, & Schermer, 2008).

Petrides's (2010) theory was selected for the study because trait EI has four advantages over the other EI models. First, trait EI theory acknowledges the subjectivity of emotional experiences. Second, trait EI integrates with differential psychology instead of separating the subject from other areas of empirical knowledge (Petrides, 2010). Third, the theory supports the premise that several EI instruments may be useful in

measuring EI constructs. Finally, trait EI extends beyond the model itself and possibly applies to other forms of intelligence.

Petrides's (2001, 2009) model consisted of four components with 15 facets of the personality domain. The facets of TEIQue measurement correspond to the factors as follows (see Figure 3):

- *Emotionality*: individuals who are in touch with their own feelings and those of others. The facets include empathy, emotional perception, emotional expression, and relationships.
- *Self-control*: individuals in control over their desires and impulses. The facets consist of emotional regulation, impulsiveness, and stress management.
- *Sociability*: individuals engaging in social relationships and influence. The facets involve emotional management, assertiveness, and social awareness.
- *Well-being*: individuals who feel positive, happy, and fulfilled based upon past actions and future expectations. The facets include optimism, happiness, and self-esteem (Petrides, 2009, p. 61).

Additionally, the facets of adaptability and self-motivation do not directly correspond with any of the factors but are elements of the global trait EI score.

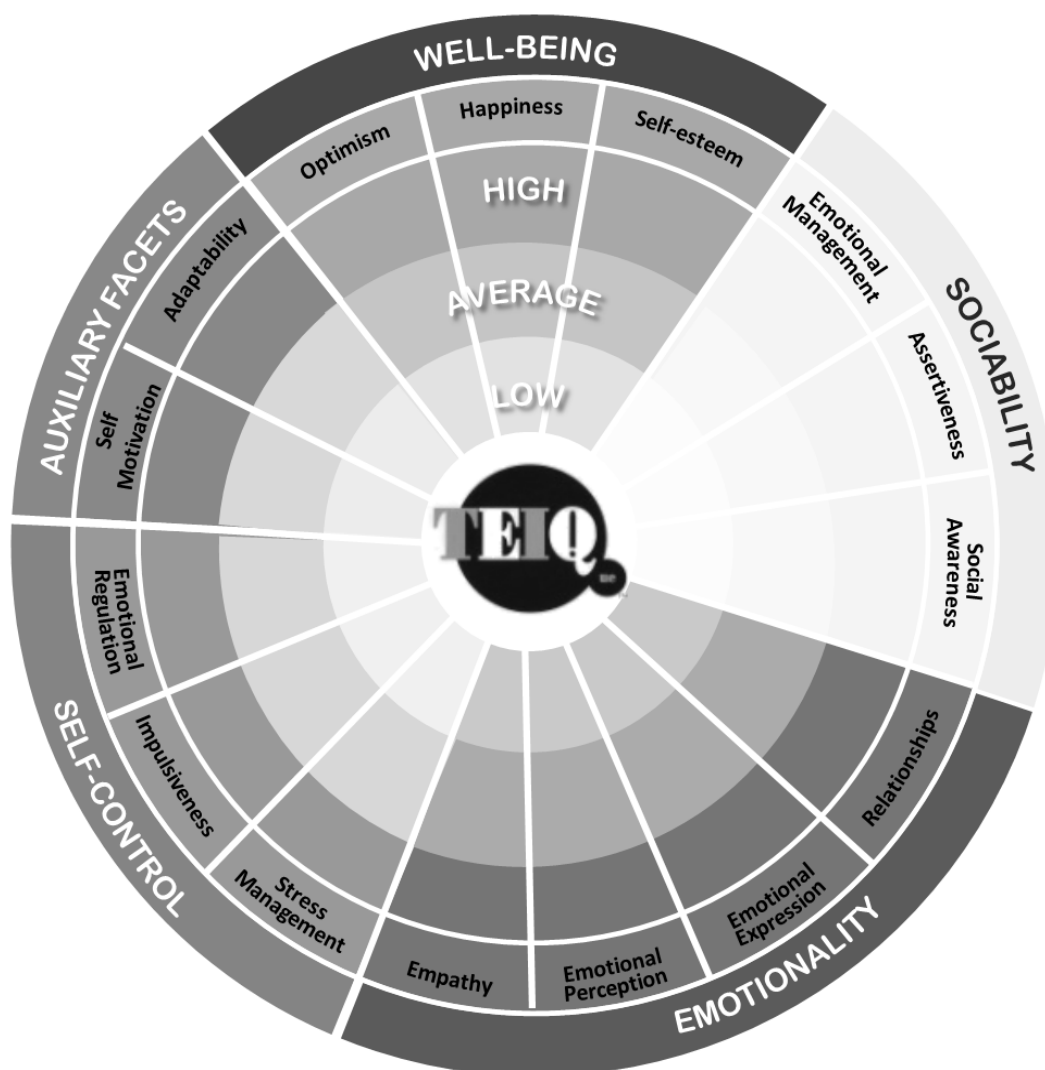


Figure 3. The 15 facets of the TEIQue positioned with reference to their corresponding factor. From *Technical Manual for the Trait Emotional Questionnaire (TEIQue)*, by K. V. Petrides, 2009, London, England: London Psychometric Laboratory. Copyright 2009 by K. V. Petrides. Reprinted with permission of the author.

Researchers have a number of short-form instruments at their disposal to measure EI; however, Parker, Keefer, and Wood (2011) purported that most of them are very limited. Parker et al. noted that a multidimensional approach to measurement was

necessary, as well as more evidence to support psychometric properties. The TEIQue-SF is a 30-item instrument developed by Petrides and Furnham (2006) based upon the theoretical framework of its full-length assessment. The TEIQue-SF provides a total trait EI score using the scales of emotionality, self-control, sociability, and well-being and is suitable for studies seeking to obtain a global trait EI score (Parker et al., 2011), which was one of the objectives of the research questions and hypotheses of the current study.

The psychometric properties of the TEIQue-SF were tested using the advanced method of item response theory (Cooper & Petrides, 2010). Item response theory analysis provides detailed information across a range of factors rather than a single reliability estimate of the entire sample, which shows the validity of each item (Cooper & Petrides, 2010). The TEIQue-SF has effective psychometric properties for a global trait EI score (Cooper & Petrides, 2010), which was used to measure the dependent variable in the current study.

Trait EI and ability EI are clearly different constructs, but the primary difference between the two models is measurement rather than theoretical principles (see Figure 4). The four dominant EI models utilize different performance-based, self-report, or multirater measures. Recent research has provided evidence that TEIQue was a stronger predictor of trait facets and global EI scores than other instruments (D. K. J. Gardner & Qualter, 2010; Martins et al., 2010; Mavroveli et al., 2007). A review of the literature showed that ability EI models measured actual emotion-related cognitive skills, whereas TEIQue is a valid instrument that measures self-perceived emotion-related abilities and traits (Martins et al., 2010; Petrides & Furnham, 2006). In the final analysis, TEIQue had

a broader theoretical sphere and demonstrated stronger incremental validity than the other trait measures (D. K. J. Gardner & Qualter, 2010).

	Trait EI	Ability EI
Measurement	Self-report	Performance-based
Conceptualisation	Personality trait	Cognitive ability
Expected relationship to g	Orthogonal (i.e. uncorrelated)	Moderate to strong correlations
Construct validity evidence^a	Good discriminant and incremental validity vis-à-vis personality	Limited concurrent and predictive validity
	Good concurrent and predictive validity with many criteria	Lower than expected correlations with IQ measures
Example measures	EQ-I SEIS TEIQue	MSCEIT
Properties of measures^a	Easy to administer Susceptible to faking Standard scoring procedures Good psychometric properties	Difficult to administer Resistant to faking Atypical scoring procedures Weak psychometric properties

Note: g = general cognitive ability; EQ-I = Emotional Quotient Inventory (Bar-On, 1997); SEIS = Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (Schutte et al., 1998); TEIQue = Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (e.g. Petrides & Furnham, 2003); MSCEIT = Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (Mayer et al., 2002).

^a Entries in these rows are generalisations and do not apply equally to all measures.

Figure 4. Trait EI versus ability EI II. From Lecture: Multiple Intelligences and Emotional Intelligence, by K. V. Petrides, 2011, London, England: London Psychometric Laboratory. Copyright 2009 by K. V. Petrides. Reprinted with permission of the author.

EI and Leadership

A review of current literature revealed a controversial debate regarding whether EI influences leadership effectiveness and performance. Although some studies supported the theory that EI positively affects leadership effectiveness (Goleman, 1995a; Janovics & Christiansen, 2001; Kerr et al., 2006; Lopes et al., 2006; Petrides & Furnham, 2006; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Walter et al., 2011) and performance (Goleman, 1995a; Hawkins & Dulewicz, 2007; Kerr et al., 2006; Koman & Wolff, 2008; Quoidbach & Hansenne, 2009; Shih & Susanto, 2010), others disputed the relationship between EI and

leadership success (Antonakis, 2004; Antonakis et al., 2009; Nafukho, 2009; Newman, Joseph, & MacCann, 2010; Weinberger, 2009).

For example, Antonakis (2004) purported that academicians, practitioners, and organizational leaders have embraced the concept of EI without empirical evidence to support the construct. Antonakis et al. (2009) consequently noted that further research was necessary to support the role of EI and leader success, but argued that scientific advancement in all areas of research comes from the rigorous testing and discarding of theories. Antonakis et al. concluded that EI becomes less of a factor when relationship outcomes are not the main objective, but nevertheless emphasized that EI was more essential in social situations and IQ was more essential in cognitive tasks. A review of the literature indicated that a relatively small number of studies focused on leadership styles of law enforcement executives (Schafer, 2010). The current study addresses this gap in the literature through an examination of the relationship between leadership styles and law enforcement executives.

EI and Leadership Effectiveness

Several studies have provided evidence that a significant relationship exists between EI and leadership effectiveness (Boyatzis, 2008, 2009; Goleman, 1995a; Kerr et al., 2006; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Walter et al., 2011). Research has shown that the EI of an organizational leader correlates with the quality of the leader's relationship with subordinates (Janovics & Christiansen, 2001; Lopes et al., 2006). Leaders with higher EI tend to have better working relationships with their subordinates. In turn, better working relationships with subordinates tend to produce better employee outcomes, such as job

performance, organizational commitment, and employee retention (Petrides & Furnham, 2006).

Additionally, research has indicated that high trait EI positively influenced workplace stress, perceived control, satisfaction, and commitment (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Three recent studies showed support for the relationship between EI and leadership effectiveness and emergence: Cote, Lopes, Salovey, and Miners (2010), Hong, Catano, and Liao (2011), and Walter et al. (2011). Although researchers have conducted studies on various occupations, minimal research exists on the relationship between leadership styles and EI of law enforcement executives.

EI and Performance

The interest in EI has increased since the early 1990s among academicians and human resource practitioners because of the claims that EI is a stronger predictor of job performance than IQ (Goleman, 1995a, 1995b). For example, in a study on managers of a large manufacturing organization, Kerr et al. (2006) indicated that EI was a pivotal factor of leadership effectiveness, whereas in another study performed on business undergraduates, Rode et al. (2007) found that EI had an indirect influence on performance but employees must be motivated to use EI. In the nursing profession, data analysis indicated that EI enhanced team cohesiveness and organizational outcomes (Quoidbach & Hansenne, 2009). In a study on managers from an international technology company, Bratton, Dodd, and Brown (2010) found that the relationship between EI and leader performance was stronger when leaders underestimated personal abilities than when leaders overestimated abilities.

A study conducted by Hawkins and Dulewicz (2007) on the Scottish Police Service was the only law enforcement study identified with a focus on the relationship between leadership style, EI, and leader performance. Although it was an international study, Hawkins and Dulewicz provided evidence that EI and performance positively related in policing. Despite considerable research, the debate continues regarding the relationship between EI and job performance, although Newman et al. (2010) found that self-report ability and mixed method measures produced incremental validity over traditional personality measures in a meta-analysis.

Within private organizations, EI positively influences job performance in public organizations (Shih & Susanto, 2010). For instance, Koman and Wolff (2008) conducted a study on military organizations and found that team leader EI levels significantly related to performance. Empirically, the link between EI and performance is still controversial in research and practice but will become unambiguous as researchers generate evidence that is more empirical (Nafukho, 2009). The current study included the latest trait EI measurement to examine the relationship between leadership style and EI of law enforcement executives, unlike earlier studies in which researchers measured EI using MSCEIT, Wong and Law's EI scale, Schutte's EI scale, and ECI.

Critique of Emotional Intelligence Models

A common theme in contemporary literature is that EI has become a common practice in organizational leadership development for practitioners; however, research indicated that the field of EI is not aligned in relation to ideas, concepts, models, and measurements (Cherniss, 2010b; Fambrough & Hart, 2008; Groves et al., 2008; Muiya &

Kacirek, 2009; Roberts, Matthews, & Zeidner, 2010). Researchers conducted 10 studies in 2010 that provided critiques of EI constructs, models, and measurements (Bar-On, 2010; Cherniss, 2010a, 2010b; Cote, 2010; Harms & Crede, 2010a; Joseph & Newman, 2010; Petrides, 2010; Riggio, 2010; Van Rooy, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010). Most of the studies were commentaries in response to articles by Cherniss (2010a, 2010b), but the inconsistency added to the lack of clarity on the topic.

To illustrate, Bar-On (2010) suggested that EI is an integral part of positive psychology because of the correlation on human performance, happiness, well-being, and meaning in life. Using the definition by Mayer et al. (2000), Cherniss (2010b) asserted that EI is based upon three basic principles: (a) emotions play a pivotal role in individual development; (b) abilities vary based on an individual's perception, understanding, facilitation, and management of emotions; and (c) adaptation is influenced by individual differences. In another article, Cherniss (2010a) defended his perspectives on the predictive validity of EI or emotional social competence (ESC) and contended that growing evidence indicates support for the relationship between EI, ESC, leadership effectiveness, and job performance. Although some researchers supported the findings of Cherniss (Riggio, 2010), others disagreed with the predictive validity assertions and questioned the conceptualization of ESC (Harms & Crede, 2010a; Joseph & Newman, 2010; Roberts et al., 2010).

Similar to Cherniss (2010b), Cote (2010) noted that trait EI combines EI with ESC, which Cote argued contributes to the lack of clarity in the field of EI. Cote consequently focused on the ability-based characteristics of EI. Cote also pointed out

that abilities that allow an individual to achieve maximum performance under favorable conditions are within the sphere of intelligence, whereas ability that reflects a person's conventional situational behavior is outside the sphere of intelligence and is likely a personality trait.

In response to Cherniss (2010b), Van Rooy et al. (2010) provided clarification on the construct of EI. Van Rooy et al. indicated a need exists to clearly define the EI construct, but purported that researchers should continue to examine multiple models rather than relying on one concept, definition, or measure. Van Rooy et al. concluded that Cherniss's findings by themselves do not provide enough evidence to support that ability or mixed models should not be labeled as EI; however, both models might be part of a global EI construct and both have unique roles.

In response to Cherniss (2010b), Petrides (2010) provided clarification on the theory of trait EI. In a brief comparison, Petrides pointed out that Bar-On's (1997) model made problematic assumptions of what questions could be measured using a self-report instrument. Petrides argued that Bar-On's self-report questions were measuring self-perception rather than abilities, which raised validity concerns. In the final analysis, Petrides reported that trait EI had advantages over the other EI models.

Next, Petrides (2010) noted that Goleman's (1995a) model was based upon unscientific research, poor terminology, unconfirmed evidence, and unsupported claims. In response to Cherniss's claims that Mayer and Salovey's model represented the best measurement of EI, Petrides noted that the model does not provide an operational definition of the construct. For example, Petrides said, "To the lay person, Salovey and

Mayer's (1990) definition of EI as 'the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions'" (p. 136) was not an operationalized definition. In conclusion, Petrides contended that the nature of emotions was more subjective than objective.

Unlike the other EI models, Petrides (2010) noted that the trait EI theory integrates the EI construct with other fields of research, such as psychology. For example, Petrides argued that the dimensions of trait EI relate to personality traits rather than to competencies or abilities. Unlike Goleman (1995a), Petrides did not subscribe to the philosophy that EI is the most essential factor in the success of a manager or leader. Contrarily, Petrides noted that emotions are intuitive and automatic, which means emotions may be a strength in some cases and a weakness in others.

In the final analysis, Petrides (2010) reported that trait EI theory has distinct advantages over the other approaches. First, trait EI accounts for the subjectivity of emotional experiences. Second, trait EI integrates with differential psychology instead of separating the subject from other areas of empirical knowledge. Third, several EI instruments may be useful in measuring the EI construct, depending on research questions. Finally, trait EI extends beyond the model itself and may be applied to other forms of intelligence.

Theoretical Foundation of Leadership Styles

The fascination with leadership is not a new phenomenon because intellectuals have been intrigued by the study of leadership since the times of Plato, Freud, Einstein, Gandhi, Churchill, Roosevelt, Kennedy, King, and others (Burns, 1978). Situational

leadership theorists believed that no particular leadership style worked best in every situation and that effective leadership depends on the task (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). Hersey and Blanchard (1977) purported that successful leaders adapt their leadership style to the task and maturity level of the individual or team.

The maturity level of the employees was a pivotal component of the Hersey and Blanchard (1977) model. Maturity level was defined in terms of how ready an individual or group was to complete a task. Consequently, Hersey and Blanchard noted that a person's ability, knowledge, skill, experience, willingness, confidence, commitment, and motivation affect readiness.

Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) situational leadership model addressed how particular leader behaviors are necessary to manage a particular situation. Hersey and Blanchard contended that leadership style was defined by how the followers perceive the leader behaviors, which led to the classification of behaviors as either task or relationship oriented. For instance, task behavior involves the leader clearly defining the goals of the individual or group, which includes telling people what, when, where, and how to accomplish a task. Relationship behavior consists of the leader listening, facilitating, and supporting the communication process of the group.

According to Burns (1978), one of the true failures of research was the separation of the relationship between leaders and followers. Burns defined leadership as the collective and purposeful engagement of leaders and followers to accomplish mutual goals. The leader-follower relationship encompasses the interaction of people with various degrees of motivation and power. Although Downton (1973) and Zaleznik

(1977) explored the differences among transactional and transformational leadership, Burns's seminal work on political leaders solidified the concepts.

Burns (1978) noted that the leader–follower relationship takes place in either a transactional or a transformational form. Burns described *transactional* leadership as a leader's ability to motivate a follower based upon economic, political, or psychological rewards. Both parties understand each other's role and what is at stake; however, the bargaining process was not based upon a true relationship. In contrast, Burns asserted that *transformational* leadership involves the leader and follower engaging in a purposeful relationship to achieve a higher level of motivation and ethical aspiration. In conclusion, Burns purported that power alone does not make a person transactional or transformational, whereas leadership does.

In 1985, Bass extended the work of Burns (1978) by developing a formal theory, model, and measurement of transformational leadership to explore factors of leadership behavior (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Bass and Avolio (1994, 2004) expanded the model further by creating *full range leadership*, which includes transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire styles. Transformational leadership is the most effective managerial behavior, in which a leader builds positive relationships with followers to move lower level objectives to higher levels of performance (Ardichvili & Manderscheid, 2008; Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004). Transactional leadership centers solely on the leader's ability to set up agreements or contracts with followers to accomplish specific goals based upon rewards and punishment rather than a relationship (Ardichvili & Manderscheid, 2008). Laissez-faire leaders passively manage employees

using a hands-off approach (Ardichvili & Manderscheid, 2008; Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004). Although transactional leadership can be effective in certain environments, research has shown that transformational leadership positively influences extra effort, commitment, and job satisfaction (Avolio & Bass, 2002).

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership emphasizes the contract, agreement, or exchange between a leader and a follower to achieve common goals based upon contingent reward or management-by-exception (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004). Thus, the leader and follower both understand the exchange requirements necessary to receive a reward or corrective action. Consequently, the follower may receive a positive contingent reward for successful performance or discipline for poor performance, which constitutes negative active or passive forms of management-by-exception (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 2004). Transactional leadership in the full range leadership model consists of two core behaviors:

- *Contingent reward*: the leader provides the follower clear performance objectives and expectations that will lead to a specific reward or recognition. Therefore, the leader establishes (a) what is to be accomplished, (b) who is responsible for the performance, and (c) what will be given to the followers when goals are successfully completed.
- *Management-by-exception*: the two forms of management-by-exception are active and passive management. Active management or MBEA involves the leader monitoring and taking immediate corrective action to address

ineffective performance or noncompliance of followers. In contrast to MBEA, passive management or MBEP is a more reactive approach to dealing with irregularities, mistakes, errors, and deviations. Passive leadership often leads to poor performance or noncompliance because leaders fail to set clear expectations, goals, or objectives (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Transactional leadership may be effective in certain situations; however, it will not work when the leader does not have oversight of the reward process (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 2004). Although MBEA may contribute to leader satisfaction, it is less effective than transformational leadership. Likewise, MBEP often produces ineffective leadership and dissatisfaction. In the final analysis, transactional leaders may have a marginal effect on follower performance but are more effective when using transformational leadership behaviors (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is a process that can positively influence individuals, teams, and organizations. Bass and Avolio's (2004) transformational leadership model was designed not to replace transactional leadership but to expand the leadership style from simple leader–follower exchange agreements to inspiring and motivating followers to achieve goals beyond their own expectations. Transformational leaders have the ability to stimulate other leaders, colleagues, and followers to embrace new organizational perspectives, support the vision or mission of the organization, achieve

higher levels of performance, and adopt higher levels of moral and ethical standards (Ardichvili & Manderscheid, 2008; Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004).

In contrast to transactional leadership, transformational leaders emphasize the importance of the leader–follower relationship, including ensuring that the follower’s needs are valued (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004). First, leaders are idealized when their followers identify, respect, and emulate the leaders’ behaviors (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004). Second, followers are motivated when leaders provide inspiration and understanding (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004). Third, followers are stimulated when they use their abilities to accomplish a shared goal (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004). Finally, transformational leaders provide their followers support and mentoring (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004). Transformational leadership is commonly associated with democratic or participative leadership; however, it can also be directive or authoritarian (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004).

Transformational leaders enhance follower satisfaction and performance by demonstrating idealized leadership, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, or individualized consideration or what Bass and Avolio (1994) called the *four I’s*.

- *Idealized leadership*: Leaders who demonstrate self-confidence and power by acting as role models for their followers. Idealized leadership is displayed in two forms:

- *Idealized attributes*: These leaders are admired, respected, and trusted by their colleagues and followers because they perform in ways that are beneficial to followers, teams, and the organization.
- *Idealized behaviors*: These leaders seek to obtain follower buy-in, share risks, and consistently handle issues related to conduct, ethics, standards, and values.
- *Inspirational motivation*: These leaders motivate and inspire their followers by providing meaning and understanding to the objectives and work environment. The leaders use effective communication to create a team atmosphere with a shared vision for the future.
- *Intellectual stimulation*: These leaders stimulate their followers to use innovation and creativity to develop new ways of accomplishing goals and objectives. The leaders encourage critical thinking and problem solving to improve performance.
- *Individual consideration*: Transformational leaders are attentive to the needs of others to aid followers in reaching a higher level of performance. The leaders focus on employee development through mentoring and coaching (Bass & Avolio, 2004, pp. 94-95).

According to Bass and Avolio (2004), empirical research has shown that transformational leadership behaviors improve performance in various workplace environments.

Laissez-faire Leadership

Similar to MBEP, laissez-faire leadership is another form of passive or avoidant leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Laissez-faire leaders do not demonstrate transformational or transactional behaviors, which means laissez-faire leadership is the most ineffective or inactive leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Consequently, laissez-faire leaders commonly avoid problem solving, making decisions, or dealing with poor performance.

Laissez-faire leadership style can be effective when addressing incremental change rather than major organizational change. Laissez-faire leadership style may not be the most effective leadership approach for law enforcement executives addressing the current operational, economic, and political challenges; however, the approach may be valuable when dealing with an emergency on the streets. For instance, a law enforcement executive may allow front-line supervisors the ability to address operational tasks to be more effective when handling different emergency situations. Avolio and Bass (2002) contended that all leaders have some level of transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire behaviors in their leadership style and there are certain situations in which each style may be appropriate.

Transformational Leadership and Emotional Intelligence

The foregoing literature review showed that empirical evidence is increasing regarding the positive relationship between EI and the leadership styles of managers experiencing organizational change (Bolden, 2007; Goleman, 1995a; Parker & Sorensen, 2008). Although some studies have supported the relationship between EI and

transformational leadership (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Clarke, 2010; Hur, van den Berg, & Wilderom, 2011; Parker & Sorensen, 2008; Sayeed & Shanker, 2009), others found no relationship between EI and transformational leadership (Brown et al., 2006; Harms & Crede, 2010a, 2010b; Lindebaum & Cartwright, 2010). Furthermore, other studies endorsed the perspective that transformational leaders positively relate to group cohesiveness (Wang & Huang, 2009). Although many of the aforementioned studies used Bass and Avolio's (1995) MLQ instrument to measure transformational leadership, none of the studies utilized Petrides's (2001) TEIQue to measure EI. Although the focus of the aforementioned studies was on managers or leaders, none of the studies had law enforcement as a population. The current study addresses this gap in the literature through an examination of the relationship between leadership styles and EI of law enforcement executives.

Bass and Avolio's (1994) transformational leadership theory was used to underpin this study to show how law enforcement executives may improve organizational effectiveness by applying a transformative leadership approach in the areas of leadership, management, and organizational development. As law enforcement executives face continuous change, full range leadership skills will be necessary to face the operational, political, and economic challenges. Bass and Avolio (1994, 2004) noted that transformational leadership skills are essential for leaders dealing with a changing workforce and globalization.

Bass and Avolio (1994, 2004) purported that it is not uncommon for organizational leaders to exhibit varying degrees of both transactional and

transformational leadership skills. Although a leader may demonstrate both leadership styles, dominant transactional skills lead to lower performance and ineffective change (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Dominant transformational leadership skills predict improved performance and organizational outcomes (Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004). Therefore, this study involved examining the relationship between EI and leadership styles of law enforcement executives, including transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership.

Law Enforcement

Policing in the 21st century is becoming more complex and dynamic as law enforcement executives contend with traditional policing, community policing, homeland security, and economic hardship. Since 2000, law enforcement executives have faced continuous change. After the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001, the role of law enforcement changed from a community policing era to the current homeland security era (Friedmann & Cannon, 2007; Oliver, 2008; Schmallegger, 2009). Law enforcement executives also face significant budget constraints due to the global financial crisis, which is affecting employee staffing, recruitment, retention, and development (Fischer, 2009; IACP, 2011). Law enforcement executives are consequently facing a new reality in American policing due to the acceleration of change in operations, politics, and economics.

Although the organizational and operational responsibilities of law enforcement executives are increasing, many leaders are working with decreased budgets. In addition to performing traditional law enforcement duties, agencies continue to perform

community policing and homeland security responsibilities. Although leaders in law enforcement have historically had to adapt to environmental changes, the current study may provide law enforcement executives with the transformational leadership skills to generate synergistic organizational change.

Evolution of Law Enforcement in the United States

Leadership has played an essential role in every era of policing as law enforcement organizations adapted to environmental changes. Law enforcement executives have historically been responsible for enforcing laws, preventing crime, preserving the peace, providing services, and protecting civil liberties. Since the 1800s, key crimes have influenced policing, public perception, and legislation in the United States. For instance, a crime epidemic occurred from 1850 to 1880 due to the Civil War and immigration (Marks & Sun, 2007; Schmallegger, 2009), and organized crime activities increased during the prohibition period. During the 1960s and 1970s, the Civil Rights Movement significantly affected policing, public perception, and legislation (Marks & Sun, 2007; Schmallegger, 2009). In the 1980s, the increase in illegal drugs played a vital role in crime and policing (Marks & Sun, 2007; Schmallegger, 2009). The attacks that took place on September 11, 2001, changed a number of institutions in the United States, including policing. Similar to leaders in the 21st century, law enforcement executives in the early years of American policing faced bureaucratic and social challenges.

The 1840s to the early 1900s represented the *political era* of policing, in which politicians granted and influenced many leadership positions. During this time, police departments were mainly decentralized, and police performed a wide range of social

services, including arresting criminals, handling immigrant workers, and running soup kitchens (Bennett & Hess, 2001). Furthermore, police officers worked closely with the communities they served by conducting foot patrols with minimal tactical experience or technology (Bennett & Hess, 2001; Schmallegger, 2009). During the reform era, politicians controlled police department leadership and other areas, including recruitment, resources, hiring, and mission (Marks & Sun, 2007). The close ties between police leadership and elected officials ultimately led to political interference and departmental corruption.

The *reform era* (1930-1980) of policing occurred in response to political corruption and police brutality. Citizens and communities demanded improved leadership and professional standards of law enforcement organizations. In the reform era, police departments became less engaged with communities, and police employed a centralized approach to law enforcement that emphasized professionalism and crime control (Bennett & Hess, 2001; Schmallegger, 2009). Unlike the political era, officers had access to more technology that included law enforcement vehicles with emergency radios and equipment (Marks & Sun, 2007; Schmallegger, 2009). As a result, officers conducted preventive patrols and rapid response to service calls rather than foot patrols (Marks & Sun, 2007; Schmallegger, 2009). Challenges to the reform era strategies eventually led to the reengagement of law enforcement organizations with the community.

The *community policing era* (1980-2001) incorporated elements from the political and reform periods. Although the departments were decentralized, police focused on law enforcement, professionalism, and a renewed relationship with the community

(Friedmann & Cannon, 2007; Marks & Sun, 2007). Employing techniques from both the political and the reform eras, police executives now led departments that participated on task forces and conducted foot, bike, and horse patrols to enhance community relationships (Marks & Sun, 2007; Schmallegger, 2009). Advances in technology continued as law enforcement executives began to implement new problem-solving strategies to improve citizen satisfaction and quality of life. For 21 years, police departments operated under the system of community policing, which changed dramatically on September 11, 2001, when terrorists carried out attacks on American soil (Friedmann & Cannon, 2007; Schmallegger, 2009).

Following the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001, law enforcement executives were forced into an *era of homeland security*. In addition to all the responsibilities performed in the community policing era, federal, state, and local law enforcement executives began to focus on security, terrorism, crime, and fear (Friedmann & Cannon, 2007; Marks & Sun, 2007; Schmallegger, 2009). This era of policing included one of the largest reorganizations of the U.S. government when the U.S. Department of Homeland Security was created, which affected the leadership, structure, and mission of previously fragmented agencies (Balunis & Hemphill, 2009). The homeland security era involves intelligence-driven terrorism prevention, agency interoperability, and new proactive intervention laws.

The principles of homeland security and community policing are important in carrying out the current policing mission. Friedmann and Cannon (2007) purported that homeland security and community policing are interrelated in terms of ensuring public

safety, counterterrorism, information sharing, and interoperability of local, state, and federal agencies. The political, reform, community policing, and homeland security eras all produced revolutionary changes in policing.

Law Enforcement and Organizational Change

Environmental forces have ushered in new eras of policing since the establishment of law enforcement organizations in the United States. The Burke-Litwin model of organizational change best describes the evolution of policing in the United States (see Figure 5; Burke, 1994). Burke (1994) contended that environmental factors influence organizational change more than any other factor. For instance, Burke pointed out that strategy, leadership, and culture influence organizational change more than structure, management practices, and systems. Also in the Burke-Litwin model, organizational leaders must align strategy and behavior to change the organizational culture.

Burke (1994) noted that the transformational processes of human behavior influences culture, and the transactional levels of human behavior influence climate. As depicted in Figure 6, *transformational* was defined as the change in member behavior caused by internal and external environmental forces. Transformational change involves a change in culture, strategy, mission, and leadership (Marks & Sun, 2007). An example of transformational change in policing is the evolution between the political, reform, community policing, and homeland security eras, which changed the culture, strategy, mission, and leadership of police departments.

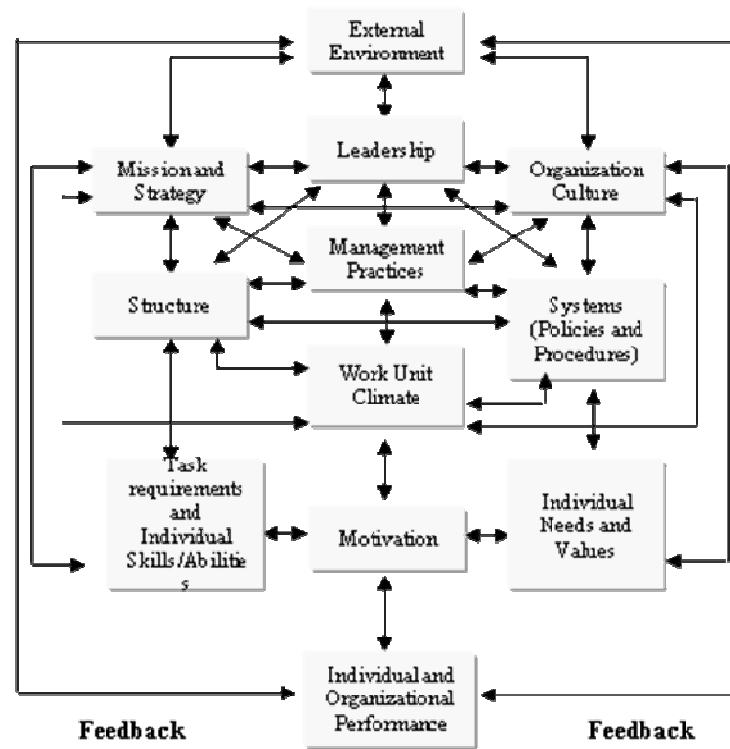


Figure 5. The Burke-Litwin model of organizational performance and change. From *Organization Development: A Process of Learning and Changing* (p. 128), by W. W. Burke, 1994, Eugene, OR: Prentice Hall. Copyright 1994 by Prentice Hall. Reprinted with permission of the author.

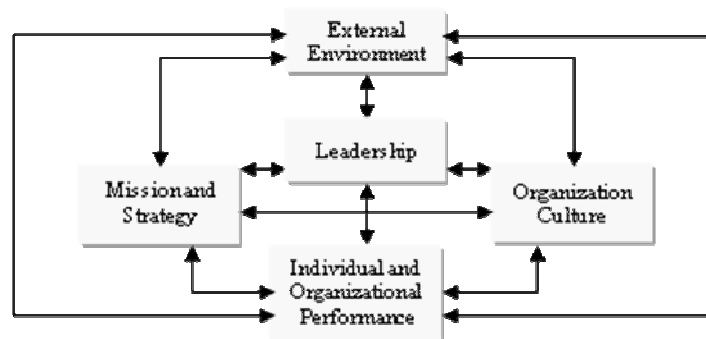


Figure 6. The transformational factors. From *Organization Development: A Process of Learning and Changing* (p. 130), by W. W. Burke, 1994, Eugene, OR: Prentice Hall. Copyright 1994 by Prentice Hall. Reprinted with permission of the author.

Burke (1994) defined *transactional* as the behavioral change that occurs among people and groups. For instance, Burke (1994, p. 129) noted that transactional variables are based upon a “You do this for me and I’ll do that for you” concept. An example of transactional change in policing is the development of fusion centers or specialized units in the homeland security and community policing eras. In contrast to transformational change, Marks and Sun (2007) contended that transactional change does not influence the organizational culture or mission. The transactional variables are depicted in the bottom half of the Burke-Litwin model (see Figure 7).

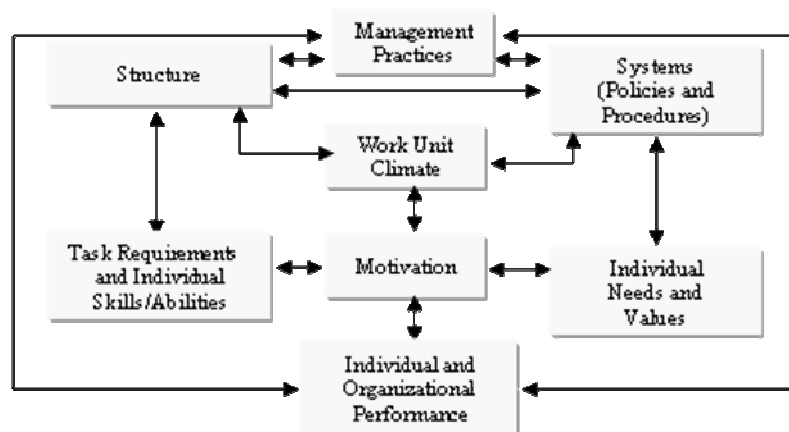


Figure 7. The transactional factors. From *Organization Development: A Process of Learning and Changing* (p. 131), by W. W. Burke, 1994, Eugene, OR: Prentice Hall. Copyright 1994 by Prentice Hall. Reprinted with permission of the author.

Law enforcement executives are currently experiencing organizational change variables used in the Burke-Litwin model. For instance, Burke (1994) described the transformational and transactional change components as follows:

- *External environment* represents the external conditions that influence organizational performance, such as globalization, financial situations, and legislative policies.
- *Mission and strategy* are the employees' beliefs in the organizational purpose and their buy-in regarding what is needed to achieve the objectives.
- *Leadership* involves the leader behaviors necessary to provide direction, encouragement, and motivation to employees to complete activities.
- *Culture* consists of the norms, values, and principles required to guide organizational behavior.
- *Structure* involves placing people in the right functions to implement the organization's mission and strategy.
- *Management practices* represent the resources that managers use to accomplish the strategy.
- *Systems* consist of reward and control systems used to facilitate work, such as budget design, resource allocation, and policies.
- *Climate* represents the impressions, expectations, and feelings of the workforce.
- *Task requirements and individual skills/abilities* involve putting employees in the right position to perform tasks effectively.
- *Individual needs and values* involve the psychological factors that encourage employee self-worth.

- *Motivation* represents the employee behavior or synergy necessary to complete the mission, goals, and tasks.
- *Individual and organizational performance* entails the outcomes or results of the organization.

In the final analysis, climate and culture change require successful transformation and transaction results. For example, transformational variables represent the pivotal levers to accomplish complex organizational change; however, complex organizational change should also include the integration of all the variables in the model. A limitation of the Burke-Litwin model is that it does not clearly address technological factors.

Consequently, Burke (1994) noted that the model could be improved by adding a third component: technology. Law enforcement executives are ultimately pivotal in the successful implementation of transformational and transactional organizational change.

Emerging Trends in Law Enforcement

Executives face a myriad of emerging trends in law enforcement that are driving organizational change. Executives of 21st-century law enforcement agencies are facing transformational challenges of shrinking resources, counterterrorism, generational gaps, technological innovation, workforce retention, information sharing, and sustainability-related national security (Burch, 2007; Fischer, 2009; Gelles, Brant, & Dorsey, 2009; Wiseman, 2011; Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006). Consequently, law enforcement agencies must adapt to remain effective, and executives with transformational leadership styles may have the ability to articulate the vision and inspire followers through organizational change (Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006).

Law enforcement executives are coping with significant budget constraints due to the global financial crisis, which is affecting employee staffing, recruitment, retention, and development (Fischer, 2009; IACP, 2011; Wiseman, 2011). Wiseman (2011) noted, “The situation is likely to get worse before it gets better. Police executives are left with no choice but to act, and act boldly” (pp. 25-26). In 2011, more than 400 law enforcement executives took part in a survey conducted by the IACP on the effect of the current economic crisis. In the IACP (2011) survey, over 55% of the executives said that the new economy was a serious or severe problem in their agency, and over 85% reported that they were forced to reduce their budgets from the amount provided in 2010. Additionally, over half of the law enforcement executives indicated they had to lay off or furlough staff in the past 12 months (IACP, 2011). During tough economic times, leadership is the key to organizational success by keeping employees focused on the mission and priorities.

Counterterrorism and information sharing are two emerging challenges of federal, state, and local law enforcement executives. The terrorist attacks that took place on September 11, 2001, provoked the most significant change in U.S. intelligence since the enactment of the National Security Act of 1947, which created the Central Intelligence Agency, Director of Central Intelligence, and National Security Council (Burch, 2007; Friedmann & Cannon, 2007). For instance, the executives for the Central Intelligence Agency and other legacy intelligence agencies were challenged with developing a model, mechanisms, and oversight for information sharing. In terms of domestic intelligence sharing, the attacks on September 11, 2001, changed federal, state, and local law

enforcement by leading to the creation of the Department of Homeland Security, the Director for National Intelligence, the National Counter Terrorism Center, and the change in strategic direction of the Federal Bureau of Investigation (Burch, 2007). Local and state law enforcement agencies were mandated to participate in fusion centers to bridge the gap in intelligence sharing. The fusion center concept includes the use of innovative technology to connect over 17,000 law enforcement agencies with each other and federal agencies (Burch, 2007; Lambert, 2010).

Although technology is an essential tool for law enforcement to ensure national security, the acceleration of technology is another emerging challenge for police executives. Gelles et al. (2007) noted that law enforcement agencies are continuously evolving to meet the technological growth caused by increased information sharing, national security requirements, and a multigenerational workforce. Consequently, law enforcement executives must improve their network environment to support employees without compromising national security.

A multigenerational workforce is another challenge of law enforcement executives. As the leaders of some agencies deal with the differences between four distinct generations, the leaders will have to redefine the work environment as Generation X (1964 to 1990) and Y (1991 to 2001) employees become the majority in law enforcement organizations (Gelles et al., 2007). For example, Generation Y law enforcement personnel are comfortable with computers, communication devices, video games, and social networks (Gelles et al., 2007). Consequently, Generation Y employees expect a workplace driven by technology to be effective and efficient.

The effectiveness and efficiency of law enforcement organizations are largely dependent upon the quality of executive leadership within the organizations. Executive leaders can have a positive or negative effect on job performance, job satisfaction, morale, organizational commitment, and many other important employee outcomes (Andrescu & Vito, 2010; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Densten, 2003; Rowe, 2006; Sarver, 2008; Schafer, 2009). The executive's dominant leadership style may ultimately affect the overall effectiveness and efficiency of an organization. Therefore, providing law enforcement executives with alternative ways of leading and thinking about leadership may help them be more effective leaders when handling emerging trends.

Management Versus Leadership

The leadership ability of a law enforcement executive shapes the success of an agency. Debate occurs in the field of leadership development on the subject of management versus leadership (LaFrance & Placide, 2010). Northouse (2007) defined leadership as the influence of an individual or group to reach a common goal or objective. For instance, leadership rated as the second most important attribute of successful chief executives in a survey conducted by Adair (2004). Adair contended that leadership and management are different concepts but overlap in many aspects. Adair noted that managers essentially carry out the objectives of the organization, whereas leaders are more proactive in shaping leadership, which contains five distinct elements not found in management. For instance, leaders prepare organizations for change by giving direction, providing inspiration, building teams, and setting examples (LaFrance & Placide, 2010).

Leadership is situational when a person derives authority from position, personality, and professional knowledge (Adair, 2004). In addition, a leader's knowledge and skills are critical in leading a successful team; however, personality and character are also pivotal qualities of leadership (Adair, 2004). Consequently, Adair (2004) considered enthusiasm, integrity, toughness, fairness, warmth, humility, and confidence to be the seven most important traits of leadership. Although managers and leaders possess different traits, managers have the ability to become leaders when they expand their leadership attributes.

Williams (2006) noted that the best way to distinguish the difference between management and leadership is to view them as two ends of the same executive continuum. Similar to Adair (2004), Williams reported that management and leadership often link together as complementary processes. For instance, Adair contended that strong management and strong leadership produced organized, motivated, and successful teams.

From a situational leadership perspective, leadership consists of situations in which a person influences the behavior of an individual or group (Hersey, 1992). Conversely, management involves working with or through people to complete a goal (Hersey, 1992). Hersey (1992) remarked that a leader examines a situation and then implements a plan to accomplish a task or objective.

In addition to having leadership ability, successful leaders adapt to changes in their organizational environment. Hersey and Blanchard (1977) noted that leaders are both born and made and that an effective leader must possess the ability to diagnose,

adapt, and communicate through a particular situation. From a situational leadership perspective, leadership consists of situations in which a person influences the behavior of an individual or group (Hersey, 1992). For example, a leader examines a situation and then implements a plan to accomplish a task or objective (Hersey, 1992). The aforementioned perspectives underpinned early studies on law enforcement and leadership (Campbell & Kodz, 2011).

Law Enforcement and Leadership Style

Leadership is a key element of effective organizations, including policing (Densten, 2003; Mastrofski, Rosenbaum, & Fridell, 2011; Schafer, 2010). For example, effective leaders provide motivation, guidance, and inspiration to employees to accomplish organizational objectives (Berg, Dean, Gottschalk, & Karlsen, 2008; Vito & Higgins, 2010). Schafer (2010) conducted a study on the traits of effective and ineffective leaders in policing and found that effective law enforcement leaders had characteristics associated with personality and interpersonal skills, such as honesty, integrity, caring, communication, and work ethic. To the contrary, ineffective law enforcement leaders displayed traits of ineffective communication, neglecting the needs of employees, poor work ethics, and questionable integrity (Schafer, 2010). This study adds to the limited research on police leadership through an examination of the relationship between EI and leadership styles of law enforcement executives.

Senior executives, middle managers, and front-line supervisors are all pivotal members of successful police leadership teams (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Mastrofski et al., 2011; Schafer, 2009; Vito & Higgins, 2010). For example, law enforcement

executives develop and communicate the vision, while middle managers coordinate, plan, build teams, mentor, empower, and reward employees as a part of the vision (Vito & Higgins, 2010). Law enforcement supervisors implement the vision by leading by example and setting performance expectations (Vito & Higgins, 2010). In fact, organizations need effective leadership at all levels to accomplish goals.

Social change has tested the effectiveness of law enforcement executives who applied traditional, authoritarian, and bureaucratic principles of leadership (Densten, 2003; Schafer, 2010; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). The 1970s civil rights and social change movements sparked research interest on police leadership in the United States and led to the creation of the community policing era (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). Consequently, the early research on police leadership involved an attempt to identify new leadership models and theories to address social change. Campbell and Kodz (2011) pointed out that researchers who conducted initial studies on police leadership examined leadership styles, behaviors, and competencies based on contingency and situational leadership theories.

In the 1980s, the theoretical framework of research on police leadership shifted to a transformational leadership approach, specifically the full leadership theory developed by Bass (as cited in Campbell & Kodz, 2011). The full range leadership model challenged the autocratic and quasi-military structure of law enforcement executives and endorsed an inspirational, supportive, and participative style of leadership (Bass, 1985). Although relatively few studies exist on law enforcement leadership, styles, and

behaviors, the full range leadership model underpins a number of the studies on what constitutes effective police leadership (Murphy, 2008; Sarver, 2008).

Examined in the literature review was what police managers in the United States considered the ideal leadership style and behaviors. A number of theorists provided evidence that police officers preferred transformational leaders; however, officer perceptions differed based on gender and race (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Fischer, 2009; Isenberg, 2010). For example, Andreescu and Vito (2010) found that female and African American police managers preferred transformational leaders more than males and other ethnic groups. Executives of 21st-century law enforcement agencies must be change agents and role models who are transparent, honest, and supportive.

Leadership Style and Organizational Outcomes

The foregoing literature review provided evidence that leadership styles affect organizational outcomes, such as job satisfaction, morale, and commitment (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Densten, 2003; Rowe, 2006; Sarver, 2008; Schafer, 2009). Although significant research on leadership styles and organizational outcomes exists for other occupations, minimal research exists on the effect of police leadership and behaviors on organizational and operational outcomes (Campbell & Kodz, 2011).

Limited empirical research exists on law enforcement agencies in the United States to support how leadership styles influence employee performance; however, several international studies exist. Densten (2003) conducted research on Australian police officers and provided evidence that senior leadership influences follower perceptions of leader effectiveness, job satisfaction, and performance. Sarver (2008)

conducted a study on the leadership style of Texas police chiefs and found that transformational leadership was more effective than transactional leadership in improving employee performance. To the contrary, Hawkins and Dulewicz (2007) conducted a study on Scottish police officers and found that transactional leadership rather than transformational leadership behaviors was more effective for Scottish police organizations. Although the current study did not address performance of law enforcement executives, the study does include empirical evidence of the most dominant leadership styles of law enforcement executives in the United States.

As demonstrated in the foregoing literature review, research conducted since 2000 on police organizations in the United States, Australia, the United Kingdom, and Canada indicated that leadership style influences leader–follower relationships (Andreescu & Vito, 2010, Densten, 2003; Murphy & Drodge, 2004; Rowe, 2006). Police officers want their executives to be both effective and efficient, which means that the leader takes care of business and the employees. The officers expected their leaders to exhibit trust, experience, respect, and empowerment, which all affect performance (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Densten, 2003; Murphy & Drodge, 2004; Rowe, 2006). Consequently, executives can use follower perceptions to improve their effectiveness and performance.

Empirical Research Related to Study

In the mid-1990s, researchers started to explore police leadership based on EI theories and personality (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). Although some studies on law enforcement executives provided evidence that supported the relationship between EI and leadership effectiveness (Hawkins & Dulewicz, 2007; Yocum, 2007), others found no

evidence of a relationship between leadership effectiveness and personality (Green, 2006). Furthermore, other researchers endorsed the perspective that transformational leaders are more emotionally connected to subordinates (Murphy, 2008). A review of current research indicated that a relatively small number of researchers had focused on EI and law enforcement executives. The results of this study addressed this gap in the literature through an examination of the relationship between leadership styles and EI of law enforcement executives.

Although some researchers have endorsed transformational leadership for law enforcement executives (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Murphy, 2008; Sarver, 2008), others supported a mixed leadership style of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership (Densten, 2003; Devitt, 2008; Hawkins & Dulewicz, 2009; Schwarzwald, Koslowsky, & Agassi, 2001). A review of current research indicated that a relatively small number of researchers had focused on leadership styles and law enforcement executives (Schafer, 2010). The results of this study addressed this gap in the literature through an examination of the relationship between leadership styles and law enforcement executives.

Summary of Literature Review

Policing in the 21st century is becoming more complex and dynamic, which is creating a new reality in American policing for law enforcement executives. The literature review included analyses and syntheses of empirical research on EI and leadership styles that inform the understanding of the phenomenon that law enforcement executives are facing. Additionally, the literature review encompassed theories and

research concerning leadership effectiveness, organizational change, and organizational outcomes. The review contained three sections of empirical research regarding EI, leadership styles, and law enforcement that supported the need for further research on the topic under study.

A review of current literature revealed a controversial debate regarding whether EI influences leadership effectiveness and performance. Although some researchers supported the theory that EI positively affects leadership effectiveness (Goleman, 1995a, 1995b; Janovics & Christiansen, 2001; Kerr et al., 2006; Lopes et al., 2006; Petrides & Furnham, 2006; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Walter et al., 2011) and performance (Goleman, 1995a, 1995b; Hawkins & Dulewicz, 2007; Kerr et al., 2006; Koman & Wolff, 2008; Quoidbach & Hansenne, 2009; Shih & Susanto, 2010), others disputed the relationship between EI and leadership success (Antonakis, 2004; Antonakis et al., 2009; Nafukho, 2009; Newman et al., 2010; Weinberger, 2009).

Several researchers provided evidence that a significant relationship exists between EI and leadership effectiveness (Boyatzis, 2008, 2009; Goleman, 1995a, 1995b; Kerr et al., 2006; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Walter et al., 2011). Research has shown that the EI of an organizational leader correlates with the quality of the leader's relationship with subordinates (Janovics & Christiansen, 2001; Lopes et al., 2006). Leaders with higher EI tend to have better working relationships with their subordinates. In turn, better working relationships with subordinates tend to produce better employee outcomes, such as job performance, organizational commitment, and employee retention (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Additionally, research has provided evidence that high trait

EI positively influenced workplace stress, perceived control, satisfaction, and commitment (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Recent studies provided evidence to support the relationship between EI and leadership effectiveness and emergence (Cote et al., 2010; Hong et al., 2011; Walter et al., 2010).

Although researchers have conducted studies on various occupations, minimal research exists on the relationship among leadership styles and EI of law enforcement executives. A review of the literature indicated that a relatively small number of researchers focused on leadership styles of law enforcement executives (Schafer, 2010). Therefore, the results of this study addressed this gap in the literature through an examination of the relationship among leadership styles and law enforcement executives.

Although a review of the literature indicated a lack of clarity in the field of research on the definitions, constructs, and measures of EI (Cherniss, 2010b; Fambrough & Hart, 2008; Koman & Wolff, 2008; Maul, 2011; Muya, 2009), the current study was based upon the most recent EI construct: the trait EI model by Petrides (2001). One advantage of the TEIQue measurement was that the trait EI theory supports it, whereas earlier theories produced concerns related to construct, measurement, and operationalization (Cherniss, 2010; Petrides, 2009; Stough et al., 2009).

Recent literature provided evidence that TEIQue was a stronger predictor of trait facets and global EI scores than other instruments (D. K. J. Gardner & Qualter, 2010; Martins et al., 2010; Mavroveli et al., 2007). The TEIQue-SF has effective psychometric properties for a global trait EI score (Cooper & Petrides, 2010), which was used to measure the dependent variable in the current study. Additionally, a review of the

literature showed that ability EI models measured actual emotion-related cognitive skills, whereas TEIQue is a valid instrument that measures self-perceived emotion-related abilities and traits (Martin et al., 2010; Petrides & Furnham, 2006). In conclusion, TEIQue had a broader theoretical sphere and demonstrated stronger incremental validity than the other trait measures (D. K. J. Gardner & Qualter, 2010).

As law enforcement executives face continuous change, full range leadership skills will be necessary to confront the operational, political, and economic challenges. The literature review showed that empirical evidence is increasing regarding the positive relationship between EI and leadership styles of managers experiencing organizational change (Bolden, 2007; Goleman, 1995a; Parker & Sorensen, 2008). Transformational leadership is the most effective managerial behavior in which a leader builds a positive relationship with followers to move lower level objectives to higher levels of performance (Ardichvili & Manderscheid, 2008; Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004).

Although transactional leadership can be effective in certain environments, research has shown that transformational leadership positively influences extra effort, commitment, and job satisfaction (Avolio & Bass, 2002). A review of current research indicated that a relatively small number of researchers had focused on leadership styles and law enforcement executives (Schafer, 2010). The results of the current study addressed gaps in the literature through an examination of the relationship among leadership styles and EI of law enforcement executives.

The literature review showed that empirical evidence was increasing regarding the positive relationship among EI and leadership styles of managers experiencing organizational change (Bolden, 2007; Goleman, 1995a; Parker & Sorensen, 2008). Additionally, some researchers have supported the relationship between EI and transformational leadership (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Clarke, 2010; Hur et al., 2011; Parker & Sorensen, 2008; Sayeed & Shanker, 2009). Although the focus of many of the studies was on managers or leaders, few studies had law enforcement as a population. The results of the current study addressed this gap in the literature through an examination of the relationship among leadership styles and EI of law enforcement executives. Chapter 3 includes a detailed account of the methodology chosen to collect the necessary data to test the hypotheses for the current study.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The United States has one of the most complex organizational systems of law enforcement in the world, which consists of federal, state, and local agencies (Schmallegger, 2009). For instance, there are 48 federal law enforcement agencies, 3,100 sheriff's departments, and approximately 12,700 local police departments in the United States; however, the vastness of the system contributes to a lack of uniformity in procedures and functions (Schmallegger, 2009). Policing in the 21st century is becoming more complex, as law enforcement executives contend with traditional policing, community policing, global terrorism, and budget constraints. Law enforcement executives are consequently facing a new reality in American policing due to the acceleration of change in operations, politics, and economics.

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship among EI levels and transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles of law enforcement executives to address the operational, political, and economic challenges of an increasingly changing organizational climate that could negatively affect the safety and security of the American public. Chapter 3 includes the (a) research questions and hypotheses; (b) research method and design; (c) appropriateness of design; (d) population and sample plan; (e) instrumentation; (f) data collection, analysis, and triangulation; and (g) ethical consideration of participants. Additionally, Chapter 3 contains the rationale for selecting a correlational design to address the research questions and the procedures that took place to confirm or reject the null hypotheses. The research questions and hypotheses for the study were as follows:

1. What, if any, correlation exists between a transformational leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives?
2. What, if any, correlation exists between a transactional leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives?
3. What, if any, correlation exists between a laissez-faire leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives?
4. To what extent do two or more leadership styles collectively add independent information in predicting EI among law enforcement executives?

H1₀: No correlation exists between a transformational leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

H1_a: A correlation exists between a transformational leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

H2₀: No correlation exists between a transactional leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

H2_a: A correlation exists between a transactional leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

H3₀: No correlation exists between a laissez-faire leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

H3_a: A correlation exists between a laissez-faire leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

H4₀: Two or more leadership styles do not add independent information in predicting EI among law enforcement executives.

H4_a: Two or more leadership styles add independent information in predicting EI among law enforcement executives.

Population

The population consisted of active members of law enforcement agencies of the District of Columbia, Maryland, and Virginia sections of the IACP. The three sections represented a cross section of small, medium, and large police departments, as well as executives from international, federal, state, municipal or local, and military law enforcement agencies whose staff had access to the Internet to complete the online survey. A convenience sample of law enforcement executives in a sworn command-level position who are active members of the three selected sections of IACP were eligible to participate in the study. The population size was 1,214 law enforcement executives, which produced a sample size of 139.

Research Design

The quantitative correlational design study involved examining whether, and to what extent, a relationship exists among leadership styles and EI. Correlational design is a type of descriptive quantitative research that includes investigating if and to what extent a relationship exists among two or more variables (Simon, 2006). Correlational studies take place in natural environments and do not include treatment and control groups. Unlike experimental designs, correlational studies do not describe causation; however, relationships among variables may occur concurrently. The design lines up with the

postpositivist worldview, in which a researcher seeks to confirm or reject hypotheses rather than prove them (Creswell, 2009). Therefore, a correlational design was the most appropriate method of research for the study.

A self-administered Internet survey was used to examine the relationship between variables, test hypotheses, and answer research questions. The independent variable includes transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles, measured in nine leadership components (idealized influence attributed, idealized influence behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, contingent reward, MBEA, MBEP, and laissez-faire leadership). The dependent variable was EI, measured using a survey instrument designed to assess the facets of emotionality, self-control, sociability, and well-being. The study was approached from a neutral perspective to examine whether a correlation exists among the variables.

Appropriateness of Design

A correlational design was the most appropriate method of research for the study. Descriptive research is an effective approach to test the relationship among variables, as it allows researchers to describe a problem, situation, or group in a precise and accurate manner (Singleton & Straits, 2010). Descriptive research involves a process of systematically gathering data within the contextual framework of a specific phenomenon (Simon, 2006; Singleton & Straits, 2010). Although a correlational design does not permit a researcher to determine cause-and-effect relationships, the design consists of a structured exercise of fact finding described by numerical data (Singleton & Straits, 2010).

In addition to correlational design, three qualitative methods of research were considered, including phenomenology, case study, and grounded theory. Qualitative methods are different from quantitative research in terms of philosophical assumptions, strategies of inquiry, data collection, analysis, and interpretation. For example, qualitative research consists of diverse strategies of inquiry and data analysis based primarily on text, interviews, and observation.

A grounded theory was considered for the study, but was not selected because the focus was not to develop or discover a theory (Creswell, 2007). The fundamental purpose of the grounded theory approach is to investigate how participants experience a process, action, or interaction and then to develop a theory to explain the practice (Creswell, 2007). Although grounded theory provides the researcher an interpretive and systematic approach to research, the approach does have some challenges. First, grounded theory researchers have to avoid theoretical ideas or assumptions to allow an analytic or substantive theory to emerge. Second, a researcher must recognize that grounded theory is a systematic approach and must comprehend when maximum saturation has occurred. Furthermore, a grounded theory study customarily includes a framework for further research.

A phenomenological design was considered, but was not selected because the purpose of the study was not to understand and describe the lived experiences of a common phenomenon (Creswell, 2007). The fundamental purpose of the phenomenological approach is to develop individual experiences into a universal meaning or essence. The procedures used in the phenomenological approach include

collecting data on what each participant has experienced and developing a composite description of how each participant experienced the phenomenon (Creswell, 2007). Although phenomenology provides a structured approach to understanding the experiences of individuals, the approach does have some challenges. First, phenomenology requires a researcher to recognize philosophical assumptions, which the researcher then describes in the study. Second, the researcher must ensure that all the participants have experienced the phenomenon. Most important, Creswell (2007) noted that it is difficult for researchers to bracket or separate their personal experiences from the phenomenon.

Finally, a case study method was contemplated but was not chosen because a case study approach seeks to understand a problem using a specific case as an example (Creswell, 2007). Case study research entails the study of a topic examined through one or more cases within a context, setting, or bounded system (Creswell, 2007). The procedures used in this approach include collecting comprehensive data from multiple sources of information such as observations, interviews, audiovisual material, documents, and reports (Creswell, 2007). In the final analysis, a correlational design was the most appropriate method to examine the relationship among leadership styles and EI.

Sample

The population for the study consisted of law enforcement executives who were active members of the IACP from the District of Columbia, Maryland, and Virginia sections. The IACP designates law enforcement executives serving in a sworn command level position as active members. The three sections selected for the study represented a

cross section of small, medium, and large police departments, as well as executives from federal, state, municipal or local, and military law enforcement agencies. The sampling frame included the membership listings of IACP, consisting of 1,214 law enforcement executives from the three sections who provided their contact information to the organization.

The convenience sampling method is a form of nonprobability sampling that involves selecting participants based upon their convenience and availability (Simon, 2006). Nonprobability sampling includes two common weaknesses: (a) researcher bias due to the exclusion of sections of a population and (b) inability to predict variability, which eliminates the ability to determine sampling error or precision (Singleton & Straits, 2010). A random or systematic sampling method was considered for the study but there were only 1,214 members of the target population. Selecting a random sample of the target population would unnecessarily limit the sample size. A random or systematic sample may enhance the generalization of the findings but the selection of a convenience sampling method was more practical due to the population size. Although a nonprobability sample may weaken the external validity of a study (Singleton & Straits, 2010), the use of this method resulted in an appropriate cross section of law enforcement executives from small, medium, and large police departments, as well as executives from federal, state, municipal or local, and military law enforcement agencies in the United States.

The power calculations were performed using the PASS 2008 software (Hintze, 2008). All 1,214 active members of the three selected sections of IACP were invited and

had the same chance of participating in the study. The sample consisted of those law enforcement executives who agreed to participate, signed informed consent forms, and completed the survey. Based upon a literature review, typical survey response rates were approximately 10% to 20% (Shih & Fan, 2009). Considering law enforcement executives are very busy, a response rate closer to 10% was anticipated. Thus, a sample size of approximately 120 was expected; however, an actual sample size of 139 was obtained. To improve response rates, 5 days after the initial invitation, a follow-up e-mail was sent to potential participants who did not complete the research survey.

Hypotheses 1-3 were tested using Pearson's correlation coefficient. According to Cohen (1988), small, medium, and large effect sizes for hypothesis tests using the Pearson correlation coefficient (r) are $r = .1$, $r = .3$, and $r = .5$, respectively. A sample size of 139 produces 80% power to detect an effect size of .23, which is a medium effect size. For example, if the true population correlation between EI and the idealized influence attributed leadership style was .23 or more, the study had an 80% chance of detecting (i.e., achieving statistical significance) the correlation at the .05 level of statistical significance.

Hypothesis 4 was tested using multiple linear regression analysis. Power analysis for multiple linear regression analysis was based on the amount of change in R -squared attributed to the variables of interest. According to Cohen (1988), small, medium, and large effect sizes for hypothesis tests using R -squared are R -squared = .0196, R -squared = .13, and R -squared = .26, respectively. A total of 3 independent variables achieved statistical significance. A sample size of 139 achieves 80% power to detect an R -squared

of .075, which is a small-to-medium effect size, attributed to three independent variables using an *F* test with a significance level (alpha) of .05. Thus, a sample size of 139 was justifiable for detecting small to medium effect sizes for Hypotheses 1-4.

Ethical Protection of Research Participants

The study was conducted in accordance with the established procedures of Walden University's Institutional Review Board to ensure the ethical protection of research participants. According to Singleton and Straits (2010), researchers must be aware of four problems that can occur when conducting research of human subjects: potential harm, informed consent, deception, and privacy issues. The psychological, economic, professional, and physical risks to participants were considered and deemed minimal. The study was strictly voluntary, and I ensured the confidentiality and anonymity of participants.

After the Institutional Review Board approval was granted (approval #01-30-12-0135112), an Internet survey was e-mailed to active members of the District of Columbia, Maryland, and Virginia sections of the IACP. All 1,214 law enforcement executives had the same chance of participating in the selected sample. The participants consisted of those law enforcement executives who agreed to participate, signed informed consent forms, and completed the survey. Participants received an e-mail explaining the purpose of the study, how information would be used and secured, risks to participants, and time estimated to complete the survey.

The Internet survey was e-mailed to participants as undisclosed recipients and personal information was not recorded in the research records to ensure privacy during

the data collection process. Only I have access to the research records, so confidentiality agreements were not necessary for the study. An electronic consent statement was incorporated in the text of the e-mail invitation and only those who agreed to participate in the study received access to the survey questions (see Appendix A). Participants received the researcher's contact information, and the results of the study will be shared with participants upon request via an executive summary. There were no potential conflicts of interest in the study. Participant responses will be stored electronically in a password-protected database for 5 years, and no paper copies will be maintained.

Data Collection and Instrumentation

The study involved examining whether, and to what extent, a relationship exists among the independent variables (leadership styles) and the dependent variable (EI). Data collection consisted of a self-administered Internet survey that included demographic (see Appendix B), TEIQue-SF (see Appendix C), and MLQ 5X-Short questions (see Appendix D). This method of data collection was an economical and time-efficient approach to survey busy law enforcement executives from the District of Columbia, Maryland, and Virginia sections of the IACP. Permission was granted to use both the TEIQue-SF and MLQ 5X instruments. The survey included the factors listed in Table 1.

Table 1

Factors of Internet Survey

Factor	Description
Demographic factors	Gender, age, size of department
Leadership style	MLQ 5X-Short
Emotional intelligence level	TEIQue-SF

Demographic Factors

Demographic characteristics of the study sample were described using the mean, standard deviation, and range for continuous measurement scaled variables and frequency and percentage for categorical scaled variables. Demographic items include such factors as gender, age, position level, and size of the department.

Leadership Style

Leadership style was measured using a validated instrument created by Bass and Avolio (1995) that measures full range leadership, including transformational, transactional, and passive avoidant (laissez-faire) leadership. The 45-item MLQ 5X short form was used to measure nine leadership components (idealized influence attributed, idealized influence behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, contingent reward, MBEA, MBEP, and laissez-faire leadership), which were categorized into the three leadership styles (see Table 2).

Table 2

MLQ 5X Leadership Categories and Subscales

Transformational	Transactional	Passive avoidant
Idealized attributes (IA)	Contingent reward (CR)	Laissez-faire (LF)
Idealized behaviors (IB)	Management-by-exception: active (MBEA)	
Inspirational motivation (IM)	Management-by-exception: passive (MBEP)	
Intellectual stimulation (IS)		
Individual consideration (IC)		

Validity and Reliability

Validity represents the accuracy of the instrument and whether one can draw meaningful and useful inferences from scores on particular instruments, whereas

reliability represents whether item scores are internally consistent, whether item scores are stable over time, and whether test administration and scoring were consistent (Singleton & Straits, 2010). Bass and Avolio (2004) reported that MLQ 5X has strong validity. Validity in quantitative research “refers to whether one can draw meaningful and useful inferences from scores on particular instruments” (Creswell, 2009, p. 149). In terms of external validity, studies conducted in the United States and internationally provided evidence that transformational leadership positively influences effectiveness, extra effort, commitment, and job satisfaction (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 2004). Furthermore, Bass and Avolio (2004) indicated that several meta-analyses have supported the relationship between transformational leadership and performance.

Bass and Avolio (2002) noted that researchers have conducted many studies on the relationship between leadership effectiveness and transformational leadership using the MLQ instrument, including in the areas of business, government, military, educational, technology, nonprofit, and religious organizations. According to Bass and Avolio (1995), the initial sample set evaluating a leader using a set of nine samples ($N = 2,154$) produced reliabilities for each leadership factor scale ranging from .74 to .94. Several MLQ 5X revisions have been performed since the initial conceptualization that generally produced high scale reliabilities beyond general standards for internal consistency.

Independent Variables

The independent variable (leadership style) consisted of the nine leadership components of transformational, transactional, and passive avoidant (*laissez-faire*) leadership styles. Table 3 depicts the leadership characteristics, scales, and items.

Table 3

MLQ 5X Leadership Characteristics, Scales, and Item

Leadership characteristic and scale	Items
Transformational	
Idealized attributes (IA)	10, 18, 21, 25
Idealized behaviors (IB)	6, 14, 23, 34
Inspirational motivation (IM)	9, 13, 26, 36
Intellectual stimulation (IS)	2, 8, 30, 32
Individual consideration (IC)	15, 19, 29, 31
Transactional	
Contingent reward (CR)	1, 11, 16, 35
Management-by-exception: active (MBEA)	4, 22, 24, 27
Management-by-exception: passive (MBEP)	3, 12, 17, 20
Passive avoidant	
Laissez-faire (LF)	5, 7, 28, 33

Transformational leadership. The idealized attribute score (IA) was measured on a continuous measurement scale with a range of 0-4. The score was computed as the average of Questions 10, 18, 21, and 25 from the MLQ 5X questionnaire. Response choices on the questionnaire were coded as 0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often*, and 4 = *frequently, if not always*. Thus, lower scores indicated a law enforcement executive with less of the idealized influence attributed leadership attribute and higher scores indicated a law enforcement executive with more of the idealized influence attributed leadership attribute.

The idealized behavioral score (IB) was measured on a continuous measurement scale with a range of 0-4. The score was computed as the average of Questions 6, 14, 23, and 34 from the MLQ 5X questionnaire. Response choices on the questionnaire were coded as 0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often*, and 4 = *frequently, if not always*. Thus, lower scores indicated a law enforcement executive with less of the idealized influence behavioral leadership attribute and higher scores indicated a law enforcement executive with more of the idealized influence behavioral leadership attribute.

The inspirational motivation score (IM) was measured on a continuous measurement scale with a range of 0-4. The score was computed as the average of Questions 9, 13, 26, and 36 from the MLQ 5X questionnaire. Response choices on the questionnaire were coded as 0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often*, and 4 = *frequently, if not always*. Thus, lower scores indicated a law enforcement executive with less of the inspirational motivation leadership attribute and higher scores indicated a law enforcement executive with more of the inspirational motivation leadership attribute.

The intellectual stimulation score (IS) was measured on a continuous measurement scale with a range of 0-4. The score was computed as the average of Questions 2, 8, 30, and 32 from the MLQ 5X questionnaire. Response choices on the questionnaire were coded as 0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often*, and 4 = *frequently, if not always*. Thus, lower scores indicated a law enforcement executive with less of the intellectual stimulation leadership attribute while higher scores

indicated a law enforcement executive with more of the intellectual stimulation leadership attribute.

The individualized consideration score (IC) was measured on a continuous measurement scale with a range of 0-4. The score was computed as the average of Questions 15, 19, 29, and 31 from the MLQ 5X questionnaire. Response choices on the questionnaire were coded as 0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often*, and 4 = *frequently, if not always*. Thus, lower scores indicated a law enforcement executive with less of the individualized consideration leadership attribute and higher scores indicated a law enforcement executive with more of the individualized consideration leadership attribute.

Transactional leadership. The MBEA score was measured on a continuous measurement scale with a range of 0-4. The score was computed as the average of Questions 4, 22, 24, and 27 from the MLQ 5X questionnaire. Response choices on the questionnaire were coded as 0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often*, and 4 = *frequently, if not always*. Thus, lower scores indicated a law enforcement executive with less of the MBEA leadership attribute and higher scores indicated a law enforcement executive with more of the MBEA leadership attribute.

The contingent reward score (CR) was measured on a continuous measurement scale with a range of 0-4. The score was computed as the average of Questions 1, 11, 16, and 35 from the MLQ 5X questionnaire. Response choices on the questionnaire were coded as 0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often*, and 4 = *frequently, if not always*. Thus, lower scores indicated a law enforcement executive with

less of the contingent reward leadership attribute and higher scores indicated a law enforcement executive with more of the contingent reward leadership attribute.

The MBEP was measured on a continuous measurement scale with a range of 0-4. The score was computed as the average of Questions 3, 12, 17, and 20 from the MLQ 5X questionnaire. Response choices on the questionnaire were coded as 0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often*, and 4 = *frequently, if not always*. Thus, lower scores indicated a law enforcement executive with less of the MBEP leadership attribute and higher scores indicated a law enforcement executive with more of the MBEP leadership attribute.

Passive avoidant (laissez-faire) leadership. The laissez-faire score (LF) was measured on a continuous measurement scale with a range of 0-4. The score was computed as the average of Questions 5, 7, 28, and 33 from the MLQ 5X questionnaire. Response choices on the questionnaire were coded as 0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often*, and 4 = *frequently, if not always*. Thus, lower scores indicated a law enforcement executive with less of the laissez-faire leadership attribute and higher scores indicated a law enforcement executive with more of the laissez-faire leadership attribute.

Emotional Intelligence Level

EI was operationalized using the TEIQue-SF questions to measure the overall EI of law enforcement executives. The TEIQue-SF is a validated 30-item instrument developed by Petrides and Furnham (2006) based upon the theoretical framework of its

full-length assessment. TEIQue-SF provides a global trait EI of emotionality, self-control, sociability, and well-being (see Table 4). Petrides (2009) noted,

The global trait EI score is a broad index of general emotional functioning. Global trait EI correlates positively with extraversion, conscientiousness, mental health, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, seniority, pro-social behavior, popularity, sensitivity, and susceptibility to affect, over-prediction of affective reactions in decision-making, overconfidence, social desirability, and hubris. It correlates negatively with neuroticism, introversion, anxiety, psychopathology, turnover, maladaptive coping, truancy, job stress, rumination, and humility. (p. 62)

The facets of TEIQue-SF that produce a global EI score are as follows:

- **Emotionality:** individuals who are in touch with their own feelings and those of others. The facets include empathy, emotional perception, emotional expression, and relationships.
- **Self-control:** individuals in control over their desires and impulses. The facets consist of emotional regulation, impulsiveness, and stress management.
- **Sociability:** individuals engaging in social relationships and influence. The facets involve emotional management, assertiveness, and social awareness.
- **Well-being:** individuals who feel positive, happy, and fulfilled based upon past actions and future expectations. The facets include optimism, happiness, and self-esteem (Petrides, 2009, p. 61).

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for TEIQue-SF

Facets	Mean	SD	Cronbach's	No. of items
Well-being	5.43	1.01	.80	6
Self-control	4.62	0.94	.65	6
Emotionality	5.25	0.90	.73	8
Sociability	4.97	0.89	.88	6
Global trait EI	5.11	0.89	.88	30

Dependent variable. Using the coding scale of the TEIQue-SF, EI was measured on continuous measurement scale with a range of 1-7. The score was derived by calculating the average of Questions 1 through 30 from the TEIQue-SF. Response choices were coded from 1 = *completely disagree* to 7 = *completely agree*. Response choices 2 through 6 did not have labels but represented levels of agreement between *completely disagree* and *completely agree*. Prior to calculating the score, Questions 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10, 12, 13, 14, 16, 18, 22, 25, 26, and 28 were reverse coded so that 7 = 1, 6 = 2, 5 = 3, 4 = 4, 3 = 5, 2 = 6, and 1 = 7. Thus, lower scores indicated a law enforcement executive with less trait EI and higher scores indicated a law enforcement executive with more trait EI.

Validity and reliability. Validity represents the accuracy of the instrument and whether a researcher can draw meaningful and useful inferences from scores on particular instruments, whereas reliability represents whether item scores are internally consistent, whether item scores are stable over time, and whether test administration and scoring were consistent (Singleton & Straits, 2010). Petrides (2010) asserted that empirical evidence supports that TEIQue has strong construct validity, including criterion, concurrent, discriminant, incremental, and predictive validity. Additionally, D. K. J.

Gardner and Qualter (2010) reported that TEIQue had a broader theoretical sphere and demonstrated stronger incremental validity than the other trait measures. TEIQue-SF was developed based upon the full-length version and evidence supports the instrument having strong incremental validity and being a superior predictor of global EI scores (D. K. J. Gardner & Qualter, 2010; Parker et al., 2011; Petrides, 2009).

Cooper and Petrides (2010) examined the psychometric properties of the TEIQue-SF using the advanced method of item response theory. Item response theory analysis provides detailed information across a range of factors rather than a single reliability estimate of the entire sample that shows the validity of each item. Cooper and Petrides noted that trait EI “refers to a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies” (p. 449). Two studies were conducted to ensure replication of findings, which included a target population of 1,119 participants in Study 1 and 866 participants in Study 2 (Cooper & Petrides, 2010). The results of both studies indicated that the TEIQue-SF shows good psychometric properties at the global trait EI level, which supports that TEIQue-SF is a valid and reliable instrument to assess individual differences in trait EI.

Data Triangulation

Creswell (2009) asserted that in the late 1970s, researchers began triangulating data sources to reduce biases caused by employing single methods. A mixed method approach was considered, but was not selected because the purpose of this study was not to combine both quantitative and qualitative strategies to explore and explain research problems. According to Singleton and Straits (2010), triangulation is a technique that

includes the use of multiple research methods or measures that do not have similar methodological weaknesses to answer research questions or problems. Although triangulation can improve the strength of a study when different methods produce similar results, the study has two valid and reliable instruments for measuring the research questions and hypotheses.

Data Analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS for Windows with a two-sided 5% alpha level. Demographic characteristics of the sample were described using the mean, standard deviation, and range for continuous measurement scaled variables and frequency and percentage for categorical scaled variables. Cronbach's alpha was used to measure the internal consistency reliability of leadership style and EI scale scores.

Hypothesis 1 was tested using Pearson's correlation coefficient. The strength and direction of the correlation was reported and interpreted. The analysis was repeated for each of the five transformational leadership style scores.

Hypothesis 2 was tested using Pearson's correlation coefficient. The strength and direction of the correlation was reported and interpreted. The analysis was repeated for each of the three transactional leadership style scores.

Hypothesis 3 was tested using Pearson's correlation coefficient. The strength and direction of the correlation was reported and interpreted.

Hypothesis 4 was tested using stepwise multiple linear regression analysis. The dependent variable in the regression model was the EI score. The independent variables were the nine leadership style scores. All nine independent variables were entered into

the stepwise model selection procedure. The equation of the model was reported and statistically significant regression coefficients were interpreted. The *R*-square for the final model was also presented and interpreted.

Usefulness to the Field

The quantitative correlational study consisted of four research questions and hypotheses to examine the relationship among leadership styles and EI levels of law enforcement executives. A review of current literature in Chapter 2 revealed that high trait EI positively influences workplace stress, perceived control, satisfaction, and commitment (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Recent studies provided evidence to support the relationship between EI and leadership effectiveness and emergence (Cote et al., 2010; Hong et al., 2011; Walter et al., 2011). Although researchers have conducted studies on various occupations, there was minimal research on the relationship between leadership styles and EI of law enforcement executives. A review of the literature in Chapter 2 indicated that relatively few researchers have focused on the leadership styles of law enforcement executives (Schafer, 2010). Therefore, this gap in the literature was addressed in this study through an examination of the relationship between leadership styles and law enforcement executives.

The literature review showed that empirical evidence is increasing regarding the positive relationship among EI and leadership styles of managers experiencing organizational change (Bolden, 2007; Goleman, 1995a; Parker & Sorensen, 2008). Additionally, some studies have supported the relationship between EI and transformational leadership (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Clarke, 2010; Hur et al., 2011;

Parker & Sorensen, 2008; Sayeed & Shanker, 2009). Although many of the researchers focused on managers or leaders, few studies included law enforcement as a population. This study addressed this gap in the literature through an examination of the relationship among leadership styles and EI of law enforcement executives. Results of this study might (a) help law enforcement executives use full range leadership behaviors to address organizational situations; (b) help law enforcement executives understand the relationship between EI and a particular leadership style; (c) enhance the understanding of the role of EI and leadership style on organizational outcomes; (d) provide law enforcement executives with leadership information to address the operational, political, and economic challenges facing their agencies; and (e) lead some law enforcement executives to implement leadership development programs that seek to improve EI and leadership skills.

Summary

Chapter 3 included the rationale for using a quantitative correlational design to answer the research questions and hypotheses on the relationship among EI levels and transformational, transactional, and passive avoidant leadership styles of law enforcement executives. The chapter included the research questions and hypotheses, research method and design, appropriateness of design, population and sample plan, instrumentation, data collection and analysis, and ethical consideration of participants. Additionally, Chapter 3 contained the rationale for selecting a correlational design to address the research questions and the procedures utilized to confirm or reject the null hypotheses. An Internet survey consisting of demographic, MLQ 5X, and TEIQue-SF items was used to

survey participants. Descriptive, correlational, and regression analyses were performed using SPSS for Windows with a two-sided 5% alpha level to reject or support the null hypotheses. This chapter contained evidence to support the construct validity of the MLQ 5X and TEIQue-SF.

Chapter 4 includes a comprehensive account of the data analyses, including whether a statistically significant correlation exists among leadership styles and EI of law enforcement executives. Chapter 5 contains the interpretation of findings, recommendations for action, implications for social change, limitations, areas for future research, and conclusions.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine whether relationships exist among leadership styles and EI of law enforcement executives. The general problem was that the role of law enforcement executives is becoming more complex and dynamic, which indicates a need for full range leadership and EI traits to address the operational, political, and economic challenges of an increasingly changing organizational climate. The research problem addressed was that literature indicates a strong relationship between EI and leadership effectiveness, as well as leadership styles and employee outcomes; however, these relationships have not been investigated among law enforcement executives. Chapter 4 includes a detailed account of how the study was conducted, the data collection procedures performed, and data analysis techniques used.

Data Generation and Data Gathering Processes

A total of 1,214 law enforcement executives were invited to participate in the study. Participants received an e-mail invitation to participate in the study, which included an informed consent statement with an embedded hyperlink to access the anonymous Internet survey. The Internet survey consisted of 45 items to measure nine full range leadership components, which were categorized into transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles. Also included were 30 items to measure trait EI and seven demographic questions.

One hundred sixty (approximately 13%) law enforcement executives invited to participate attempted to complete the survey. Of the 160 respondents, three declined to provide informed consent and were omitted from the analysis. Of the remaining 157

respondents, 139 completed the TEIQue and MLQ surveys. Thus, the final sample size for the study was 139.

Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Variables

Descriptive statistics for demographic variables was the first statistical analyses performed. The average (and standard deviation) number of years of experience as a law enforcement executive in a sworn command-level position was 14.8 (9.0) and the range was 1 to 37. The average (and standard deviation) number of officers or agents within the department or agency was 614 (1000.8) and the range was 1 to 5,000. Seventy-four (53.2%) study participants reported their area of jurisdiction as municipal or local, nine (6.5%) reported state, 49 (35.3%) reported federal, one (0.7%) reported military, and six (4.3%) failed to provide their area of jurisdiction. One hundred nineteen (85.6%) were male, 14 (10.1%) were female, and six (4.3%) failed to report their gender. Three (2.2%) study participants reported their age as between 30 and 39 years. Forty-three (30.9%) reported their age as 40-49 years, 69 (49.6%) reported 50-59 years, 19 reported 60 years or older, and five (3.6%) failed to report their age. Fourteen (10%) reported having less than a college degree as their highest level of education. Seven (5%) reported an associate's degree, 51 (36.7%) reported having a bachelor's degree, 61 (43.9%) reported having a graduate degree, and six (4.3%) failed to report their highest level of education. One hundred nineteen (85.6%) respondents reported their race as White, nine (6.5%) were African American, two (1.4%) were Asian or Pacific Islander, two (1.4%) were Hispanic or Latino, one (.7%) reported multiple races, and six (4.3%) failed to report

their race. See Appendix E for detailed descriptive statistics and frequency tables for all survey questions.

Descriptive Statistics for the Independent and Dependent Variables

Table 5 shows descriptive statistics for the independent and dependent variables. Considering the smallest possible score for the EI score was 1.0 and the maximum possible score was 7.0, the average EI score of 5.72 was relatively high. Thus, the standard deviation EI score of .48275 meant that approximately 95% of the scores in the sample fell between 4.7525 and 6.6835. The EI scores ranged from 4.40 to 6.57. Considering the smallest possible score for the leadership style scores was 0.00 and the maximum possible score was 4.00, all five transformational leadership style scores and one transactional leadership style score (contingent reward) were rated above the midpoint of 2.00 on average. Among the nine leadership styles, inspirational motivation was rated highest on average, and 95% of the scores in the sample fell between 1.2794 and 3.2494. The laissez-faire score was rated lowest on average.

The standard deviations of the nine leadership styles ranged from .18 to .58. Considering the range of possible scores for the leadership styles was 0.0 to 4.0, the standard deviations were relatively low, indicating the study participants were consistent in terms of the extent to which they possessed each of the various leadership styles. What variation existed in the leadership styles might best be explained by the nature of the profession. All law enforcement executives have unique personalities and unique sets of personalities to deal with among their subordinates. Thus, all executives need to adapt

their style to fit their individual situation, which could explain the variation in the leadership styles.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Style Scores (n = 139)

	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Emotional intelligence	5.7180	.48275	4.40	6.57
Idealized influence (attributed)	2.1439	.55738	.00	3.00
Idealized influence (behavioral)	2.1655	.52609	.75	3.00
Inspirational motivation	2.2644	.49249	.50	3.00
Intellectual stimulation	2.0953	.47146	.75	3.00
Individualized consideration	2.2356	.44004	1.00	3.00
Management-by-exception (active)	.8381	.57803	.00	2.25
Management-by-exception (passive)	.2734	.31550	.00	1.25
Contingent reward	2.1888	.51150	.75	3.00
Laissez-faire leadership	.0647	.17636	.00	.75

Cronbach's Alpha for the Independent and Dependent Variables

Cronbach's alphas were calculated for the EI and the leadership style scores.

Table 6 shows that the EI score, idealized influence attributed, and inspirational motivation scores had Cronbach's alphas above .7. Considering the Cronbach's alphas for idealized influence behavior, intellectual stimulation, and MBEA were not much below .7, the low reliability for those measures was not considered a major limitation of the study. However, the Cronbach's alphas for the individualized consideration, MBEP, contingent reward, and laissez-faire scores were lower and therefore the subsequent results for those variables were more limited.

Table 6

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability for Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Style Scores (n = 139)

Variable	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
Emotional intelligence	0.83	30
Idealized influence (attributed)	0.74	4
Idealized influence (behavior)	0.65	4
Inspirational motivation	0.73	4
Intellectual stimulation	0.66	4
Individualized consideration	0.53	4
Management-by-exception (active)	0.65	4
Management-by-exception (passive)	0.30	4
Contingent reward	0.62	4
Laissez-faire	0.00	4

Data Analysis and Results

Research Question 1

The overarching research question was what, if any, correlation exists among leadership styles and EI among law enforcement executives? The first research question was as follows: What, if any, correlation exists between a transformational leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives? To answer this question, the following hypotheses were formulated:

$H1_0$: No correlation exists between a transformational leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

$H1_a$: A correlation exists between a transformational leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

A Pearson's correlation coefficient was performed on transformational leadership and EI to determine whether a statistically significant relationship existed between the

variables. The analysis was repeated for each of the five transformational leadership style scores. Figure 8 is a scatter plot that graphically depicts the relationship between the EI score and the idealized influence attributed score. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

Table 7 shows a statistically significant, strong positive correlation existed between the EI score and the idealized influence attributed score, $r(139) = .49, p < .001$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected and it was concluded that law enforcement executives who self-report a high level of idealized influence attributed leadership style tend to have a higher level of EI.

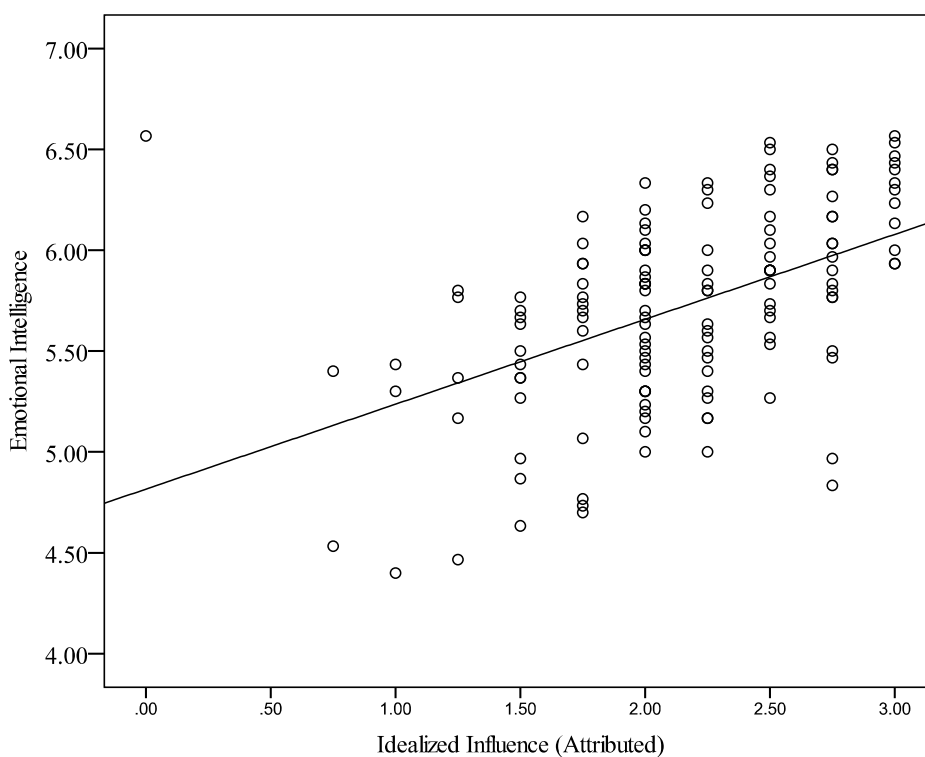


Figure 8. Scatter plot of the emotional intelligence score versus the idealized influence attributed score.

Table 7

Pearson's Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Idealized Influence Attributed

	Idealized influence attributed
Pearson correlation	.486
<i>p</i> value	<.001
<i>N</i>	139

Figure 9 is a scatter plot that graphically depicts the relationship between the EI score and the idealized influence behavior score. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

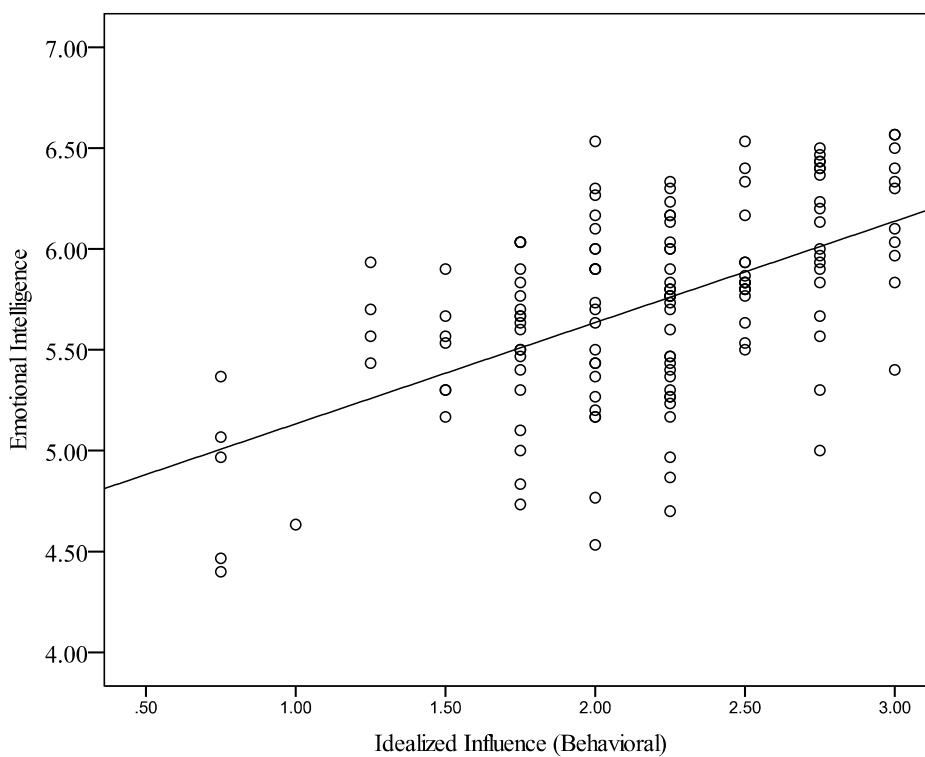


Figure 9. Scatter plot of the emotional intelligence score versus the idealized influence behavioral score.

Table 8 shows there was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the EI score and the idealized influence behavior score, $r(139) = .55, p < .001$. Therefore, it was concluded that law enforcement executives who self-report a high level of idealized influence behavior leadership style tend to have a higher level of EI.

Table 8

Pearson's Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Idealized Influence Behavioral

	Idealized influence behavioral
Pearson correlation	.547
<i>p</i> value	<.001
<i>N</i>	139

Figure 10 is a scatter plot that graphically depicts the relationship between the EI score and the inspirational motivation score. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

Table 9 shows there was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the EI score and the inspirational motivation score, $r(139) = .67, p < .001$. Therefore, it was concluded that law enforcement executives who self-report a high level of inspirational motivation leadership style tend to have a higher level of EI.

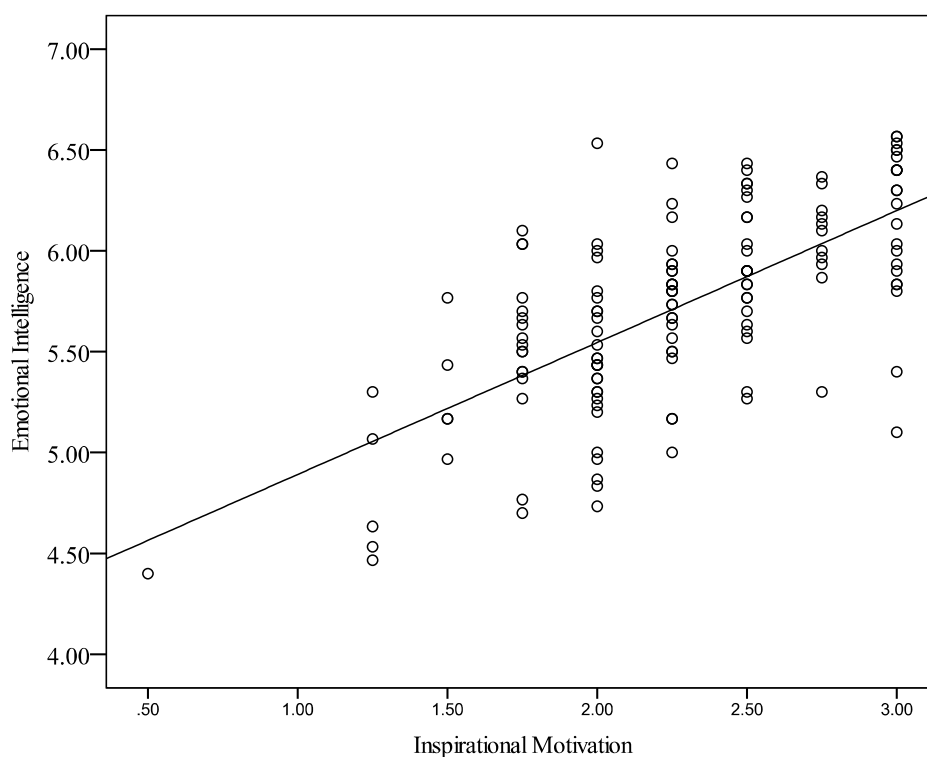


Figure 10. Scatter plot of the emotional intelligence score versus the inspirational motivation score.

Table 9

Pearson's Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Inspirational Motivation

	Inspirational motivation
Pearson correlation	.667
<i>p</i> value	<.001
<i>N</i>	139

Figure 11 is a scatter plot that graphically depicts the relationship between the EI score and the intellectual stimulation score. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

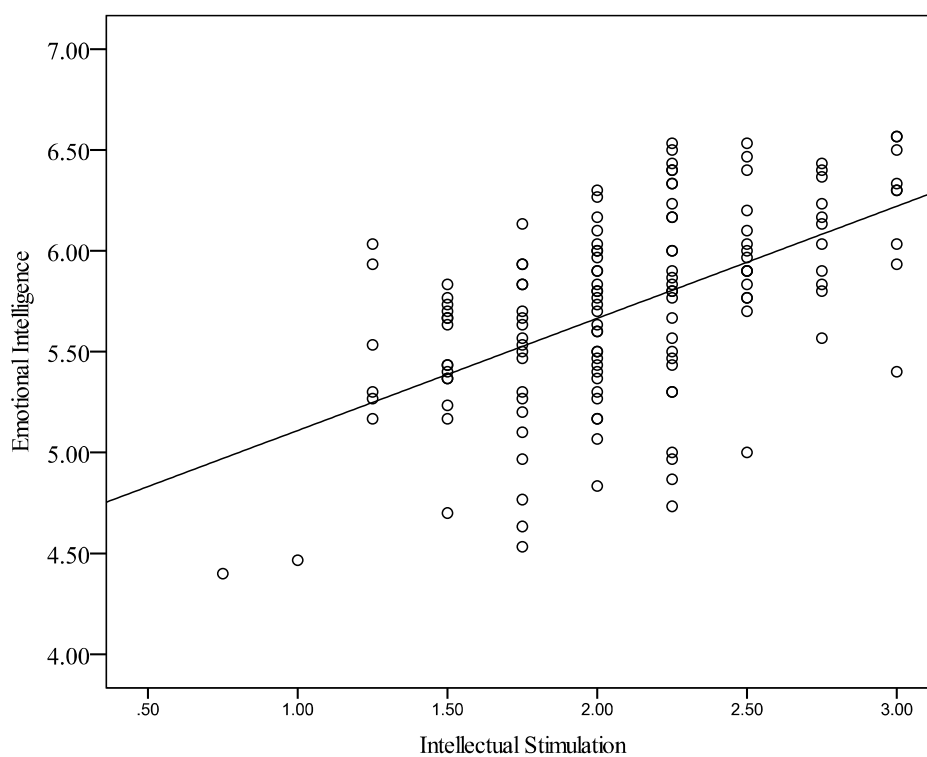


Figure 11. Scatter plot of the emotional intelligence score versus the intellectual stimulation score.

Table 10 shows there was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the EI score and the intellectual stimulation score, $r(139) = .54, p < .001$.

Therefore, it was concluded that law enforcement executives who self-report a high level of intellectual stimulation leadership style tend to have a higher level of EI.

Table 10

Pearson's Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Intellectual Stimulation

	Intellectual stimulation
Pearson correlation	.543
<i>p</i> value	<.001
<i>N</i>	139

Figure 12 is a scatter plot that graphically depicts the relationship between the EI score and the individualized consideration score. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

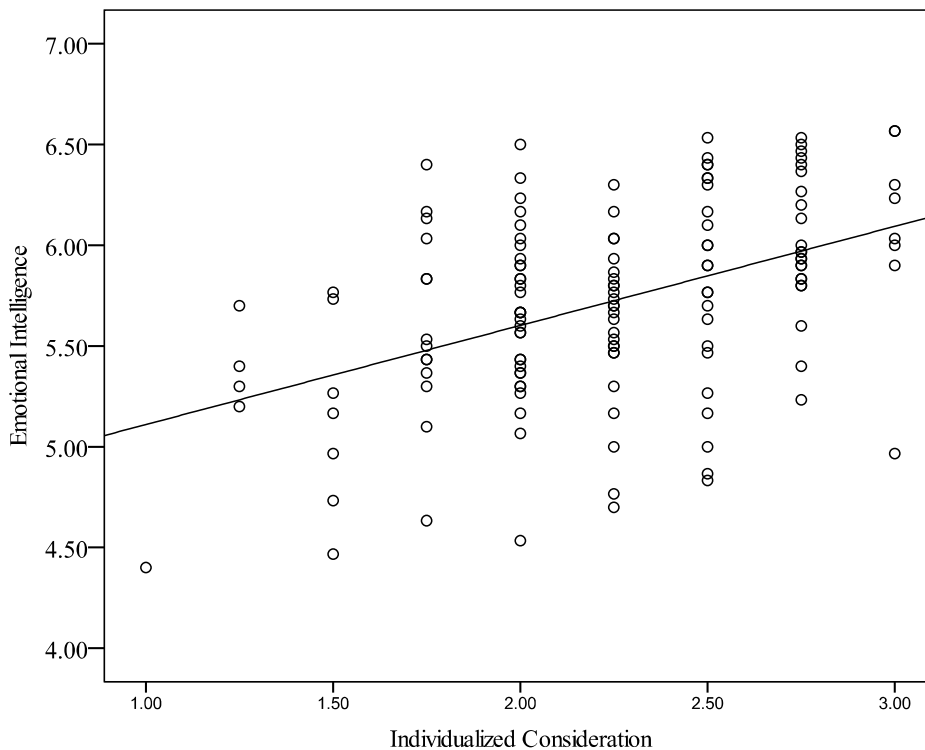


Figure 12. Scatter plot of the emotional intelligence score versus the individualized consideration score.

Table 11 shows there was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the EI score and the individualized consideration score, $r(139) = .45, p < .001$. Therefore, it was concluded that law enforcement executives who self-report a high level of individualized consideration leadership style tend to have a higher level of EI.

Table 11

Pearson's Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Individualized Consideration

	Individualized consideration
Pearson correlation	.448
<i>p</i> value	<.001
<i>N</i>	139

Research Question 2

The second research question was as follows: What, if any, correlation exists between a transactional leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives? To answer this question, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H_{2_0} : No correlation exists between a transactional leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

H_{2_a} : A correlation exists between a transactional leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

A Pearson's correlation coefficient was performed on transactional leadership and EI to determine whether a statistically significant relationship existed between the variables. The analysis was repeated for each of the three transactional leadership style scores. Figure 13 is a scatter plot that graphically depicts the relationship between the EI score and the MBEA score. The figure gives little evidence of a correlation between the two variables.

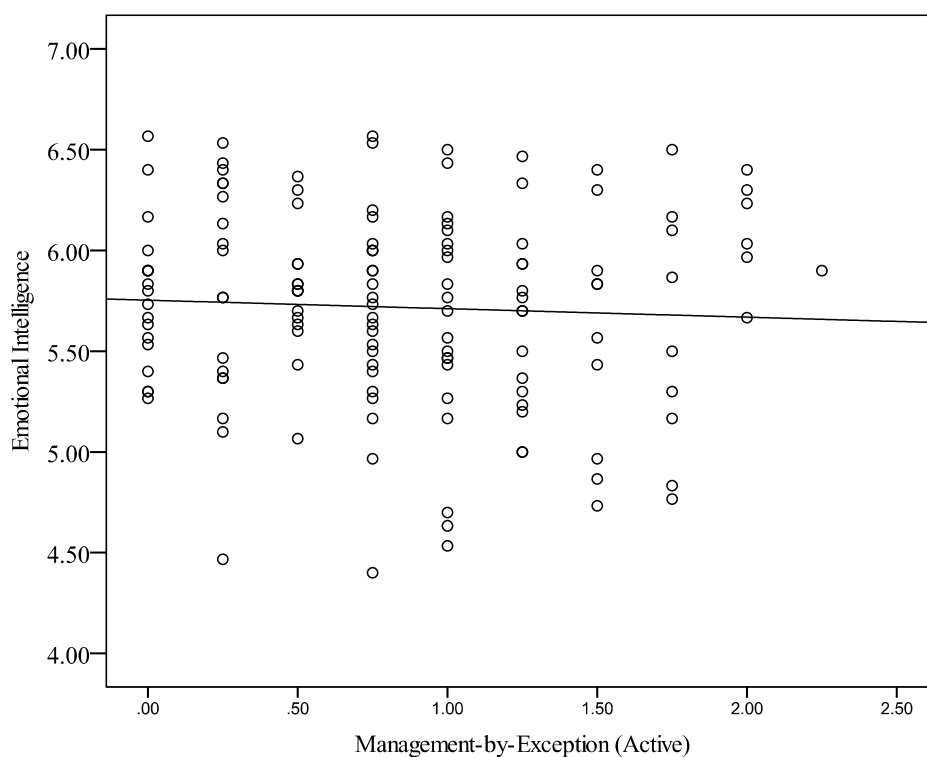


Figure 13. Scatter plot of the emotional intelligence score versus the management-by-exception active score.

Table 12 shows there was not a statistically significant correlation between the EI score and the MBEA score, $r(139) = -.051, p = .56$. Therefore, it was concluded that there is no correlation between a MBEA leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

Table 12

Pearson's Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Management-by-Exception (Active)

	Management-by-exception (active)
Pearson correlation	-.051
<i>p</i> value	.555
<i>N</i>	139

Figure 14 is a scatter plot that graphically depicts the relationship between the EI score and the MBEP score. The figure gives little evidence of a correlation between the two variables.

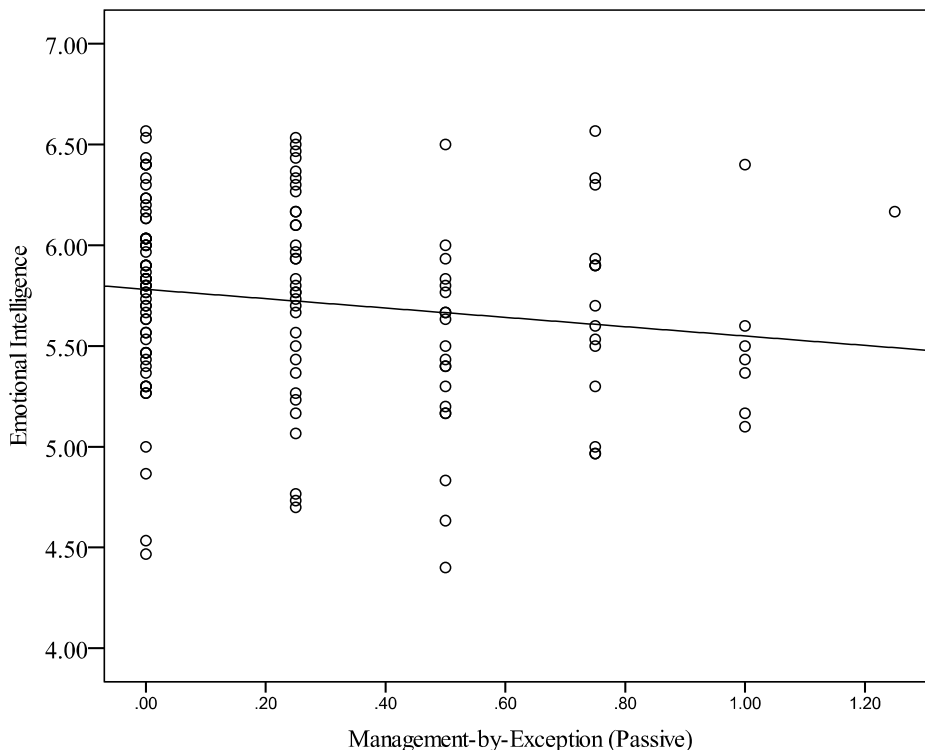


Figure 14. Scatter plot of the emotional intelligence score versus the MBEP score.

Table 13 shows there was not a statistically significant correlation between the EI score and the MBEP score, $r(139) = -.15$; $p = .075$. Therefore, it was concluded that there is no correlation between a MBEP leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

Figure 15 is a scatter plot that graphically depicts the relationship between the EI score and the contingent reward score. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

Table 13

Pearson's Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Management-by-Exception (Passive)

Management-by-exception (passive)	
Pearson correlation	-.151
<i>p</i> value	.075
<i>N</i>	139

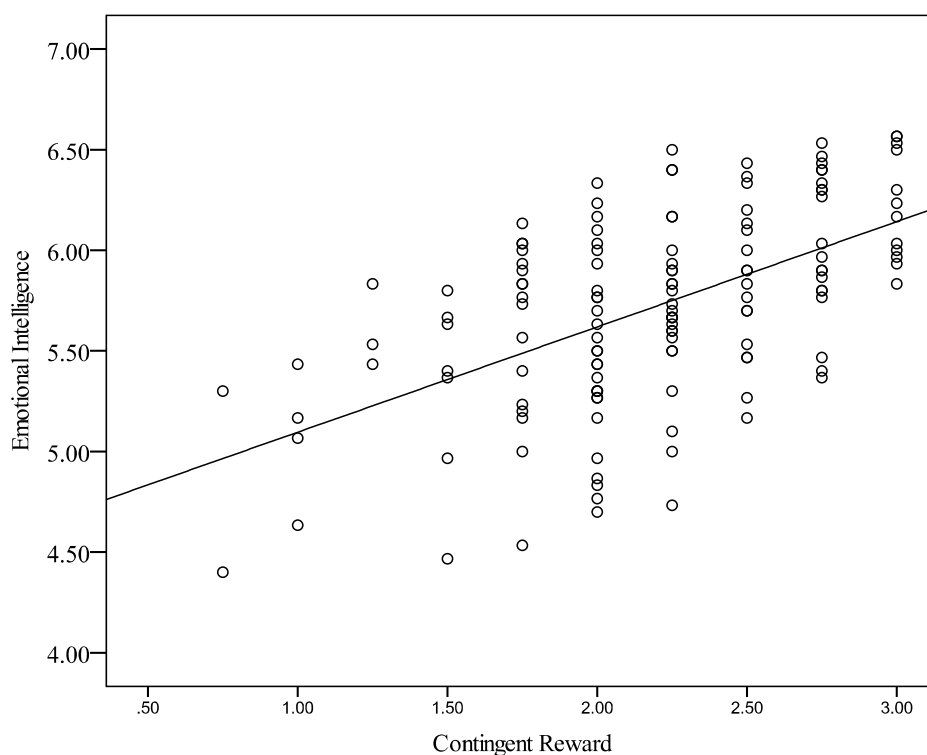


Figure 15. Scatter plot of the emotional intelligence score versus the contingent reward score.

Table 14 shows there was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the EI score and the contingent reward score, $r(139) = .55, p < .001$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected, and it was concluded that law enforcement executives

who self-report a high level of contingent reward leadership style tend to have a higher level of EI.

Table 14

Pearson's Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Contingent Reward

	Contingent reward
Pearson correlation	.554
<i>p</i> value	<.001
<i>N</i>	139

Research Question 3

The third research question was as follows: What, if any, correlation exists between a laissez-faire leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives? To answer this question, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H_{3_0} : No correlation exists between a laissez-faire leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

H_{3_a} : A correlation exists between a laissez-faire leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

A Pearson's correlation coefficient was performed on laissez-faire leadership and EI to determine whether a statistically significant relationship existed between the variables. Figure 16 is a scatter plot that graphically depicts the relationship between the EI score and the laissez-faire score. The figure gives little evidence of a correlation between the two variables.

Table 15 shows there was not a statistically significant correlation between the EI score and the laissez-faire score, $r(139) = -.065$, $p = .45$. Therefore, the null hypothesis

was not rejected and it was concluded that there is no correlation between a laissez-faire leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

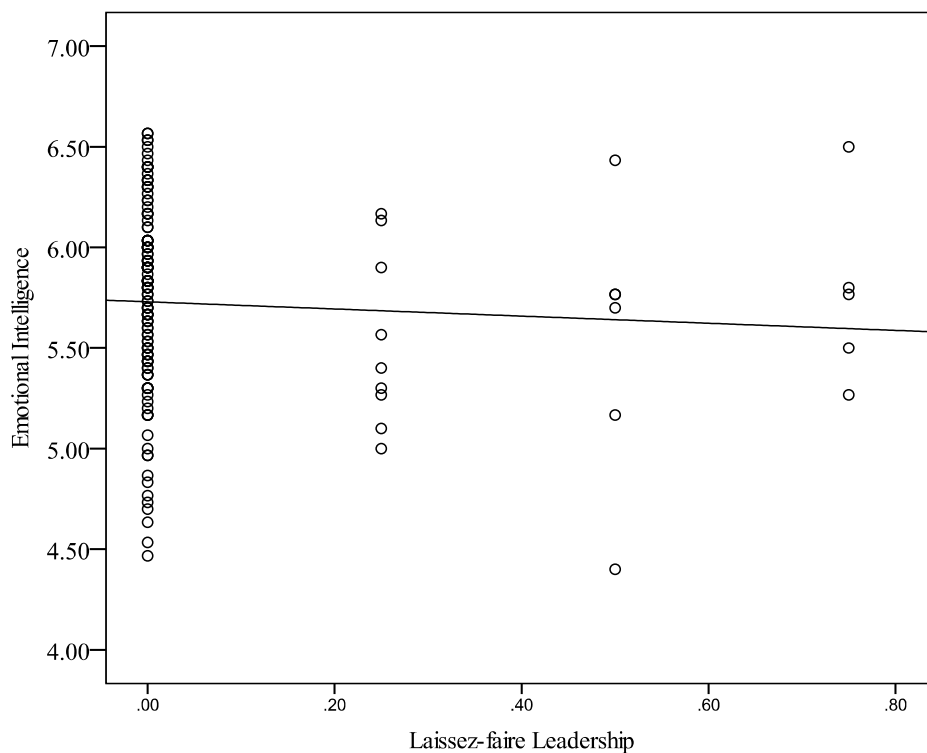


Figure 16: Scatter plot of the EI score versus the laissez-faire score.

Table 15

Pearson's Correlation Statistic for Emotional Intelligence Versus Laissez-Faire

	Laissez-faire
Pearson correlation	-.065
<i>p</i> value	.448
<i>N</i>	139

Research Question 4

The fourth research question was as follows: To what extent do two or more leadership styles collectively add independent information in predicting EI among law

enforcement executives? To answer this question, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H_{4_0} : Two or more leadership styles do not add independent information in predicting EI among law enforcement executives.

H_{4_a} : Two or more leadership styles add independent information in predicting EI among law enforcement executives.

A multiple linear regression analysis was performed to test Hypothesis 4. The dependent variable was the EI score. The independent variables were the nine leadership style scores. Table 16 shows that three of the nine leadership style scores were statistically significant, $F(3, 135) = 43.7, p < .001$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected and it was concluded that combinations of leadership styles add independent information in predicting EI among law enforcement executives. Specifically, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and MBEP leadership styles collectively better predict EI than any single leadership style alone. The R -square for the final model was .493, which means the inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and MBEP leadership scores collectively explained 49.3% of the total variance in the EI scores.

The inspirational motivation score was the stronger predictor of the three. The inspirational motivation score explained 44.5% of the total variance in EI scores, whereas the intellectual stimulation score explained only an additional 3% of variance in EI scores and the MBEP score explained only an additional 1.8% of variance in EI scores.

The equation of the model was $EI = 4.13 + .53 * IM + .22 * IS - .20 * MBEP$. The interpretation of the model is, when controlling for the intellectual stimulation and

MBEP leadership styles, the average EI score is expected to increase by .53 points for every 1-point increase in the inspirational motivation score. When controlling for the inspirational motivation and MBEP leadership styles, the average EI score is expected to increase by .22 points for every one-point increase in the intellectual stimulation score. When controlling for the inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation leadership styles, the average EI score is expected to decrease by .20 points for every one-point increase in the MBEP score.

Table 16

Multiple Linear Regression of Emotional Intelligence Versus the Nine Leadership Style Scores

Variables ^{a, b}	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> value
	B	Std. error	Beta		
(Constant)	4.128	.155		26.592	.000
Inspirational motivation ^c	.525	.076	.535	6.945	.000
Intellectual stimulation ^d	.218	.079	.213	2.762	.007
Management-by-exception (passive) ^e	-.203	.094	-.133	-2.161	.032

^aDependent variable: Emotional intelligence. ^b*R*-square attributed to the total model = .493; $F(3, 135) = 43.7$; $p < .001$. ^c*R*-square attributed to inspirational motivation = .445. ^d*R*-square attributed to intellectual stimulation = .030. ^e*R*-square attributed to management-by-exception (passive) = .018.

Summary

A total of 1,214 law enforcement executives were invited to participate in the study. One hundred sixty (approximately 13%) of those invited to participate attempted to complete the survey, resulting in a final sample size of 139 (11% response rate). The

data collected from 139 respondents via an Internet survey were imported into SPSS software program for analysis.

Descriptive statistics were conducted to identify demographic characteristics of the sample. The average number of years of experience as a law enforcement executive in a sworn command-level position was 14.8 years. The average number of officers or agents within the department or agency was 614. Over half of the respondents (53.2%) reported their area of jurisdiction as municipal or local and 35.3% reported their jurisdiction as federal. The majority of the respondents were male (85.6%) and 10.1% were female, with the remaining not providing information. Almost 50% reported their age as 50-59 years, and 30.9% reported they were 40-49 years old. Only 2.2% of the study participants reported their age as between 30 and 39 years. Almost half (43.9%) of the respondents reported having a graduate degree and 36.7% had a bachelor's degree. Most (85.6%) of the respondents reported their race as White, 6.5% claimed they were African American, 1.4% claimed they were Asian or Pacific Islander, 1.4% claimed they were Hispanic or Latino, and .7% claimed multiple races.

Pearson's correlation coefficient and multiple linear regression analyses were performed to test hypotheses. Results showed that among law enforcement executives, EI had a statistically significant relationship with all five measures of transformational leadership style and one transactional leadership style (contingent reward). There was no evidence of a relationship between EI and a laissez-faire leadership style. The results showed that combinations of leadership styles add independent information in predicting EI among law enforcement executives, specifically; inspirational motivation, intellectual

stimulation, and MBEP leadership styles collectively better predict EI than any single leadership style alone. When controlling for the level of inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation, the results showed that a lower level of MBEP leadership style is associated with higher EI.

Chapter 5 includes an interpretation of the research findings, recommendations for law enforcement practitioners, implications for social change, suggestions for future research, recommendations for action, and limitations of this research study. Chapter 5 also includes a discussion on how the findings from the current study align or diverge from findings of prior research studies in the literature review.

Chapter 5: Summary, Conclusion, and Recommendations

Overview

The purpose of the quantitative correlational study was determining whether relationships exist among leadership styles and EI of law enforcement executives. As law enforcement executives face continuous change, full range leadership skills will be necessary to confront the operational, political, and economic challenges. Empirical evidence is increasing regarding the positive relationship among EI and leadership styles of managers experiencing organizational change (Bolden, 2007; Goleman, 1995a; Parker & Sorensen, 2008). Although researchers have conducted studies on various occupations, minimal research existed on the relationship among leadership styles and EI of law enforcement executives.

Chapter 4 included the data analysis techniques and findings of the study. Chapter 5 contains a summary of the research study, which includes the (a) interpretation of significant findings, (b) limitations, (c) recommendations for future research, (d) recommendations for law enforcement executives, (e) implications for management practitioners and social change, and (f) conclusions.

Interpretation of Findings

Participants of the study included law enforcement executives ($n = 139$) from the District of Columbia, Maryland, and Virginia sections of the IACP. The three sections represented a cross section of municipal or local (53.2%), federal (35.3%), state (6.5%), and military (0.7%) jurisdictions. The average number of officers or agents within a department or agency was 614 and the range was 1 to 5,000. The years of experience as

a law enforcement executive in a sworn command-level position ranged from 1 to 37 and the mean was 14.8 years. The sample was predominantly male with 119 (85.6%) males and 14 (10.1%) females. The ethnicity of the participants was predominantly White. One hundred and nineteen (85.6%) reported their race as White, nine (6.5%) were African American, two (1.4%) were Asian or Pacific Islanders, two (1.4%) were Hispanic or Latino, one (0.7%) reported multiple races, and six (4.3%) failed to report their race. Only three (2.2%) study participants reported their age as between 30 and 39 years. Forty-three (30.9%) reported their age as 40-49 years and 69 (49.6%) reported being 50-59 years old. The majority of the participants held a bachelor's degree (36.7%) or graduate degree (43.9%), with only 14 (10%) having less than a college degree as their highest level of education.

Descriptive statistics for the independent (leadership styles) and dependent (EI) variables were performed. The EI scores of law enforcement executives ranged from 4.40 to 6.57, which was relatively high on average (5.72), considering that the smallest possible score for the EI score was 1.0 and the maximum possible score was 7.0. All five transformational leadership style scores and one transactional leadership style score (contingent reward) were rated above the midpoint of 2.00 on average. Among the nine leadership styles, inspirational motivation was rated highest on average, while the laissez-faire score was rated lowest on average.

Pearson's correlation coefficient and multiple linear regression analyses were performed to test hypotheses and answer the research questions. All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS for Windows with a two-sided 5% alpha level. A *p* value of

less than .05 was established to support rejecting the null hypotheses. This section provides an interpretation of the findings presented in Chapter 4.

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 inquired whether a statistically significant relationship existed between a transformational leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives. Null Hypothesis 1, which stated that no correlation exists between a transformational leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives, was tested using Pearson's correlation coefficient analysis. The analysis was repeated for each of the five transformational leadership style scores: (a) idealized influence attributed, (b) idealized influence behavioral, (c) inspirational motivation, (d) intellectual stimulation, and (e) individualized consideration.

Idealized influence attributed. According to the results of the data analysis, a statistically significant, strong positive correlation existed between the EI score and the idealized influence attributed score, $r(139) = .49, p < .001$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected, and it was concluded that law enforcement executives who self-report a high level of idealized influence attributed leadership style tend to have a higher level of EI.

Idealized influence behavioral. According to the results of the data analysis, there was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the EI score and the idealized influence behavior score, $r(139) = .55, p < .001$. Therefore, it was concluded that law enforcement executives who self-report a high level of idealized influence behavior leadership style tend to have a higher level of EI.

Inspirational motivation. According to the results of the data analysis, there was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the EI score and the inspirational motivation score, $r(139) = .67, p < .001$. Therefore, it was concluded that law enforcement executives who self-report a high level of inspirational motivation leadership style tend to have a higher level of EI.

Intellectual stimulation. According to the results of the data analysis, there was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the EI score and the intellectual stimulation score, $r(139) = .54, p < .001$. Therefore, it was concluded that law enforcement executives who self-report a high level of intellectual stimulation leadership style tend to have a higher level of EI.

Individualized consideration. According to the results of the data analysis, there was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the EI score and the individualized consideration score, $r(139) = .45, p < .001$. Therefore, it was concluded that law enforcement executives who self-report a high level of individualized consideration leadership style tend to have a higher level of EI.

According to the study results, a statistically significant relationship exists between all five measures of transformational leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives. Consequently, law enforcement executives with high EI scores and transformational leadership skills would be expected to positively influence individuals, teams, and organizations that are experiencing significant organizational change. Bass and Avolio's (2004) transformational leadership model expands the leader's role from simple leader-follower exchange agreements to inspiring and

motivating followers to achieve goals beyond their own expectations. Transformational leaders have the ability to stimulate other leaders, colleagues, and followers to embrace new organizational perspectives, support the vision or mission of the organization, and achieve higher levels of performance (Ardichvili & Manderscheid, 2008; Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004).

These findings are not surprising given that prior research has shown a positive relationship between EI and transformational leadership styles (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Goleman, 1995a; Murphy, 2008; Parker & Sorensen, 2008; Sarver, 2008; Sayeed & Shanker, 2009). Law enforcement executives with high EI scores and transformational leadership ability can be expected to (a) be idealized when their followers identify, respect, and emulate the leaders' behaviors; (b) motivate followers when leaders provide inspiration and understanding; (c) stimulate followers when leaders use their abilities to accomplish a shared goal; and (d) provide their followers support and mentoring (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2004). In the final analysis, transformational leaders enhance follower satisfaction and performance by demonstrating idealized leadership, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, or individualized consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 inquired whether a statistically significant relationship existed between a transactional leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives. Null Hypothesis 2, which stated that no correlation exists between a transactional leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives, was tested using

Pearson's correlation coefficient analysis. The analysis was repeated for each of the three transactional leadership style scores: (a) MBEA, (b) MBEP, and (c) contingent reward.

Management-by-exception (active). According to the results of the data analysis, there was not a statistically significant correlation between the EI score and the MBEA score, $r(139) = -.051, p = .56$. Because the p value of .56 exceeded the significance level, it was concluded that there is no correlation between a MBEA leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

Management-by-exception (passive). According to the results of the data analysis, there was not a statistically significant correlation between the EI score and the MBEP score, $r(139) = -.15, p = .075$. Because the p value of .075 exceeded the significance level, it was concluded that there is no correlation between a MBEP leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

Contingent reward. According to the results of the data analysis, there was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the EI score and the contingent reward score, $r(139) = .55, p < .001$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected, and it was concluded that law enforcement executives who self-report a high level of contingent reward leadership style tend to have a higher level of EI.

In the full range leadership model, transactional leadership consists of management-by-exception (passive and active) and contingent reward. This study found that among law enforcement executives, EI is strongly correlated with one transactional leadership style. Although the results indicated that a statistically significant relationship does not exist between EI and management-by-exception (both active and passive), it was

not surprising that a strong positive relationship was found between the EI score and contingent reward. The findings of this study indicate that leaders with high EI and contingent reward leadership style are more effective leaders because they provide followers clear performance objectives and expectations that lead to specific rewards or recognition.

Transactional leadership may be effective in certain situations; however, it is less effective when the leader does not have oversight of the reward process (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 2004). Although MBEA may contribute to leader satisfaction, it is less effective than transformational leadership. Likewise, MBEP often produces ineffective leadership and dissatisfaction. Transactional leaders may have a marginal effect on follower performance but are more effective when used in conjunction with transformational leadership behaviors (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Research Question 3

Research Question 3 inquired whether a statistically significant relationship existed between a laissez-faire leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives. Null Hypothesis 3, which stated that no correlation exists between a laissez-faire leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives, was tested using Pearson's correlation coefficient analysis.

Laissez-faire leadership. According to the results of the data analysis, there was not a statistically significant correlation between the EI score and the laissez-faire score, $r(139) = -.065, p = .45$. Because the p value of .045 exceeded the significance level, it

was concluded that there is no correlation between a laissez-faire leadership style and EI among law enforcement executives.

According to the study results, a statistically significant relationship does not exist between EI and laissez-faire leadership style. Although some researchers have endorsed transformational leadership for law enforcement executives (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Murphy, 2008; Sarver, 2008), others have suggested that a mixed leadership style of transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire leadership (Densten, 2003; Devitt, 2008; Hawkins & Dulewicz, 2009; Schwarzwald, Koslowsky, & Agassi, 2001) may be effective based upon a particular situation. A plausible explanation for the different findings might have been the target population or sample size.

Research Question 4

Research Question 4 was as follows: To what extent do two or more leadership styles collectively add independent information in predicting EI among law enforcement executives? Null Hypothesis 4 stated that two or more leadership styles do not add independent information in predicting EI among law enforcement executives.

A multiple linear regression analysis was performed to test Hypothesis 4. The dependent variable was the EI score. The independent variables were the nine leadership style scores. The results of the data analysis provided evidence that three of the nine leadership style scores were statistically significant, $F(3, 135) = 43.7, p < .001$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected and it was concluded that combinations of leadership styles add independent information in predicting EI among law enforcement

executives. Specifically, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and MBEP leadership styles collectively better predict EI than any single leadership style alone.

The inspirational motivation score was the strongest predictor of the three. The inspirational motivation score explained 44.5% of the total variance in EI scores, while the intellectual stimulation score explained only an additional 3% of variance in EI scores and the MBEP score explained only an additional 1.8% of variance in EI scores.

According to the study results, when controlling for the level of inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation, a lower level of MBEP leadership style is associated with higher EI.

Combinations of leadership styles add independent information in predicting EI among law enforcement executives; specifically, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and MBEP leadership styles collectively predict EI better than any single leadership style alone. A review of the literature revealed a number of qualitative and quantitative studies on the application of EI. Several researchers have provided evidence that a significant relationship exists between EI and leadership effectiveness (Boyatzis, 2008, 2009; Goleman, 1995a, 1995b; Kerr et al., 2006; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Walter et al., 2011). The EI of an organizational leader correlates with the quality of the leader's relationship with subordinates (Janovics & Christiansen, 2001; Lopes et al., 2006).

Leaders with higher EI tend to have better working relationships with their subordinates. In turn, better working relationships with subordinates tend to produce better employee outcomes, such as job performance, organizational commitment, and employee retention (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Additionally, research has provided evidence that high trait

EI positively influenced workplace stress, perceived control, satisfaction, and commitment (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Recent studies provided evidence to support the relationship between EI and leadership effectiveness and emergence (Cote et al., 2010; Hong et al., 2011; Walter et al., 2010).

Additionally, a review of the literature indicated the practical applications and organizational outcomes for leaders who use full range leadership skills, including transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles. Leadership is a key element of effective organizations, including policing (Densten, 2003; Mastrofski, Rosenbaum, & Fridell, 2011; Schafer, 2010). For example, effective leaders provide motivation, guidance, and inspiration to employees to accomplish organizational objectives (Berg, Dean, Gottschalk, & Karlsen, 2008; Vito & Higgins, 2010). Leadership styles affect organizational outcomes, such as job satisfaction, morale, and commitment (Andresescu & Vito, 2010; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Densten, 2003; Rowe, 2006; Sarver, 2008; Schafer, 2009). In conclusion, it would be expected that law enforcement executives who possess a high level of EI and full range leadership skills are more effective at situationally adapting to rapidly changing operational, political, and economic challenges.

Limitations of Study

For the study to make a significant contribution to leadership and EI literature, it is essential to recognize limitations. Although the study provided information useful to law enforcement executives, it has several limitations that could be addressed by changing or modifying the research design. The use of a correlational design was one

limitation of the study. Although a relationship was found between the independent and the dependent variables, causation was not determined. A second limitation of the study was the use of a self-report questionnaire, which increased the risk of participants not answering all the questions in an accurate manner and precluded me from asking probing questions to gain additional information about executive perceptions.

A third limitation was the use of a convenience sampling method, in which participants were selected from one law enforcement organization. Although a nonprobability sample may weaken the external validity of a study (Singleton & Straits, 2010), the use of this method provided an appropriate cross-section of law enforcement executives from small, medium, and large police departments, as well as executives from municipal or local (53.2%), federal (35.3%), state (6.5%), or military (4.3%) law enforcement agencies.

Recommendations for Future Research

The current study contributes to the body of knowledge on EI and leadership styles; however, the limitations of the study affected the generalization of the findings. Therefore, future researchers might consider several issues in subsequent research endeavors. First, further consideration might be given to replicating the study using the same law enforcement organization but expanding the target population ($n = 139$) beyond the three sections selected for this study. Such a study might increase the response rate and yield data that would improve generalization to a broader law enforcement executive population. Another consideration might be to replicate the study using a different law

enforcement organization consisting of front-line supervisors such as sergeants, team leaders, or group supervisors.

In the current study, demographic characteristics were described using descriptive statistics. For instance, the sample consisted of 85.6% White males, which might provide an opportunity for future researchers to determine if findings are similar across demographic variables. A researcher might consider using the Women in Federal Law Enforcement or National Organization of Black Police Officers Association as target populations.

A limitation of this study was the use of a correlational study design. Correlational study designs do not provide strong evidence of cause and effect relationships. The strongest study design for showing cause and effect is a randomized controlled experimental study design. One could conceive of randomizing law enforcement executives to a control group that receives training to become a transactional leader, and the experimental group receives training in how to become a transformational leader, and then the effects of the leadership styles on EI could be evaluated. However, such a study would likely not be feasible because it would likely be considered unethical to force executives to adopt one leadership style or another. Executives need to be able to lead in the way that they feel is the most effective for the situation.

Recommendations for Law Enforcement Executives

As previously discussed, the United States has one of the most complex organizational systems of law enforcement in the world, which consists of 48 federal law enforcement agencies, 3,100 sheriff's departments, and approximately 12,700 local

police departments (Schmallegger, 2009). Policing in the 21st century is becoming more complex and dynamic, as law enforcement executives deal with traditional policing, community policing, homeland security, and economic hardship. Over 85% of the law enforcement executives surveyed by the IACP in 2011 indicated that they faced serious operational problems due to budget cuts, including having to lay off or furlough employees (IACP, 2011). In a survey conducted by the Police Executive Research Forum, 51% of police chiefs indicated they received smaller budgets in 2010 than in 2009, and 59% expected more cuts in 2011 (Fischer, 2009). The effectiveness of a law enforcement organization is largely dependent upon the quality of executive leadership that can address a variety of situations.

Further research is necessary to determine if the relationship among EI and leadership styles of law enforcement executives affect performance and organizational outcomes. Another research area may include examining the contribution of EI and transformational leadership on employee development processes and succession planning. Finally, an investigation may include examining how EI and transformative learning influence leadership development programs.

Implications for Management Practitioners and Social Change

The results of the study could be useful to law enforcement executives and management practitioners in making decisions regarding a wide range of organizational change and leadership development practices. According to the findings of the study, among law enforcement executives, EI had a statistically significant relationship with transformational and transactional leadership styles (contingent reward). Also,

combinations of leadership styles (inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and MBEP) add independent information in predicting EI among law enforcement executives better than any single leadership style alone. Consequently, organizational leaders may want to place an emphasis on developing comprehensive leadership development programs that include full range leadership and EI.

The significance and social change implication is that law enforcement executives could use the results of this study to expand leadership development programs that leverage full range leadership skills and EI traits to address the new reality of American policing. For example, the U.S. Air Force incorporated transformative learning and EI into their Squadron Officer's School (SOS) training (Hammett, Hollon, & Maggard, 2012). Hammett et al.'s (2012) study included 1,213 participants who were taught using a transformative approach to EI in the U.S. Air Force leadership development program. The results of the study revealed that EI skills were positively related to leadership performance (Hammett et al., 2012).

The results of this study could affect positive social change by providing law enforcement organizations with a transformational model of EI that focuses on a person-centered approach to effective leadership development (Nelson & Low, 2011). The transformative learning of EI encourages employees to explore (self-assessment), identify (self-awareness), understand (self-knowledge), learn (self-development), and apply (self-improvement) the skills and behaviors essential for effective leadership (Nelson & Low, 2011). The transformative learning model includes an emotional learning process that

integrates self-directed coaching, relationship-focused learning (mentoring and coaching), and actively performing positive behaviors (Nelson & Low, 2011).

Conclusion

This study successfully met the purpose of the research and provided practical information for law enforcement executives and management practitioners. The general problem addressed was that full range leadership and EI traits was needed for the complex and dynamic role of law enforcement executives dealing with operational, political, and economic challenges. The research problem addressed was that literature indicates a strong relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and leadership effectiveness, as well as leadership styles and employee outcomes; however, these relationships have not been investigated among law enforcement executives. The increasingly changing organizational climate could negatively affect the safety and security of the American public. The purpose of the quantitative correlational study was to assess the relationship among leadership styles and EI. The research questions were designed to answer whether, and to what extent, correlations exist among transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles and EI. Among law enforcement executives, EI had a statistically significant relationship with all five measures of transformational leadership style and one transactional leadership style (contingent reward). There was no evidence of a relationship between EI and a laissez-faire leadership style.

Trait EI consists of emotionality, self-control, sociability, and well-being. Considering the smallest possible score for the EI score was 1.0 and the maximum

possible score was 7.0, the EI score was relatively high on average, with an average of 5.72. Considering the smallest possible score for the leadership style scores was 0.00 and the maximum possible score was 4.00, all five transformational leadership style scores and one transactional leadership style score (contingent reward) were rated above the midpoint of 2.00 on average. Among the nine leadership styles, inspirational motivation was rated highest on average, and the laissez-faire score was rated lowest on average. The significance is that law enforcement executives could use the results of this study to expand leadership development programs that leverage full range leadership skills and EI traits to address the new reality of American policing.

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Appendix A: Survey Consent Form

“The Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Styles of Law Enforcement Executives”

Dear Respondent,

You are invited to participate in a research study designed to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership styles of law enforcement executives. You were selected as a possible participant because you are an active member of the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) serving in a sworn command level position. Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before acting on this invitation to be in the study.

Gregory Campbell, doctoral candidate at Walden University, is conducting this study.

Background Information:

Continuous organizational change is one of the most critical problems facing law enforcement executives in the 21st century. The general problem is that the role of law enforcement executives is becoming more complex and dynamic, which may indicate a need for a full range of leadership and emotional intelligence traits to address the operational, political, and economic challenges of an increasingly changing organizational climate that could negatively affect the safety and security of the American public. The study looks at the new reality of policing in the 21st century from the perspectives of law enforcement executives.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to take a brief electronic survey. The survey is anonymous and takes about 25 minutes to complete.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Your participation in this study is voluntary. This means that everyone will respect your decision of whether or not you want to be in the study. If you decide to join the study now, you can still change your mind later. In the event you experience stress or anxiety during your participation in the study, you may terminate your participation at any time. You may refuse to answer any questions you consider invasive or stressful.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:

Since the study will be conducted anonymously, the risk of exposing personal identifiable information (PII) will not be an issue. There are no physical risks to you, nor is it likely that you will suffer any adverse psychological effects. Individual participants may benefit from this study to the extent that the findings provide information that is used by

law enforcement executives to address the challenges facing their agencies and implement leadership development programs that seek to improve emotional intelligence and leadership skills.

Compensation:

No compensation will be provided for your participation; however, an executive summary of the study will be available upon request.

Confidentiality:

Any information you provide will be anonymous. No one, not even the researcher, will know who participated. Research records will be kept in a password protected database; only the researcher will have access to the records. All files will be destroyed after five years from the completion of the study.

Contacts and Questions:

The researcher conducting this study is Gregory Campbell. The researcher's dissertation chairperson is Dr. Walter McCollum. If you have questions, you can contact the researcher directly. If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can contact a Walden University representative who can discuss this with you. The phone number is 1-800-925-3368, extension 1210. Walden University's approval number for this study is 01-30-12-0135112 and it expires on January 29, 2013.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information. I have asked questions and received answers. If you select the first oval below, you will be signing this form and giving your consent to take part in the current research study.

Selecting the first oval below assures the following:

I acknowledge that I understand the nature of the study, the potential risks to me as a participant and the means by which my identity will be kept confidential. My signature on this form also indicates that I am 21 years old or older and that I give my permission to voluntarily serve as a participant in the study described.

I understand the above statements and give consent for my information to be used in the study. (*Selecting this oval will take the participant to the electronic survey.*)

I understand the above statements and do NOT give consent for my information to be used in the study.

Appendix B: Demographic Questions

INSTRUCTIONS

The demographic information provided by research participants is a very important part of the questionnaire. Sometimes demographic data can help to illuminate study findings and results.

PLEASE REMEMBER responses to the questions below are strictly on a voluntary basis AND as a reminder, ALL information provided is anonymous.

1. How many years of experience do you have as a law enforcement executives in a sworn command-level position?

2. What is your area of jurisdiction?

- Municipal or local
- State
- Federal
- Military

3. What is the number of officers or agents in your department or agency?

4. Are you male or female?

- Male
- Female

5. Which category below includes your age?

- 21-29
- 30-39
- 40-49
- 50-59
- 60 or older

6. What is the highest level of school you have completed or the highest degree you have received?

- Some college but no degree
- Associate degree
- Bachelor degree
- Graduate degree

7. Race?

- White
- Black or African-American
- Asian/Pacific Islander
- Hispanic/Latino
- From multiple races

Some other race (please

specify)

Appendix C: Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Short Form (TEIQue=SF)

Instructions: Please answer each statement below by putting a circle around the number that best reflects your degree of agreement or disagreement with that statement. Do not think too long about the exact meaning of the statements. Work quickly and try to answer as accurately as possible. There is no right or wrong answers. There are seven possible responses to each statement ranging from ‘Completely Disagree’ (number 1) to ‘Completely Agree’ (number 7).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Completely Disagree **Completely Agree**

1. Expressing my emotions with words is not a problem for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I often find it difficult to see things from another person’s viewpoint.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. On the whole, I’m a highly motivated person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I generally don’t find life enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I can deal effectively with people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I tend to change my mind frequently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Many times, I can’t figure out what emotion I’m feeling.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I often find it difficult to stand up for my rights.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I’m usually able to influence the way other people feel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. On the whole, I have a gloomy perspective on most things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Those close to me often complain that I don’t treat them right.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I often find it difficult to adjust my life according to the circumstances.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. On the whole, I’m able to deal with stress.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I’m normally able to “get into someone’s shoes” and experience their emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I normally find it difficult to keep myself motivated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19. I'm usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. On the whole, I'm pleased with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I would describe myself as a good negotiator.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I often pause and think about my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I believe I'm full of personal strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I tend to "back down" even if I know I'm right.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I don't seem to have any power at all over other people's feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I generally believe that things will work out fine in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Generally, I'm able to adapt to new environments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Others admire me for being relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix D: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X)

This questionnaire is to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet.

If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word “others” may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

1. I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts..... 0 1 2 3 4
2. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate..... 0 1 2 3 4
3. I fail to interfere until problems become serious 0 1 2 3 4
4. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards..... 0 1 2 3 4
5. I avoid getting involved when important issues arise..... 0 1 2 3 4

For Dissertation and Thesis Appendices:

You cannot include an entire instrument in your thesis or dissertation, however you can use up to five sample items. Academic committees understand the requirements of copyright and are satisfied with sample items for appendices and tables. For customers needing permission to reproduce five sample items in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation the following page includes the permission form and reference information needed to satisfy the requirements of an academic committee.

Appendix E: Permission Granted to Use MLQ

Subject : Re: MGAgree: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire from Gregory Campbell (Order # Online PDF)

Date : Tue, Dec 27, 2011 01:38 PM CST

From : info@mindgarden.com

To : gregory.campbell

Gregory,

Thank you for your order and for completing the Online Use Agreement. Please feel free to proceed with your study.

Best,

Valorie Keller

Mind Garden, Inc.

Quoting gregory.campbell

> Name: Gregory Campbell

> Email address

> Phone number:

> Company/Institution: Walden University

> Order/Invoice number:

> Order Date: 12/26/2011

>

> Project Title: The Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Styles of Law Enforcement Executives

> Instrument Name: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

>

> I will compensate Mind Garden, Inc. for every use of this online form.

>

> I will put the instrument copyright on every page containing question items from this instrument.

>

> I will remove this form from online at the conclusion of my data collection.

>

> I will limit access to this online form and require a login or

> uniquely coded url. Once the login/code is used that evaluation will be closed to use.

>

> The form will not be available to the open Web.

>

> I will include info@mindgarden.com on my list of survey respondents so that Mind Garden can verify the proper use of the instrument.

>

> Method for Restricting Access:

> I will use SurveyMonkey.com to develop survey. The Internet survey will be e-mailed to participants as undisclosed recipients and

> personal information will not be recorded in the research records to ensure privacy during the data collection process.

> Electronically signed on 12/26/2011 by Gregory Campbell.

Appendix F: Permission Granted to use TEIQue-SF

Subject : **RE: Request for Permission to Use TEIQue-SF Questionnaire**

Date : Tue, Jan 17, 2012 02:17 AM CST

From : "Petrides, Dino"

To : Gregory Campbell

Dear Gregory,

Thank you for getting in touch about this. You do not need permission to use any TEIQue form for academic research. You can download all forms directly from www.psychometriclab.com You will also find there relevant research papers and documentation.

Let me know if I can help with anything else. Good luck with your very interesting and original study,

Dino

London Psychometric Laboratory (UCL)

www.psychometriclab.com

From: Gregory Campbell

Sent: Tuesday, January 17, 2012 3:13 AM

To: gregory.campbell; Petrides, Dino

Subject: Request for Permission to Use TEIQue-SF Questionnaire

Dear Dr. Petrides:

The purpose of this e-mail is to request your permission to use the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Short Form to collect data for my dissertation research project. I am a doctoral student at Walden University in the Management program specializing in leadership and organizational change. My research study will focus on the relationship between leadership styles and emotional intelligence of law enforcement executives. The problem that this study will address are the organizational changes of law enforcement executives due to operational, economic, and political challenges. The target population will consist of active members of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, which represent a cross-section of local, state, and federal law enforcement agencies in the United States. Contingent upon your approval, the TEIQue-SF will be administered electronically via www.surveymethods.com.

I would be pleased to share the results of my study with you. Should you require

additional information to render a favorable decision, please contact me.

Thank you in advance for your consideration.

Gregory Campbell

Appendix G: Frequency Tables for all Survey Questions

	N		Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
	Valid	Missing				
How many years of experience do you have as a law enforcement executives in a sworn command-level position?	132	7	14.79	8.990	1	37
What is the number of officers or agents in your department or agency?	132	7	613.87	1000.784	1	5000

What is your area of jurisdiction?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Municipal or local	74	53.2	55.6	55.6
	State	9	6.5	6.8	62.4
	Federal	49	35.3	36.8	99.2
	Military	1	.7	.8	100.0
	Total	133	95.7	100.0	
Missing	System	6	4.3		
Total		139	100.0		

What is your gender?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	119	85.6	89.5	89.5
	Female	14	10.1	10.5	100.0
	Total	133	95.7	100.0	
Missing	System	6	4.3		

What is your gender?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	119	85.6	89.5	89.5
	Female	14	10.1	10.5	100.0
	Total	133	95.7	100.0	
Missing	System	6	4.3		
Total		139	100.0		

Which category below includes your age?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	30-39	3	2.2	2.2	2.2
	40-49	43	30.9	32.1	34.3
	50-59	69	49.6	51.5	85.8
	60 or older	19	13.7	14.2	100.0
	Total	134	96.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	3.6		
Total		139	100.0		

What is the highest level of school you have completed or the highest degree you have received?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	High school or equivalent		2	1.4	1.5
	Some college but no degree		12	8.6	9.0
	Associate degree		7	5.0	5.3
	Bachelor degree		51	36.7	38.3
	Graduate degree		61	43.9	45.9
	Total		133	95.7	100.0
Missing	System		6	4.3	
Total			139	100.0	

		Race			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	White	119	85.6	89.5	89.5
	Black or African- American	9	6.5	6.8	96.2
	Asian or Pacific Islander	2	1.4	1.5	97.7
	Hispanic or Latino	2	1.4	1.5	99.2
	From multiple races	1	.7	.8	100.0
	Total	133	95.7	100.0	
Missing	System	6	4.3		
Total		139	100.0		

Expressing my emotions with words is not a problem for me.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	2	1.4	1.4	1.4
	2	2	1.4	1.4	2.9
	3	8	5.8	5.8	8.6
	4	11	7.9	7.9	16.5
	5	43	30.9	30.9	47.5
	6	45	32.4	32.4	79.9
	7	28	20.1	20.1	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

**I often find it difficult to see things from another person's
viewpoint.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	29	20.9	20.9	20.9
	2	65	46.8	46.8	67.6

	3	28	20.1	20.1	87.8
	4	8	5.8	5.8	93.5
	5	7	5.0	5.0	98.6
	6	2	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

On the whole, I'm a highly motivated person.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	1	.7	.7	.7
	3	2	1.4	1.4	2.2
	4	5	3.6	3.6	5.8
	5	21	15.1	15.1	20.9
	6	59	42.4	42.4	63.3
	7	51	36.7	36.7	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	37	26.6	26.6	26.6
	2	59	42.4	42.4	69.1
	3	27	19.4	19.4	88.5
	4	8	5.8	5.8	94.2
	5	5	3.6	3.6	97.8
	6	3	2.2	2.2	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I generally don't find life enjoyable.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	86	61.9	61.9	61.9
	2	39	28.1	28.1	89.9
	3	6	4.3	4.3	94.2
	4	3	2.2	2.2	96.4
	5	1	.7	.7	97.1
	6	3	2.2	2.2	99.3
	7	1	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I can deal effectively with people.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	1	.7	.7	.7
	4	5	3.6	3.6	4.3
	5	24	17.3	17.3	21.6
	6	69	49.6	49.6	71.2
	7	40	28.8	28.8	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I tend to change my mind frequently.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	19	13.7	13.7	13.7
	2	70	50.4	50.4	64.0
	3	31	22.3	22.3	86.3
	4	13	9.4	9.4	95.7
	5	5	3.6	3.6	99.3
	6	1	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

Many times, I can't figure out what emotion I'm feeling.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	63	45.3	45.3	45.3
	2	54	38.8	38.8	84.2
	3	9	6.5	6.5	90.6
	4	4	2.9	2.9	93.5
	5	5	3.6	3.6	97.1
	6	2	1.4	1.4	98.6
	7	2	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	1	.7	.7	.7
	4	4	2.9	2.9	3.6
	5	15	10.8	10.8	14.4
	6	55	39.6	39.6	54.0
	7	64	46.0	46.0	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I often find it difficult to stand up for my rights.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	62	44.6	44.6	44.6
	2	48	34.5	34.5	79.1
	3	11	7.9	7.9	87.1
	4	5	3.6	3.6	90.6
	5	7	5.0	5.0	95.7
	6	5	3.6	3.6	99.3
	7	1	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I'm usually able to influence the way other people feel.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	2	1.4	1.4	1.4
	2	3	2.2	2.2	3.6
	3	7	5.0	5.0	8.6
	4	26	18.7	18.7	27.3
	5	40	28.8	28.8	56.1
	6	50	36.0	36.0	92.1
	7	11	7.9	7.9	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

On the whole, I have a gloomy perspective on most things.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	91	65.5	65.5	65.5
	2	30	21.6	21.6	87.1
	3	10	7.2	7.2	94.2
	4	6	4.3	4.3	98.6
	5	2	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

Those close to me often complain that I don't treat them right.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	66	47.5	47.5	47.5
	2	53	38.1	38.1	85.6
	3	9	6.5	6.5	92.1
	4	4	2.9	2.9	95.0
	5	4	2.9	2.9	97.8
	6	2	1.4	1.4	99.3
	7	1	.7	.7	100.0

Those close to me often complain that I don't treat them right.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	66	47.5	47.5	47.5
	2	53	38.1	38.1	85.6
	3	9	6.5	6.5	92.1
	4	4	2.9	2.9	95.0
	5	4	2.9	2.9	97.8
	6	2	1.4	1.4	99.3
	7	1	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

**I often find it difficult to adjust my life according to the
circumstances.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	52	37.4	37.4	37.4
	2	69	49.6	49.6	87.1
	3	9	6.5	6.5	93.5
	4	4	2.9	2.9	96.4
	5	3	2.2	2.2	98.6
	6	1	.7	.7	99.3
	7	1	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

On the whole, I'm able to deal with stress.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	1	.7	.7	.7
	2	4	2.9	2.9	3.6
	3	8	5.8	5.8	9.4
	4	3	2.2	2.2	11.5
	5	25	18.0	18.0	29.5
	6	70	50.4	50.4	79.9
	7	28	20.1	20.1	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	42	30.2	30.2	30.2
	2	42	30.2	30.2	60.4
	3	14	10.1	10.1	70.5
	4	15	10.8	10.8	81.3
	5	16	11.5	11.5	92.8
	6	9	6.5	6.5	99.3
	7	1	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I'm normally able to "get into someone's shoes" and experience their emotions.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	3	2.2	2.2	2.2
	2	7	5.0	5.0	7.2
	3	13	9.4	9.4	16.5
	4	25	18.0	18.0	34.5

	5	51	36.7	36.7	71.2
	6	33	23.7	23.7	95.0
	7	7	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I normally find it difficult to keep myself motivated.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	54	38.8	38.8	38.8
	2	64	46.0	46.0	84.9
	3	9	6.5	6.5	91.4
	4	7	5.0	5.0	96.4
	5	5	3.6	3.6	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I'm usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	1	.7	.7	.7
	2	3	2.2	2.2	2.9
	3	7	5.0	5.0	7.9
	4	5	3.6	3.6	11.5
	5	24	17.3	17.3	28.8
	6	58	41.7	41.7	70.5
	7	41	29.5	29.5	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

On the whole, I'm pleased with my life.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	2	1	.7	.7	.7
	3	1	.7	.7	1.4
	4	5	3.6	3.6	5.0
	5	15	10.8	10.8	15.8
	6	56	40.3	40.3	56.1
	7	61	43.9	43.9	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I would describe myself as a good negotiator.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	3	2	1.4	1.4	1.4
	4	12	8.6	8.6	10.1
	5	48	34.5	34.5	44.6
	6	51	36.7	36.7	81.3
	7	26	18.7	18.7	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	17	12.2	12.2	12.2
	2	61	43.9	43.9	56.1
	3	21	15.1	15.1	71.2
	4	25	18.0	18.0	89.2
	5	12	8.6	8.6	97.8
	6	3	2.2	2.2	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I often pause and think about my feelings.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	6	4.3	4.3	4.3
	2	26	18.7	18.7	23.0
	3	19	13.7	13.7	36.7
	4	32	23.0	23.0	59.7
	5	29	20.9	20.9	80.6
	6	25	18.0	18.0	98.6
	7	2	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I believe I'm full of personal strengths.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	2	1	.7	.7	.7
	3	1	.7	.7	1.4
	4	8	5.8	5.8	7.2
	5	32	23.0	23.0	30.2
	6	65	46.8	46.8	77.0
	7	32	23.0	23.0	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I tend to "back down" even if I know I'm right.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	41	29.5	29.5	29.5
	2	63	45.3	45.3	74.8
	3	20	14.4	14.4	89.2
	4	10	7.2	7.2	96.4
	5	2	1.4	1.4	97.8
	6	3	2.2	2.2	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I don't seem to have any power at all over other people's feelings.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	21	15.1	15.1	15.1
	2	62	44.6	44.6	59.7
	3	31	22.3	22.3	82.0
	4	13	9.4	9.4	91.4
	5	6	4.3	4.3	95.7
	6	5	3.6	3.6	99.3
	7	1	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I generally believe that things will work out fine in my life.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	3	7	5.0	5.0	5.0
	4	5	3.6	3.6	8.6
	5	20	14.4	14.4	23.0
	6	59	42.4	42.4	65.5
	7	48	34.5	34.5	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	55	39.6	39.6	39.6
	2	51	36.7	36.7	76.3
	3	12	8.6	8.6	84.9
	4	11	7.9	7.9	92.8
	5	7	5.0	5.0	97.8
	6	3	2.2	2.2	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

Generally, I'm able to adapt to new environments.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	1	.7	.7	.7
	2	1	.7	.7	1.4
	3	4	2.9	2.9	4.3
	4	8	5.8	5.8	10.1
	5	23	16.5	16.5	26.6
	6	64	46.0	46.0	72.7
	7	38	27.3	27.3	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

Others admire me for being relaxed.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	3	2.2	2.2	2.2
	2	9	6.5	6.5	8.6
	3	14	10.1	10.1	18.7
	4	24	17.3	17.3	36.0
	5	32	23.0	23.0	59.0
	6	42	30.2	30.2	89.2
	7	15	10.8	10.8	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	10	7.2	7.2	7.2
	Once in a while	17	12.2	12.2	19.4
	Sometimes	71	51.1	51.1	70.5
	Fairly often	41	29.5	29.5	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	3	2.2	2.2	2.2
	Once in a while	26	18.7	18.7	20.9
	Sometimes	87	62.6	62.6	83.5
	Fairly often	23	16.5	16.5	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I fail to interfere until problems become serious.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	103	74.1	74.1	74.1
	Once in a while	29	20.9	20.9	95.0
	Sometimes	7	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	30	21.6	21.6	21.6
	Once in a while	44	31.7	31.7	53.2
	Sometimes	56	40.3	40.3	93.5
	Fairly often	9	6.5	6.5	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I avoid getting involved when important issues arise.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	134	96.4	96.4	96.4
	Once in a while	2	1.4	1.4	97.8
	Fairly often	3	2.2	2.2	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I talk about my most important values and beliefs

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	24	17.3	17.3	17.3
	Once in a while	30	21.6	21.6	38.8
	Sometimes	65	46.8	46.8	85.6
	Fairly often	20	14.4	14.4	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I am absent when needed.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	135	97.1	97.1	97.1
	Once in a while	2	1.4	1.4	98.6
	Sometimes	2	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I seek differing perspectives when solving problems.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	4	2.9	2.9	2.9
	Once in a while	6	4.3	4.3	7.2
	Sometimes	74	53.2	53.2	60.4
	Fairly often	55	39.6	39.6	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I talk optimistically about the future.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	1	.7	.7	.7
	Once in a while	14	10.1	10.1	10.8
	Sometimes	62	44.6	44.6	55.4
	Fairly often	62	44.6	44.6	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I instill pride in others for being associated with me.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	9	6.5	6.5	6.5
	Once in a while	25	18.0	18.0	24.5
	Sometimes	67	48.2	48.2	72.7
	Fairly often	38	27.3	27.3	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	6	4.3	4.3	4.3
	Once in a while	16	11.5	11.5	15.8
	Sometimes	67	48.2	48.2	64.0
	Fairly often	50	36.0	36.0	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I wait for things to go wrong before taking action.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	133	95.7	95.7	95.7
	Once in a while	6	4.3	4.3	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	3	2.2	2.2	2.2
	Once in a while	7	5.0	5.0	7.2
	Sometimes	73	52.5	52.5	59.7
	Fairly often	56	40.3	40.3	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	6	4.3	4.3	4.3
	Once in a while	13	9.4	9.4	13.7
	Sometimes	71	51.1	51.1	64.7
	Fairly often	49	35.3	35.3	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I spend time teaching and coaching.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	5	3.6	3.6	3.6
	Once in a while	16	11.5	11.5	15.1
	Sometimes	78	56.1	56.1	71.2
	Fairly often	40	28.8	28.8	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

**I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals
are achieved.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	6	4.3	4.3	4.3
	Once in a while	22	15.8	15.8	20.1
	Sometimes	77	55.4	55.4	75.5
	Fairly often	34	24.5	24.5	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I show that I am a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	75	54.0	54.0	54.0
	Once in a while	42	30.2	30.2	84.2
	Sometimes	12	8.6	8.6	92.8
	Fairly often	10	7.2	7.2	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	1	.7	.7	.7
	Once in a while	11	7.9	7.9	8.6
	Sometimes	67	48.2	48.2	56.8
	Fairly often	60	43.2	43.2	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Not at all	2	1.4	1.4	1.4
Once in a while	7	5.0	5.0	6.5
Sometimes	70	50.4	50.4	56.8
Fairly often	60	43.2	43.2	100.0
Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Not at all	132	95.0	95.0	95.0
Once in a while	7	5.0	5.0	100.0
Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I act in ways that build others' respect for me.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Not at all	4	2.9	2.9	2.9
Once in a while	8	5.8	5.8	8.6
Sometimes	80	57.6	57.6	66.2
Fairly often	47	33.8	33.8	100.0
Total	139	100.0	100.0	

**I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints,
and failures.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	68	48.9	48.9	48.9
	Once in a while	43	30.9	30.9	79.9
	Sometimes	25	18.0	18.0	97.8
	Fairly often	3	2.2	2.2	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	2	1.4	1.4	1.4
	Once in a while	2	1.4	1.4	2.9
	Sometimes	43	30.9	30.9	33.8
	Fairly often	92	66.2	66.2	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I keep track of all mistakes.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	71	51.1	51.1	51.1
	Once in a while	40	28.8	28.8	79.9
	Sometimes	26	18.7	18.7	98.6
	Fairly often	2	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I display a sense of power and confidence.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	4	2.9	2.9	2.9
	Once in a while	27	19.4	19.4	22.3
	Sometimes	66	47.5	47.5	69.8
	Fairly often	42	30.2	30.2	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I articulate a compelling vision of the future.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	3	2.2	2.2	2.2
	Once in a while	23	16.5	16.5	18.7
	Sometimes	78	56.1	56.1	74.8
	Fairly often	35	25.2	25.2	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	80	57.6	57.6	57.6
	Once in a while	35	25.2	25.2	82.7
	Sometimes	24	17.3	17.3	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I avoid making decisions.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	136	97.8	97.8	97.8
	Once in a while	3	2.2	2.2	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	4	2.9	2.9	2.9
	Once in a while	13	9.4	9.4	12.2
	Sometimes	66	47.5	47.5	59.7
	Fairly often	56	40.3	40.3	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I get others to look at problems from many different angles.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	1	.7	.7	.7
	Once in a while	19	13.7	13.7	14.4
	Sometimes	87	62.6	62.6	77.0
	Fairly often	32	23.0	23.0	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I help others to develop their strengths.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	1	.7	.7	.7
	Once in a while	9	6.5	6.5	7.2
	Sometimes	85	61.2	61.2	68.3
	Fairly often	44	31.7	31.7	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	2	1.4	1.4	1.4
	Once in a while	24	17.3	17.3	18.7
	Sometimes	75	54.0	54.0	72.7
	Fairly often	38	27.3	27.3	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I delay responding to urgent questions.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	128	92.1	92.1	92.1
	Once in a while	8	5.8	5.8	97.8
	Sometimes	1	.7	.7	98.6
	Fairly often	2	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	2	1.4	1.4	1.4
	Once in a while	10	7.2	7.2	8.6
	Sometimes	73	52.5	52.5	61.2
	Fairly often	54	38.8	38.8	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I express satisfaction when others meet expectations.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Once in a while	5	3.6	3.6	3.6
	Sometimes	50	36.0	36.0	39.6
	Fairly often	84	60.4	60.4	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I express confidence that goals will be achieved.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	1	.7	.7	.7
	Once in a while	4	2.9	2.9	3.6
	Sometimes	76	54.7	54.7	58.3
	Fairly often	58	41.7	41.7	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Once in a while	9	6.5	6.5	6.5
	Sometimes	94	67.6	67.6	74.1
	Fairly often	36	25.9	25.9	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I use methods of leadership that are satisfying.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	3	2.2	2.2	2.2
	Once in a while	3	2.2	2.2	4.3
	Sometimes	84	60.4	60.4	64.7
	Fairly often	49	35.3	35.3	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I get others to do more than they expected to do.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	3	2.2	2.2	2.2
	Once in a while	28	20.1	20.1	22.3
	Sometimes	85	61.2	61.2	83.5
	Fairly often	23	16.5	16.5	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I am effective in representing others to higher authority.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Once in a while	7	5.0	5.0	5.0
	Sometimes	68	48.9	48.9	54.0
	Fairly often	64	46.0	46.0	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I work with others in a satisfactory way.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Once in a while	2	1.4	1.4	1.4
	Sometimes	68	48.9	48.9	50.4
	Fairly often	69	49.6	49.6	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I heighten others' desire to succeed.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	2	1.4	1.4	1.4
	Once in a while	16	11.5	11.5	12.9
	Sometimes	89	64.0	64.0	77.0
	Fairly often	32	23.0	23.0	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I am effective in meeting organizational requirements.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Sometimes	54	38.8	38.8	38.8
	Fairly often	85	61.2	61.2	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I increase others' willingness to try harder.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	1	.7	.7	.7
	Once in a while	19	13.7	13.7	14.4
	Sometimes	89	64.0	64.0	78.4
	Fairly often	30	21.6	21.6	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

I lead a group that is effective.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Once in a while	6	4.3	4.3	4.3
	Sometimes	50	36.0	36.0	40.3
	Fairly often	83	59.7	59.7	100.0
	Total	139	100.0	100.0	

Curriculum Vitae

**Curriculum Vitae
Gregory Campbell Jr.**

SUMMARY OF QUALIFICATIONS

Exceptional Leader, Planner and Organizer with over 20 years of demonstrated success in federal law enforcement [U.S. Postal Inspection Service (USPIS) and U.S. Pretrial Services Officer] and leadership capacities conducting, supervising, and managing criminal investigations. Documented success in improving customer relationship management. Highly skilled in training, mentoring, coaching, and developing teams. Transformational leader that applies strong intuitive and strategic skills to develop/implement new programs that enhance and improve existing procedures. Creates, facilitates, and manages effective workforces. Plans and leads nationally coordinated high-impact, high-profile, law enforcement, and public service initiatives. Builds strong partnerships with other governmental, non-governmental, and public sector entities and for the past 15 years. I am a Subject Matter Expert in International Organized Crime and Financial Crimes and have conducted training seminars, presentations, and conferences. Serve as Lead Peer Mentor to 21 students at Walden University, PhD and DBA programs. For the past three years, served as adjunct faculty member at Strayer University. Currently serves on the Board of Advisors for the Economic Crimes Institute, Utica College, New York. Certified in Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Intelligence Learning Systems.

SYNOPSIS OF ACCOMPLISHMENTS

- Senior law enforcement executive with management responsibility of nine Field Divisions, which are located in Seattle, San Francisco, Los Angeles, Phoenix, Denver, Dallas, Houston, Chicago, and Detroit. Personnel and operating budget of over 365 million.
- Advisory Board Member, the Center for Identity Management and Information Protection (CIMIP). A research collaborative dedicated to furthering a national research agenda on identity management, information sharing, identity theft and data protection.
- For the past 6 years, I have led the Corporate Succession Plan to identify and develop future executives of the United States Postal Inspection Service, which involves workforce strategy, talent acquisition, leadership development, performance management, and succession planning.

- Currently Executive Liaison for the USPIS Corporate Succession Planning and Executive Resource Board.
 - I conducted professional presentations, seminars, and workshops on various law enforcement topics for the USPS, USPIS, California Narcotics Officer Association (CNOA), International Association of Financial Crimes Investigators (IAFCI), National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives (NOBLE), Financial Industry and Mail Security Industry (FIMSI), National Postal Forum, Europol, and other organizations.
 - As the subject matter expert, I conducted professional presentations, seminars, and workshops in Nigeria, Ghana, United Kingdom, Netherlands, and the U.S. related to Nigerian Fraud and Financial Crimes.
 - Led the Global Counterfeit Initiative (GCI), which resulted in the largest seizure of counterfeit checks and money orders in Postal Inspection Service history. I coordinated the efforts of more than 200 postal inspectors and international law enforcement from four countries- Canada, Nigeria, United Kingdom and the Netherlands and other U.S. law enforcement agencies, resulting in more than 540,000 counterfeit checks and money orders seized through the initiative with a value over 2.1 billion dollars.
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EDUCATION

Walden University- currently enrolled to obtain a Ph.D. in Management, specializing in Leadership and Organizational Change, expected completion May 2012 (Dissertation in final approval phases).

Master of Arts in Behavioral Science- Negotiation and Conflict Management, California State University of Dominguez Hills, Carson, CA, May 1994

Bachelor of Arts in Sociology, California State University of Dominguez Hills, Carson, CA, December 1990

PROFESIONAL EXPERIENCE

**Deputy Chief Inspector
Western Field Offices**

**May 2009 – Present
Washington, DC**

- Management responsibility of nine Field Divisions, which are located in Seattle, San Francisco, Los Angeles, Phoenix, Denver, Dallas, Houston, Chicago, and Detroit.
- Provide strategic planning, program guidance and policy interpretation for all criminal and security programs, to include Mail Theft, Fraud, Violent Crimes, Dangerous Mail Investigations, and Child Exploitation.

- Develop and lead national strategies to support and protect the United States Postal Service.

**Adjunct Faculty
Strayer University**

**2009 – Present
Ashburn, VA**

- Provided instruction for various criminal justice courses, including (a) Crime and Criminal Behavior: examines the historical development of social and behavior explanations of adult crime, as well as juvenile crime and new evolutions in crime, including cyber crimes; (b) Introduction to Criminal Justice: introduces students to the components and operations of the criminal justice system, such as law enforcement, the courts, and corrections; and (c) Juvenile Delinquency and Justice: examines the criminal activity of juveniles and includes the study of gangs, status offenses, and the problems facing juveniles today, such as the causes of juvenile crime, the juvenile court system, the institutionalization, rehabilitation, and treatment of juveniles.
- Provided advising and mentoring to students.

**Inspector in Charge
Washington Division**

**March 2008 – May 2009
Columbia, MD**

- Led day-to-day management of Inspectors; Postal Police; and professional, technical, and administrative support staff in Virginia, Maryland, and District of Columbia.
- Provided program guidance and policy interpretation for Mail Theft, Fraud, Violent Crimes, Dangerous Mail Investigations, and Child Exploitation.
- Developed and coordinated training of division personnel and budget.
- Developed and led division strategies to support and protect the United States Postal Service.

**Inspector in Charge
Global Investigations Division**

**April 2007 – March 2008
Arlington, VA**

- Established a new Global Investigations Division to align the Inspection Service to support of the Postal Service Global Business organization.
- Managerial responsibility to monitor and aggressively investigate international crime trends that could have a significant impact on the Postal Service, its products/services, and its customers.
- Led Global initiatives to promote consumer awareness and prevention against crimes committed via the illegal use of the mail. Including the following responsibilities:
 - Developed centralization and standardization for international investigations.
 - Work closely with foreign law enforcement, post, and customs to protect USPS Global products from criminal misuse.

- I coordinated efforts to reduce the illegal use of the U. S. Mails by foreign national to conduct payment technology and e-commerce fraud.
- Conducted intelligence lead policing operations against criminals stealing mail destined for military troops overseas by working with Military Postal Service Agency (MPSA).

**Inspector in Charge
Detroit Division**

**April 2005 – April 2007
Detroit, MI**

- Led day-to-day management of Inspectors; Postal Police; and professional, technical, and administrative support staff in Michigan and Indiana.
- Provided program guidance and policy interpretation for Mail Theft, Fraud, Violent Crimes, Dangerous Mail Investigations, and Child Exploitation.
- Developed and coordinated training of division personnel and budget.
- Developed and led division strategies to support and protect the United States Postal Service.

ACADEMIC ONLINE INSTRUCTION

Serve as a Lead Peer mentor to 21 doctoral students at Walden University from 2010 to present in the College of Management and Technology. Utilize E-college and Live Meeting technology media to manage weekly teleconference and student research presentations. Review learning agreements and assist students with writing knowledge area modules (KAM). Provide students with guidance and support in the areas of time management; creating a strategic approach to completing the doctoral program; decomposing long-term goals into intermediate objectives and milestones; and identifying and optimizing resources. Assist faculty mentor with the development of best practices that cultivate an online learning community that engenders student-centeredness, collaboration, and positive social change.

RESEARCH INTERESTS

Interrelationships between leadership, emotional intelligence, organizational change, and organizational culture in organizations. Impact of mentorship and career development on succession planning within private and public organizations. Impact of Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) on military reservist, including law enforcement officers.

Research Methodology

Analyzed the theoretical underpinnings of quantitative and qualitative research methodologies to gain greater understanding of philosophical tenets and practical techniques. Demonstrated ability to apply quantitative techniques to design and execute doctoral research.

Statistical Analysis- Quantitative Analysis

Formulated hypotheses and performed statistical procedures inclusive of random sampling, correlation and regression analyses. Familiar with qualitative analysis.

Presentations and Publications

Contributing author in *Breakthrough Mentoring in the 21st Century* by Dr. Walter McCollum, 2011, McCollum Enterprises, Fort Washington: MD.

Panelist on *The Challenges in Law Enforcement* at Mount St. Mary University, 8th Annual Delaney Lecture sponsored by the Criminal Justice Student Association, March 7, 2012.

Proposal accepted for presentation at the 12th International Conference on Knowledge, Culture, and Change in Organizations, Chicago, IL, July 2012.

TRAINING, CERTIFICATION AND SKILLS

Certified in Homeland Security (CHS) - CHS Level 3 Certified Executive Liaison of the USPIS Corporate

Certified in Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Intelligence Learning Systems

Member of Sigma Iota Epsilon (SIE), the premiere fraternal organization in management in the United States. Succession Planning Program-Executive Development

American Society for Industrial Security, Protection Professional Certification in progress

International Association of Bomb Technicians and Investigators (IABTI)

International Association of Chief of Police (IACP)

International Association of Financial Crime Investigators (IAFCI)

National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives (NOBLE)

PC, Internet Savvy, MS Windows, MS Word, MS Excel, MS PowerPoint, MS

Publisher, MS Works.