

2017

Relationship between leadership styles, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance

Mojgan Seyedsafi
Walden University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations>

 Part of the [Business Commons](#)

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies Collection at ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu.

Walden University

College of Management and Technology

This is to certify that the doctoral study by

Mojgan Seyedsafi

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee

Dr. Mohamad Hammoud, Committee Chairperson, Doctor of Business Administration
Faculty

Dr. Charlotte Carlstrom, Committee Member, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Dr. Judith Blando, University Reviewer, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2017

Abstract

Relationship Between Leadership Styles, Emotional Intelligence, and Project Manager
Performance

by

Mojgan Seyedsafi

MS, Capella University, 2009

MBA, Strayer University, 2004

BS, Strayer University, 2002

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

Walden University

August 2017

Abstract

Project success rate declined from 62% in 2012 to 60% in 2015 despite advances in methods and tools. Project managers need emotional intelligence and leadership style to reduce the risk of project failure. Successful projects are assets to the organization and to the whole community. The purpose of this correlational study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance. Project managers from different industries in the states of Virginia and Maryland, and the District of Columbia were administered the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Self-Report of Emotional Intelligence, and Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scales questionnaires. The results of the multiple linear regression analysis indicated the full model (nine predictors) significantly predict project manager performance, $F(9, 92) = 8.330, p = .002, R^2 = .449$. The R^2 value (.449) indicated approximately 45% of the variance in project manager performance was accounted for by the linear combination of the predictor variables. Inspirational motivation was the only significant contributor to the model ($t = 3.213, \beta = 3.959, p = .002$). The result indicated that project manager performance tends to increase as inspirational motivation increases. The results of this study may have implications for positive social change include the potential for business leaders to enhance project manager performance through employing inspirational, motivational, and charismatic leadership techniques. Business leaders who improve project managers' performance increase the propensity of organizational success. Successful organizations are sources of economic growth which reduces poverty and improves the quality of life.

Relationship Between Leadership Styles, Emotional Intelligence, and Project Manager

Performance

by

Mojgan Seyedsafi

MS, Capella University, 2009

MBA, Strayer University, 2004

BS, Strayer University, 2002

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

August 2017

Dedication

I would never have completed this doctoral study without the grace, help, and strength of my spiritual leader, Merwan Sheriar Irani. Without him in my life, I would not, could not, have completed this work. To him, I remain forever thankful.

I dedicate this dissertation to my dear husband. My husband provided the source of inspiration, drive, and emotional support. I dedicate this dissertation to my beloved father, and mother; thank you for your sacrifices, love, encouragement, and support. I would never have been able to reach this level of academic achievement without the values they encouraged. I also dedicate this doctoral study to my brothers and sister. They have supported me throughout this journey to attain my doctoral degree. I can never adequately express how much I valued your words and inspiration, prayers, and telephone calls that were always on time to keep me encouraged and moving toward the end of this journey. Finally, I dedicate this doctoral study to my friend, Ms. Patricia Frank, who encouraged my inquisitive and independent nature and supported my passion for learning and knowledge.

Acknowledgments

I express my sincere gratitude to my committee chair and faculty mentor, Dr. Mohamad Saleh Hammoud, for his continuous leadership, support, patience, and guidance throughout this journey. My sincere appreciation also goes to my other committee member, Dr. Charlotte Carlstrom, for constantly ensuring strict adherence to the rubrics. I express my deep appreciation to Dr. Freda Turner for always providing encouraging words, especially when I needed them the most.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	v
List of Figures	vi
Section 1: Foundation of the Study.....	1
Background of the Problem	1
Problem Statement	2
Purpose Statement.....	3
Nature of the Study	4
Research Question	5
Hypotheses	5
Theoretical Framework.....	6
Emotional Intelligence Theory	6
Transformational Leadership Theory	6
Operational Definitions.....	7
Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations.....	7
Assumptions.....	7
Limitations	8
Delimitations.....	8
Significance of the Study	9
Contribution to Business Practice.....	9
Implications for Social Change.....	10
A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature.....	11

Strategy for Searching the Literature	12
Emotional Intelligence Theory	13
Salovey and Mayer’s Ability-Based Model.....	14
Bar-On’s Model of Emotional-Social Intelligence	16
Goleman’s Mixed-Method Model	16
Critique of Emotional Intelligence Models.....	19
Leadership.....	19
Servant Leadership.....	21
Transactional Leadership	22
Transformational Leadership	23
Effects of Leadership Styles	28
Emotional Intelligence and Leadership	30
Project Management	31
Project Management and Change	33
Leadership in Project Management	35
Emotional Intelligence, Transformational Leadership, and Project Management.....	37
Emotional Intelligence Training	38
Project Success.....	39
Transition and Summary.....	41
Section 2: The Project.....	43
Purpose Statement.....	43

Role of the Researcher	44
Participants.....	45
Research Method and Design	46
Research Method	47
Research Design.....	48
Population and Sampling	50
Ethical Research.....	51
Instrumentation	53
Schutte’s Self-Report of Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT).....	53
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ).....	55
Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scales (BARS)	59
Data Collection Technique	62
Data Analysis	64
Multiple Linear Regression.....	65
Assumptions.....	67
Outliers.....	68
Linearity	68
Multicollinearity	68
Normality	69
Homoscedasticity	69
Combatting Possible Influence of Assumption Violations.....	69
Study Validity	71

Transition and Summary.....	73
Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change.....	74
Introduction.....	74
Presentation of the Findings.....	74
Tests of Assumptions.....	74
Inferential Results.....	77
Applications to Professional Practice.....	82
Implication for Social Change.....	83
Recommendation for Action.....	84
Recommendations for Further Research.....	85
Reflections.....	86
Conclusions.....	87
References.....	88
Appendix E: SSEIT.....	123
Appendix F: MLQ.....	126
Appendix G: Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scale (BARS) for Measuring Performance.....	127

List of Tables

Table 1. Means and Standard Deviations for Study Variables 77

Table 2. Regression Analysis Summary for Predictor Variables 79

List of Figures

Figure 1. Power as a function of sample size.....	51
Figure 2. Normal Probability Plot (P-P) of the Regression Standardized Residuals.....	76
Figure 3. Scatterplot of the Standardized Residuals	76

Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Projects in the project management profession can fail, despite advances in methods and tools (Anantatmula, 2010). Considering the four constraints of time, scope, cost, and quality was not sufficient for project management success (Nixon, Harrington, & Parker, 2012). In the 21st century, the human element of project management warrants serious consideration as a critical factor of the project manager's role and its link to project management success (Lindgren, Packendorff, & Sergi, 2014; Nixon et al., 2012).

A project manager's leadership style is a supplement to existing success factors (Cserhati & Szabo, 2014; Mir & Pinnington, 2014; Yang, Huan, & Hsu, 2014). Emotional intelligence is beneficial to improve a project manager's performance, which could in turn reduce project failures (Creasy & Anantatmula, 2013; Metcalf & Benn, 2013). Emotional intelligence provides leaders with the ability to understand their own feelings and those of others, which facilitates building trust and commitment (Goleman, 2011). Project managers who are adept at transformational leadership become change agents and leaders and can inspire trust and gain commitment to project objectives (Wisker & Poulis, 2014). In this study, I determined the relationships between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance.

Background of the Problem

The globalization and increasing diversity of workforces requires a need to develop emotional intelligence leadership skills and competencies (Lindgren, Packendorff, & Sergi, 2014). The organizational setting, as characterized by the dynamic

and complex nature of projects, indicates a need for project managers to be more effective (Creasy & Anantatmula, 2013). Bass and Avolio (1995) tested the new paradigm of transformational and transactional leadership and studied the relation between project managers' leadership styles and emotional intelligence, including the behaviors that stimulate and motivate followers. According to the Project Management Institute (PMI, 2013), many tools and techniques are available for managing projects; understanding and applying the knowledge, tools, and techniques, known as good practice, is not sufficient for effective project management (Lindgren, Packendroff, & Sergi, 2014). Other skills and competencies, such as emotional intelligence and leadership style, are required in the project manager's role to reduce the risk of project failure (Creasy & Anantatmula, 2013; Parke, Seo, & Sherf, 2015).

A manager should have a leadership role that focuses on motivating people and creating an effective working environment (Anantatmula, 2010). Anantatmula (2010) reviewed the literature on leadership from the early 20th century forward, finding that project managers have an important leadership role to create an effective team and project environment. Leadership competence and style do not relate directly to project success; but they are essential for project performance (Anantatmula, 2010). In contrast, the competence of project managers, including leadership style, has an effect on project success (Muller & Marinsuo, 2015).

Problem Statement

Hornstein (2015) estimated that 70% of projects do not end in the desired results. The project success rate declined from 62% in 2012 to 60% in 2015 (PMI, 2013; Serrador

& Turner, 2015). The role of the project manager is essential for the success or failure of projects (Muller & Martinsuo, 2015). The general business problem was that no method was available to identify and improve project manager leadership ability (Mazur, Pisarski, Chang, & Ashkanasy, 2014). The specific business problem was that some business leaders did not know the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance. A total of 10 predictor variables were used. The five transformational leadership predictor variables were idealized behavior, idealized attribute, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. The three transactional leadership predictor variables were contingent reward, management by exception active, and management by exception passive. Passive avoidant leadership and emotional intelligence were the final two predictors. The criterion variable was project manager performance. The targeted population consisted of project managers from different industries in the states of Virginia and Maryland, and the District of Columbia. This information could provide business leaders with a better understanding of the role of emotional intelligence and leadership to improve project managers' performance. Improving project managers' performance increases the chances of success of their

organizations. Successful organizations are sources of economic development, quality of work life balance, social security, and employment. Economic growth is the most powerful instrument for reducing poverty and improving the quality of life (Callier, 2013).

Nature of the Study

I employed a quantitative method in this study to determine the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance. Quantitative researchers focus on examining how outcomes influence the variables by using experiments and surveys, while the focus of the qualitative method is on identifying behaviors and attitudes of subjects when variables are unknown (Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2013; Hyett, Kenny, & Dickson-Swift, 2014). Qualitative researchers discover phenomena in an inductive way (Bernard, 2013; Gioia, Corley, & Hamilton, 2013). In mixed-methods research, a researcher combines the analysis of numerical and narrative data; this approach is most useful when either quantitative or qualitative methods provide insufficient information (Bernard, 2013). Qualitative studies require more time and resources than quantitative studies (Lewis, 2015). In quantitative research, a researcher tests a theory by examining the relationship between variables (Yardley & Bishop, 2015). Mixed-methods research combines both qualitative and quantitative forms; researchers use the mixed method approach to interpret data objectively and subjectively (Yardley & Bishop, 2015).

A correlational design may determine the relationships between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance. When a researcher tries to determine the relationship between two or more quantifiable variables, a correlational study is the most appropriate design (Yardley & Bishop, 2015). Two of the most commonly used quantitative research designs are the experimental and associational approaches (Yardley & Bishop, 2015). The design of this study was nonexperimental and correlational. Nonexperimental designs are best for describing and predicting behaviors and relationships (Bernard, 2013). Based on the purpose of the study to determine a relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance and the objective of evaluating relationships between two or more variables, a correlational design was appropriate.

Research Question

What is the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance?

Hypotheses

To answer the research question, I tested the following hypotheses:

H_0 : There is no statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance.

H_a : There is a statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance.

Theoretical Framework

Emotional Intelligence Theory

The ability model of emotional intelligence theory developed by Mayer and Salovey (1997) is the theoretical framework in this study. According to Mayer and Salovey, emotional intelligence comprises appraisal of emotion in self and others, expression of emotion, regulation of emotion in self and others, and the use of emotion in solving problems. Emotional intelligence is a factor that influences leader effectiveness (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Because the goal was to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence, leadership styles, and effective performance of project managers, the alignment of this theory to the specific research area was essential to the study.

Transformational Leadership Theory

Burns developed the transformational leadership theory in 1978 (Burns, 2010). Bass extended Burns' theory to include other components beyond the transformational and transactional concept that Burns described (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Bass and Riggio (2006) categorized transformational leadership into four components: (a) idealized influences, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individual consideration. A benefit of this leadership style is that it influences employee motivation and behavior (Tebeian, 2012). Because project managers are responsible for guiding the project team through effective leadership, transformational leadership theory aligns with

the business problem to identify leadership styles that affects project manager performance.

Operational Definitions

Emotional intelligence: Emotional intelligence is the ability to understand a person's own feelings and those of others, to self-motivate, and to manage personal emotions well and in relationships (Goleman, 2011).

Project management: Project management is the application of knowledge, skills, tools, and techniques to meet the project requirements (PMI, 2013).

Servant leadership: A leader who desires to serve followers regarding motivation and inspiration to achieve goals is a servant leader (Goh & Low, 2014; Guillaume, Honeycutt, & Savage-Austin, 2013).

Transformational leadership: A leader who involves inspiring followers to commit to a shared vision and goals for an organization or unit, and developing followers' leadership capacity via coaching, mentoring, and through challenge and support (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Transactional leadership: Transactional leadership involves an exchange between leaders and follower and occurs when a leader offers a reward in exchange for effort with emphasis on behavior and success (Bass, 1985).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

Assumptions in a study are factors out of a researcher's control; without them, the research problem could not exist (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). For instance, a researcher will

assume that participants will answer the interview questions or survey questions truthfully (Fan, 2013). The following assumptions provided the foundation of this study. The first assumption was that all study participants would answer the survey questions honestly. The second assumption was that all study participants would understand the questions on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), Schutte's Self-Report of Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT), and Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scales (BARS).

Limitations

Limitations are potential weaknesses in research studies out of a researcher's control (Connelly, 2013). Limitations exist in every study; but, a researcher needs to address them properly. Properly addressed limitations do not reduce the value of a study (Bernard, 2013). Every aspect of a research has limitations (Connelly, 2013).

The first limitation was that the population was not descriptive of the total population of project managers in the United States. Another limitation was that the study would include only private and public sector project managers from selected professional groups on SurveyMonkey. The use of this site excluded many qualified and experience project management practitioners as not all project management practitioners were members of these groups. The last limitation was the convenience sampling method that would target participants selected from cases, associations, or organizations conveniently available (Young & Temple, 2014).

Delimitations

Delimitations are characteristics that limit the scope of the research (Locke, Spirduso, & Silverman, 2014). A researcher has control over delimitations because of the

choice of the research questions, variables, population, and sampling (Locke et al., 2014). The delimitation of this study was location. Using SurveyMonkey Audience enabled adequate delimitation of the target participants for this study to SurveyMonkey participants. I used SurveyMonkey Audience to gain access to only full-time project managers within the states of Virginia and Maryland and the District of Columbia, thus limiting the participant pool so as not to include all project managers in the United States.

Significance of the Study

The findings from this study might be useful to business leaders to design emotional intelligence and leadership training programs for project managers. This study represented an important soft skill tool for project managers to understand their own emotional intelligence, personality strengths, and weaknesses, which result in a more effective team.

Contribution to Business Practice

The role of a competent project manager is essential to the success of projects in organizations (Metcalf & Benn, 2013; Morris, 2014). Given that a project manager leads people to accomplish successful project results (Muller & Martinsuo, 2015), emotional intelligence might influence project manager and project team behavior (Vidyarthi, Anand, & Linden, 2014). A project manager's emotional intelligence competencies may contribute to project success (Muller & Martinsuo, 2015). Many projects fail because of a lack of emotional intelligence competencies and soft skills in project managers (Lindgren, Packendroff, & Sergi, 2014).

Previous researchers have identified the need to explore the potential positive effects of emotional intelligence and leadership styles (Awadzi Calloway, 2010; Lindgren, Packendroff, & Sergi, 2014; Tessema, 2010). Identifying the relationship between leadership styles and emotional intelligence may be a first step to determine the content of emotional intelligence and leadership training courses to improve project manager leadership and soft skills (Tessema, 2010; van der Hoorn & Whitty, 2015). My intent as a researcher was to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence, leadership styles, and effective performance among project management. A proficient project manager can use his or her emotional intelligence and leadership skills to expand project-based knowledge as well as to develop business practices, which may increase the potential for sustainable social change.

Implications for Social Change

The results of this study may provide positive social change through improving employee morale, productivity, and leadership effectiveness, and by helping project managers develop the necessary skills for managing projects and achieving project success. Project managers who have enough information concerning the relationships between their emotional intelligence, leadership styles, and effective performance can use this information to acquire additional skills to improve their performance and reduce their stress. A better performance increases the chances of success. Successful projects are assets to the organization and to the whole community. A successful organization can make a positive impact on society by providing jobs, making capital investment, and increasing the quality of life for the community. Less-stressed project managers benefit

from family well-being and increased participation in social events. The success or failure in projects may indicate the increased competitive sustainability of the business, technological maturity, and stable economic environment (Tessema, 2010).

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the relationships between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance. In this study, I assessed the research question and addressed the hypotheses. The literature review had four themes: emotional intelligence theories, Salovey and Mayer's emotional intelligence, leadership styles, and performance of project managers. Salovey and Mayer's emotional intelligence and Bass's transformational leadership theory provided the theoretical foundation for this study. The objective of this literature review was to discover prior research about the study subject. The literature review provided a background of the study and explained earlier researchers' thoughts on the subject of the study, showed correlations and contradictions, identifies gaps in the research, and determined further research to fill the gaps.

The review of literature included the following topics: (a) emotional intelligence, (b) transformational leadership styles, (c) the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership, (d) leadership training for project managers, (e) emotional intelligence training for project managers, (f) performance of project managers, and (g) the importance of leadership and emotional intelligence in project management. Goleman (1995) stated that emotionally intelligent leaders develop an

environment that encourages trust, confidence, and empathy. Researchers developed such theories as emotional intelligence, leadership behavior, and performance models of project managers to assist organizations to act faster, better, and more efficiently. The foundation of the literature review was a general view of the dependency and complementary nature of the theories and models developed to integrate transformational leadership and emotional intelligence in project management.

Strategy for Searching the Literature

The professional and academic literature covered throughout this literature review came from peer-reviewed journals and articles, books, websites, dissertations, and other research documents from Walden University's Library databases: EBSCOhost, ProQuest, ABI/Inform, Business Source Complete; Google Scholar, the Academy of Management, Emerald Management Journals, and the PMI. Database searches included the following terms and key words: *emotional intelligence*, *emotional aptitude*, *intelligence quotient*, *leadership theory*, *transactional leadership*, *transformational leadership*, *servant leadership*, *project management*, *project management success*, and *project failure*. Of the 254 references in this study, 222 (87%) are no older than 5 years. While some of the older references provide the background framework of the study, 222 (87%) of the references were peer-reviewed and published within 5 years of my anticipated graduation date.

The fundamental objective of this literature review was to provide a complete assessment of the interrelationships, dependencies, and complementary natures of the theories and models developed to improve the management of people and performance in

organizational work. Through this literature review, I planned to examine how organizational leaders can further incorporate new concepts as an emerging style for transformational leadership in project management.

Emotional Intelligence Theory

The theoretical framework guiding this study was the ability model of emotional intelligence theory developed by Mayer and Salovey in 1997. According to Mayer and Salovey (1997), emotional intelligence comprises appraisal of emotion in self and others, expression of emotion, regulation of emotion in self and others, and the use of emotion in solving problems. Emotional intelligence influences leader effectiveness (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Emotional intelligence, albeit a phenomenon and relatively new subject of study, has its roots in Darwinian times (Wisker & Poulis, 2014). In the early 20th century, Darwin proposed that emotional expression was necessary for survival (Wisker & Poulis, 2014). Scientists conducted studies to discover why standard intelligence was not sufficient to predict performance in an individual (Vidyarthi, Anand, & Linden, 2014). They discovered that noncognitive aspects of intelligence also existed. Emotional intelligence is a type of social intelligence that relates to managing and understanding others (Cherry, Fletcher, & O'Sullivan, 2013). Wechsler (1940) developed the concept of noncognitive intelligence by arguing that no full definition of intelligence could exist until researchers were able to define fully those aspects not related to traditionally measured cognitive skills.

Cognitive intelligence was not the only type of intelligence, according to the theory of multiple intelligences (Gardner, 2011). Two other types of intelligence were intrapersonal and interpersonal (Gardner, 2011). Payne used the term *emotional intelligence* in an unpublished doctoral dissertation (Gardner, 2011). The cognitive intelligence had become rich with different models of emotional intelligence (Gardner, 2011).

Salovey and Mayer (1990) expanded the term emotional intelligence, defining it as the division of social intelligence that included the ability to monitor one's emotions and feelings, and the feelings of others, to classify them, and used this information to guide thinking and actions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Building on the work of Salovey and Mayer, Bar-On (1997) extended the definition further, arguing that it includes multiple capabilities. Goleman (1995) introduced the mixed model of emotional intelligence.

Salovey and Mayer's Ability-Based Model

Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model of emotional intelligence is an ability model. Emotional intelligence is the ability to recognize emotion, combine emotion to help interact with thought, understand emotion, and regulate emotion to promote personal growth (Grunes, Gudmudson, & Irmien, 2013; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Emotions typically arise in response to an event, internal or external, that has a positive or negative meaning for the individual (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Salovey and Mayer (1997) proposed the following four types of emotional abilities.

Identifying emotions. An individual has the ability to recognize his or her own emotions and to understand the emotions expressed in faces, voices, and pictures. To communicate effectively with others, people need to recognize emotions in others and convey and express emotions correctly.

Using emotions. Someone with high emotional intelligence can use his or her emotions to help think through a situation and solve problems. People's feelings influence how and about what they think. Emotions can direct attention to important events, prepare an individual for each action, guide thought processes, and assist in solving problems.

Understanding emotion. Individuals have the ability to perceive shades of emotion and the way different emotions interact with each other. Emotions can change according to a set of rules. Knowledge of emotions reflects vocabulary and the ability to conduct emotional *what-if* analyses.

Managing emotion. People have the ability to self-regulate emotions and to regulate emotions in others. Emotions contain information and influence individuals' thinking. As individuals need to include emotions in problem solving, judging, and behavior, they need to be open to emotions and to have strategies for understanding their feelings.

This model is skill based and focuses on cognitive aptitudes demonstrated on the IQ test. The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) measures this ability (Mayer et al., 2012). The MSCEIT uses emotionally charged problem-solving

challenges to test the participant's ability on each of the four aptitudes and to produce a rating of emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Bar-On's Model of Emotional-Social Intelligence

Bar-On (1997) defined emotional intelligence as the result of a collection of social and emotional knowledge, which influences people's ability to cope with the demands of life, regarding express emotions and to relate to others. Emotional intelligence can develop over the lifespan of an individual and can improve because of education and training (Bar-On, 2006). Bar-On (2006) introduced the model of emotional-social intelligence, which combines social and emotional skills, demonstrating that a person could be effective to understand his or her feeling and emotions, as well as the emotions and feelings of others. Bar-On further explained that low emotional intelligence may challenge people's work life and that the EQ-i is a tool to assess and reveal emotional problems. The EQ-i consists of 15 multifactor analyses in the following five areas of emotional intelligence: intrapersonal skills, adaptability, interpersonal skills, stress management, and general mood (Bar-On, 2000; Lindgren, Packendroff, & Sergi, 2014). The EQ-i is a multifactorial model of emotional intelligence, which enables people to improve their emotion by measuring their personal qualities.

Goleman's Mixed-Method Model

Emotional intelligence, according to Goleman (2011), is the ability to understand personal feelings and those of others, to motivate, and to manage emotions effectively in others and ourselves. Goleman's mixed-method model involves a range of competencies

broken into skill sets, which together form the picture of a person's level of emotional intelligence. Goleman's emotional intelligence competencies model is as follows:

Self-Awareness. Self-awareness means sensing how one feels in the moment and using one's gut feelings to help drive decision-making or possessing a realistic understanding of one's abilities and a strong sense of self-confidence. Self-awareness is the most important competency of emotional intelligence (Balamohan, Tech, & Gomathi, 2015; Dahlvig, & Longman, 2014; Goleman 1995). Goleman stated that self-awareness was the fundamental emotional competence providing the basis for all other competencies. Self-awareness involves recognizing and facing personal issues honestly to find and eliminate the obstacles to communication and effectiveness (Parke, Seo, & Sherf, 2015). Self-awareness helps build effective relationships for ideal organizational effectiveness and positive change (Chughati & Lateef, 2015).

Self-Management. Self-management is handling one's emotions so that they do not interfere; rather, they facilitate. Self-management also signifies the ability to delay gratification in pursuit of a goal, recovering well from emotional distress; and translating one's deepest, truest preferences into action to improve and succeed. Self-management is the ability to control or change one's state of mind (Hess & Bacigalupo, 2014). Self-management is a competency for leaders who want to establish a trustworthy and equal environment (Goleman, 2011).

Self-Motivation. Self-motivation is sensing what others are feeling, to be able to understand situations from others' perspectives, and cultivating relationships with a diverse range of people.

Social skills. Social skills involve handling emotions in respect to relationships with other people; the ability to read the intricacies of social interactions; the ability to interact in social situations well; and the ability to use this skill set to influence, persuade, negotiate, and lead. This competency involves paying attention to both individuals and groups of individuals (Crowne, 2013). Negotiation, cross-cultural sensitivity, conflict resolution, active listening, and expressing viewpoints are the required skills for social awareness (Joseph, Jin, Newman, & O'Boyle, 2015).

Empathy. Empathy is the ability to understand and appreciate the emotions and feelings of others. Empathy allows leaders to observe how organizations transmit information and values to individuals (Joseph et al., 2015). This competency allows leaders to understand and address employee needs and concerns (Joseph et al., 2015). Empathy is necessary for leadership behavior (Muller, Pfarrer, & Little, 2014). Muller et al. (2014) stated that some people naturally displayed empathic emotion and such people would find it easy to express empathic emotion when in leadership roles. While the ability to be empathic does not make one a leader, exhibiting empathy is an essential part of leadership (Muller et al., 2014).

Goleman's model includes a set of emotional competencies within each construct of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2011). Goleman believed that people were not born with emotional competencies, but people can learn and develop these capabilities and achieve outstanding performance. Goleman's mixed-method model of emotional intelligence theory supports the proposed research study in assessing how emotional intelligence correlates with transformational leadership and project success.

Critique of Emotional Intelligence Models

Despite the increased interest in using emotional intelligence in organizations around the world, several critics have questioned the ability of emotional intelligence to change a person's ability or potential to motivate and influence others. Some disagreements persist regarding the practical application of emotional intelligence (Schutte & Loi, 2014). Many critics of emotional intelligence have argued that a discrepancy within the field appeared to have added to the lack of clarity surrounding the construct (Greenidge, Devonish, & Alleye, 2014; Schutte & Loi, 2014). For instance, researchers showed a correlation between emotional intelligence and job performance (Gignac, 2015; Schutte & Loi, 2014). Other assessments of the correlation between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership produced inconsistent results and showed only slight, incremental validity for emotional intelligence over personality traits or cognitive ability (Zacher, Pearce, Rooney, & McKenna, 2014). Other researchers expressed concern with the application of emotional intelligence in general (Greenidge et al., 2014; Zacher et al., 2014), but some researchers agreed with these findings (Schutte, Malouff, & Thorsteinsson, 2013).

Leadership

Leadership is the ability to influence followers toward the accomplishment of an organizational goal (Burton & Welty Peachey, 2013; Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Parris & Peachy, 2013; Mastrangelo, Eddy, & Lorenzet, 2014). Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree on what action is necessary and how to do it

(Northouse, 2015; Yukl, 2012). Leadership is the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives (Yukl, 2012).

Burns (2010) defined leadership as leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the value and motivations, wants and needs, and aspirations and expectations of both leaders and followers. Leadership entails using opinion, behavior, responsibility, inspiration, development, and instruments to achieve a goal (Keskes, 2014). The essence of leadership in organizations is inspiring and helping individuals and making collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives (Yukl, 2012). Leaders can improve the performance of a team or organization by influencing the process that determines performance (Yukl, 2012). A common goal in any leadership theory is the emphasis on an individual taking charge of a group and directing it toward the achievement of its goals (Inyang, 2013; Tourish, 2014). The success of an organization depends on its people, both leaders and followers (Parris & Peachy, 2013; Redick, Reyna, Schaffer, & Toomey, 2014).

Leadership theories evolved in four distinct areas: (a) trait theory, (b) relationship theory, (c) behavior theory, and (d) contingency theory (Alvesson & Spicer, 2012). The journey of leadership theories begins with trait theory (Sun, 2013). In trait theory, effective leaders share common traits or personality characteristics (Alvesson & Spicer, 2012). In relationship theory, leaders assess which leadership style will be the most effective at reinforcing a positive relationship that helps the leader reach the goals (Alvesson & Spicer, 2012). Behavioral theory focuses on how leaders behave. In this theory, a leader's behavior has direct effects on his or her performance (Alvesson &

Spicer, 2012). Contingency theory indicates that leaders could be successful if they changed their styles of leadership to suit the situation (Sun, 2013). The leader must lead based on various situational factors (Sun, 2013).

Servant Leadership

Greenleaf introduced servant leadership in 1970 (Sun, 2013). Servant leadership entails serving first, then leading (Sun, 2013). The servant leader is distinguishable through the care taken to ensure that the highest priority is serving the needs of others (Sun, 2013). The characteristics of a servant leader are listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of others, and building community (Sun, 2013).

This style of leadership is supportive. The leaders are friendly and show concern for the needs of staff members (Sun, 2013). Servant leaders demonstrate their traits and characteristics through interaction with followers and other leaders within the organization. The traits and characteristics of servant leaders include the commitment to the growth of people, stewardship, and building community. Servant leadership is more effective because it reflects a better use of a leader's power (Sun, 2013). A distinguishing feature of servant leadership is the natural feeling that to serve is more important than to occupy a formal leadership position (Sun, 2013). Servant leaders place followers' success ahead of their own personal motivations. In servant leadership, the leader meets the desires of the followers instead of the followers serving the desires of the leader (Sun, 2013). Servant leadership can be very effective at inspiring followers to reach the goals of the organization (Burton & Welty Peachey, 2013).

Transactional Leadership

Burns, whose work was later completed by Bass (Keskes, 2014), introduced the concept of transactional leadership in 1978. Transactional leadership involves an exchange between leader and followers (Bass, 1985). Bass further argued that in transactional leadership, followers agree with the leader in exchange for rewards to prevent disciplinary action (Bass, 1985; Jabeen, Behery, & Elanain, 2015). The characterization of a transactional leadership style is a relationship between leader and followers, in which both parties receive benefits from each other (Breevaart et al., 2013).

The transactional leadership style includes three dimensions: (a) contingent reward, (b) management by exception active, and (c) management by exception passive (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Keskes, 2014). In the contingent reward dimension, leaders reward the followers by telling them what to do to gain rewards. In the management by expectation active dimension, the leader transacts with followers only when followers deviate from expectations, and gives negative feedback for failure to meet standards. In the management by exception passive dimension, the leader passively waits for errors to occur and takes corrective action (Hamstra, Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2014; Keskes, 2014).

Bass and Riggio (2006) described transactional leadership as a carrot and a stick. Transactional leaders reward for good work and positive outcomes, and punish for poor work and negative outcomes (Fasola, Adeyemi, & Olowe, 2013). Leaders using transactional leadership are concerned with processes rather than forward-thinking ideas (Fasola et al., 2013).

Transformational Leadership

Leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality (Burns, 2010). Burns first introduced the transformational leadership paradigm, which Bass (1985) examined via followers and followers' loyalty toward the leader. Transformational leadership involves inspiring followers to commit to a shared vision and goals for an organization, and developing followers' leadership capacity via coaching, mentoring, and provision of both challenge and support (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders have strong moral commitments, which enable them to uplift and influence followers (Burns, 2010; Tonkin, 2013). Transformational leaders exercise their influence by stressing shared goals and values, and helping followers to beat self-interests to follow group goals (Tonkin, 2013). Transformational leadership is a process by which leaders cause positive changes in individuals, groups, and organizations using inspiration, vision, and the ability to motivate followers to transcend their self-interest for a collective purpose (Caldwell, McConkie, & Lincoln, 2014).

Transformational leaders emphasize charismatic success and have the skills to tackle multifaceted, vague, and ambiguous situations (Jiang, 2014). These leaders reach this goal by meeting subordinates' needs and encouraging and motivating them intellectually (Quintana, Park, & Cabrera, 2015). Transformational leaders are charismatic and have power (McKnight, 2013). As a result, employees have belief, confidence, and trust in their leader (McKnight, 2013). Transformational leaders do anything for their followers and pay close attention to each individual employee (Schweitzer, 2014). Transformational leaders also motivate followers in their career

growth by understanding the strengths and weaknesses of each individual, thereby assigning tasks that enhance each individual's performance (Choudhary & Akhtar, 2013). Transformational leaders possess integrity, have high expectations of followers, set clear goals, and enable people to look beyond their self-interests to reach the organizations' goals (Abbasi & Zamani-Miandashti, 2013).

The characteristics of transformational leaders are (a) identifying a vision, (b) fostering the acceptance of group goals, (c) having high performance expectations, (d) providing support, and (e) being charismatic (Lowe, Avolio, & Dum Dum, 2013; Mittal & Dhar, 2015; Yukl, 2012). Transformational leaders are assets to organizations (Yalabik, Popaitoon, Chowne, & Rayton, 2013) and they help organizational culture become more effective (Lowe et al., 2013). Transformational leadership has higher satisfaction rates from followers than any other leadership style (Abbasi & Zamani-Miandashti, 2013; Hamstra et al., 2014). Transformational leadership increases follower commitment (Cavazotte, Moreno, & Bernardo, 2013). Transformational leadership encompasses four dimensions: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

1. Idealized influence describes the degree to which transformational leaders behave as role models for their followers and receive respect, admiration, and trust (Abbasi & Zamani-Miandashti, 2013; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Leaders sacrifice their own needs to improve the objectives of the followers.

2. Inspirational motivation describes the degree to which transformational leaders behave in ways that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers' work (Abbasi & Zamani-Miandashti, 2013; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders demonstrate high levels of confidence, optimism, and hope, leading their followers to be hopeful, optimistic, and confident (Men, 2014).
3. Intellectual stimulation describes the degree to which transformational leaders stimulate their followers' efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways (Abbasi & Zamani-Miandashti, 2013; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Mittal & Dhar, 2015; Yalabik et al., 2013).
4. Individual consideration explains the degree to which transformational leaders pay special attention to each follower's needs for achievement and growth by acting as a coach or mentor (Abbasi & Zamani-Miandashti, 2013; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Mittal & Dhar, 2015; Yukl, 2012).

Leadership style has a significant influence on an employee's motivation and behavior (Men, 2014). A positive and direct relationship exists between transformational leadership and employee satisfaction (Lawlor, Batchelor, & Abston, 2015). A satisfied and motivated employee is more likely to have a personal investment in the organization (Gupta & Kumar, 2013). The transformational leadership style has a positive influence on both leaders and their followers, and it turns individuals' benefits into organizational

benefits (Men, 2014). One benefit of this leadership behavior is that transformational leaders are less resistant to change and deal better with the fast-changing economy than leaders who do not display transformational leadership behavior (Carter, Armenakis, Field, & Mossholder, 2013).

Organizations are primarily team-based structures wherein leaders lead and motivate the team (Vidyarthi, Anand, & Liden, 2014). Leading produces several challenges, like aligning individual goals with a shared mission, managing resources, establishing a positive climate of trust and support, and task completion (Vidyarthi et al., 2014). Transformational leadership is arguably the most researched leadership concept to date, and it relates to desired outcomes for individuals and teams (Vidyarthi et al., 2014). Vidyarthi et al. verified that transformational leadership enhanced job satisfaction and team performance at the individual level as well as the team level (Caldwell et al., 2012).

Transformational leadership and transactional leadership are two complementary points of view in leadership theory (Kim, & Kim, 2015; Liang & Chi, 2013; Tokin, 2013; Tourish, 2014; Tyssen, Wald, & Spieth, 2013). Transactional leadership concentrates on the task, and the leader rewards the followers. Clarke (2013) characterized transactional leadership as leadership of the status quo. Conversely, the emphasis of transformational leadership is person-orientated, aligning followers' needs with the organization's goals and tasks (Tyssen et al., 2013). Transactional leaders apply influence by setting goals, clarifying desired outcomes, providing feedback, and exchanging rewards for accomplishments. In contrast, transformational leaders apply additional influence by broadening and elevating followers' goals and providing them the confidence needed to

perform beyond the expectations specified in the implicit or explicit exchange agreement (Carter, Mossholder, Field, & Armenakis, 2014).

Transformational leadership emphasizes a closer relationship between followers and leaders, one based on trust and commitment. A transformational leader helps followers to realize the significance of transcending their own self-interest for the sake of the mission and vision of the group (Zhu, Newman, Miao, & Hooke, 2013).

Transformational leadership encourages performance beyond expectations by drawing upon consideration and charisma. However, transactional leadership can also bring constructive outcomes (Clarke, 2013).

Leadership style has had a significant influence on employee motivation and behavior (Allameh, Pool, Kazemi, & Mostafavi, 2015). The basis of transactional leadership is the exchange between leaders and subordinates. In contrast, transformational leadership goes one-step further by turning the profitable exchange into one with a strong, emotional connection (Allameh et al., 2015).

Several similarities exist between servant leadership and transformational leadership regarding vision, influence, trust, support, service, and credibility (Hannah, Schaubroeck, & Peng, 2015). The subject of leadership is complex, and one issue facing organizational leaders is how to gain buy-in so that employees actively participate in efforts that lead to accomplishing organizational goals (Allameh et al., 2015). Servant leadership is first serving, and then leading (Sun, 2013). Servant leaders are those who strive to serve other people's highest priorities (Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014). Servant leaders share similar traits with transformational leaders (Nahavandi, 2014). One

difference between servant and transformational leadership is loyalty; servant leaders focus on the individual, while transformational leaders focus on organization or agency success (Nahavandi, 2014).

The characteristics of a servant leader include listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of others, and building community (Hu & Liden, 2015). This style of leadership is supportive, as leaders are friendly and show concern for the needs of staff members (Hu & Liden, 2015; Sun, 2013). Servant leaders demonstrate their traits and characteristics through interaction with followers and other leaders within the organization; other characteristics of servant leaders include their commitment to the growth of people, stewardship, and building community. In contrast, authoritative leadership represents more forceful, coercive, and directive behavior (Nahavandi, 2014). The authoritative leader possesses attributes such as being commanding, status conscious, decisive, coercive, and skillful in dealing with crises (Sun, 2013). Servant leadership is more effective because it better reflects a leader's use of power (HU & Liden, 2015).

Effects of Leadership Styles

The leadership style affects employees' motivation and satisfaction (Nubold, Dorr, & Maier, 2015; Stenling & Tafvelin, 2014). A correlation exists between leadership style and employee trust of the leader (Weinberger, 2013). Employees are more committed to an organization when the leader exhibits relationship-building behaviors such as those associated with transformational leadership (Stenling & Tafvelin, 2014). Park, Kim, Yoon, and Joo (2017) examined the relationship between working conditions

and empowering transformational leadership among 540 firefighters. The study revealed a significant relationship between transformational leadership and working conditions, which accelerated high levels of work commitment (Park et al., 2017). A positive working environment has a direct effect on employee motivation and productivity (Park et al., 2017). The leadership styles have a direct influence on how employees experience work and understand working conditions (Weinberger, 2013). For instance, a transformational leader will have a more significant influence on positive work engagement than a transactional leader (Park et al., 2017). The leader's way of communication, managing, and behaving has direct effects on employee commitment to work (Park et al., 2017).

A transactional leader commands clear performance measures as the foundation for employee compensation, promotions, and terminations, whereas a laissez-faire leader fails in providing clear expectations to employees (Weinberger, 2013). Vague performance measures lead to unsatisfactory worker attitudes and result in unsatisfied and unmotivated employees (Weinberger, 2013). In contrast, job satisfaction increases when the leader is fair, ethical, trusting, open, caring, and personable (Weinberger, 2013).

As a factor in a leader's behavior, trust has a significant influence on individual effectiveness and organizational performance (Caillier, 2013). Transformational leaders encourage a high level of employee trust by promoting common organizational goals, mission, and vision (Caillier, 2013). A transformational leader builds trust and empowers followers to build self-esteem, more than a transactional leader (Caillier, 2013). A

transformational leader promotes a high level of performance and innovation by workers (Tuckey et al., 2012).

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

Researchers continue to debate the effect of emotional intelligence on leadership effectiveness and performance (Codier, 2014; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Lawlor, Batchelor, & Abston, 2015; Li, Barrick, Zimmerman, & Chiaburu, 2014; Parnell & Onge, 2015; Schlaerth, Ensari, & Christian, 2013; Waterbury, 2016). Some researchers are skeptical about the existence of a correlation between emotional intelligence and leadership (Humphrey, Ashforth, & Diefendorff, 2015; Rahim, 2014). Researchers have provided support for the link between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness (Sadri, 2012; Tessema, 2010). Effective leaders are those who (a) possess the competence to handle their own feelings, (b) acknowledge subordinates' feelings within the work environment, and (c) succeed in an approach that boosts morale. Highly effective leaders are able to empower subordinates and build confidence in followers' ability to succeed (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012).

Leaders with higher emotional intelligence competency consistently outperform their peers and have better working relationships with followers (Batool, 2013; Waterbury, 2016). Emotionally intelligent leaders increase morale, job performance, and employee retention (Waterbury, 2016). Highly emotionally intelligent leaders can maneuver through difficult workplace and project issues (Randall, 2013). By expressing empathy toward employees during difficult periods, leaders create trust between

followers. Emotionally intelligent leaders are less resistant to change and achieve higher support in engagements (Hannah, Schaubroeck, & Peng, 2015).

Project Management

Project management as a professional discipline is a young field (Catania, Armstrong, & Tucker, 2013). Project management is the application of knowledge, skills, tools, and techniques to project activities to meet the plan's requirements (PMI, 2013). Project management is a discipline or method based on the best practice for managing the project (Pemsel & Wiewiora, 2013). The right execution of project management could add value to an organization (Morris, 2014). Leaders should enhance both soft and hard skills in the process of implementing project management (Morris, 2014).

The project manager is the person designated by the organization to lead the team to achieve the project objective (PMI, 2013). While project management has traditionally been a feature of the construction industry, modern project managers are administrating many more activities in different types of organizations (Fan, Thomas, & Anantatmula, 2013). Project managers are responsible for leading the project execution from gathering the necessary financial, human, and technical resources to ensuring deliverables across all project phases (Kerzner, 2013). Amidst global competition, businesses invest heavily in projects (Voss & Kock, 2013). Projects and programs are the most important means of achieving organizational strategies (Chih & Zwikael, 2015); managing projects requires competent project managers, and organizations cannot survive without successful project management (Varajao & Cruz-Cunha, 2013; Voss & Kock, 2013).

The practice of project management and the roles and responsibilities of the project manager have evolved over time (Ayoko & Chua, 2014). Ayoko and Chua (2014) emphasized the importance of the behavioral aspects of project management and the management skills, such as leadership skills, of a project manager. The role of the project manager is essential for the success of a project; organizational leaders should assign the right project manager to a project (Garel, 2013; Patanakul, 2014). The performance of a project manager is an essential factor in the success or failure of a project (Wysocki, 2014). A project manager should have certain competencies to make a project successful (Lindgren, Packendroff, & Sergi, 2014). Competency is the ability to apply knowledge, emotions, and behavior to achieved desired results (Ho, Hsieh, & Hung, 2014). Project managers must have technical, interpersonal, and administrative skills (Spalek, 2014).

Interpersonal skills are an important competency for a project manager (Zahra, Nazir, Khalid, Raana, & Majeed, 2014). Interpersonal skills include both social competencies and self-competencies (Hess & Bacigalupo, 2014). Linking social competencies and self-competencies leads to emotional intelligence (Hess & Bacigalupo, 2014). Emotional intelligence can influence project manager behaviors and assist in decision-making (Lindgren, Packendroff, & Sergi, 2014).

A project manager's leadership skills are essential for managing risk, customer satisfaction, and team member support in projects (Lee, Park, & Lee, 2013). Vidyarthi et al., 2014 described a project manager's leadership skills as the ability to deal with people, the ability to create and maintain relationships, and the ability to organize. Nahod and Mladen (2013) noted the effect of different project management standards and models on

project success. For example, the International Project Management Association introduced a competence mode (ICB 3.0) that encompassed 46 competences. Nahod and Mladen sought to find a connection between ICB 3.0 and project management success by measuring the level of each ICB competence across different projects. They analyzed the responses of 472 project managers, 88 of whom had received certification under the International Project Management Association system. Nahod and Mladen found that project management success depended on behavioral competences, followed by technical and contextual competencies.

Project Management and Change

Many projects fail because of the lack of ability to handle the complications of business demands. Poorly managed projects cost U.S. companies and government agencies \$150 billion a year (Sanjuan & Froese, 2013). These conditions cause organizations to change their strategies and use project management to handle projects. The project manager's ability to recognize and respond to a changing environment is essential (Aronson, Shenhar, and Patanakul, 2013). Business is all about completing projects faster, better, and cheaper (Uhlir, 2013). Project managers need to adjust to external influences. The project manager is responsible for handling the planning, budgeting, monitoring, and controlling of the project, and for aligning and organizing staff while motivating and inspiring people.

One reason for project failure is the poor soft skills of project managers. Bertholo (2013) noted, projects do not fail, but people do. A well-trained, competent project manager with strong interpersonal skill consequently becomes essential for project

success. The personal skills of the project manager contribute to project success (Sanjuan & Froese, 2013). Sanjuan and Froese (2013) reported that personal skills include leadership, openness, self-control, creativity, motivation, values appreciation, reliability, and conflict and crisis management.

Project managers must be experienced and knowledgeable, possess personal competences, and be certified (Uhlir, 2013). Uhlir explained that, while not a guarantee of success, certification is a useful indicator for differentiation. Project management standards and certifications bring success to projects (Nahod & Mladen, 2013). The PMI (2013) developed a guide for project management. The International Project Management Association has produced national guidelines for competences of project management (Nahod & Mladen, 2013). Nahod and Mladen also stated that processes alone were not sufficient for project success: a competent project manager is essential to lead a project. Emotional intelligence is far more important than intellectual competence when leading (Goleman, 2011). Emotional intelligence is a tool for a project manager's social influence in projects and it increases the likelihood of project success. The role of a project manager is fundamental to the success of an organization's strategy (Muller et al., 2014). A successful project manager can create value by enabling the necessary process of change to the organization. Change is a constant phenomenon in the business world; effective project management requires responses to an unstable environment (Ramos & Mota, 2014).

Leadership in Project Management

Project manager leadership style is an important factor in the success of projects (Austin, Browne, Haas, Kenyatta, & Zuluetta, 2013). This means that the project manager's leadership and capability are essential during the project, particularly in managing problems, risks, customer satisfaction, and team cooperation (Lee et al., 2013). Managing projects in the 21st century will require a different approach (MacDonald, Walker, & Moussa, 2013). Consequently, different attributes, knowledge, and skills of project managers and a new leadership style will be necessary. MacDonald et al. identified the need for a new project leadership style to complement the project environment.

The traditional understanding of project management is using the right tools and techniques for success, regardless of the match between the project manager's personality and the project type (Carter et al., 2014). Bass classified leadership into two types: transformational, which includes charisma, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation, and transactional, which emphasizes the members' exchange of rewards to achieve goals (Carter et al., 2014). Previous researchers have consistently found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and effectiveness (Carter et al., 2014). Transformational leadership involves inspiring followers to commit to a shared vision and goals for an organization or unit; challenging them to be innovative problem solvers; and developing followers' leadership capacity via coaching, mentoring, and the provision of both challenge and support (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Transformational leaders have strong moral commitments and leverage these moral commitments to elevate and influence their followers (Burns, 2010; Yi-Feng, 2014). Transformational leaders exert influence by emphasizing shared goals and values, helping followers to transcend self-interests to pursue group goals (Lawlor et al., 2015). A project manager with a transformational leadership style can contribute to project success (Nixon et al., 2012). A project manager with a transformational leadership quality can reduce employees' stress, boost the positive mood in the team, create a productive environment, and improve task performance (Joseph, Jin, Newman, & O'Boyle 2015).

Many leaders of organizations around the globe believe that the most important success factor in project management is effective leadership (Awan et al., 2015). Leadership style is very important for the success of projects and is the highest-ranking group among project management competency factors (Awan et al., 2015). Successful project managers lead by using a blend of technical knowledge and leadership skills to motivate the project team. Project managers must have both task-oriented and relationship-oriented leadership styles to deal with the different phases and challenges of the project (Awan et al., 2015).

The project manager needs to know with whom to talk and how to talk to receive support. Many projects terminate in the early states for various reasons, especially politics. Project managers need to know how to obtain the right support (Keil, Lee, & Deng, 2013). Leadership skills and soft skills are more important than technical skills for

a project manager, as they can contribute more to project success than technical activities such as planning and control (Keil et al., 2013).

Emotional Intelligence, Transformational Leadership, and Project Management

Project managers with emotional intelligence and a transformational leadership style had a positive influence on the performance of their teams and projects (Lindgren, Packendroff, & Sergi, 2014; Tessema, 2010). Emotional intelligence has a positive effect on project managers, helping them to develop team leadership (Lindgren, Packendroff, & Sergi, 2014). Emotional intelligence has an important role in fostering the transformational leadership skills needed to build and sustain high-performing project teams; build a strong team identity through vision, purpose, and commitment; foster positive and productive team communication; and define ground rules (Aggarwal, & Krishnan, 2013; Clinebell, Skudiene, Trijonyte, & Reardon, 2013; Tessema, 2010). Transformational leaders empower and motivate teams, connect the power of collaboration to deliver successful projects, and match rewards to the person and team (Tessema, 2010). Shahhosseini, Daud Silong, and Arif Ismail (2013) claimed that there is a positive influence of emotional intelligence on performance. Shahhosseini et al. investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership styles among 192 managers and found a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and emotion in job performance. Shahhosseini et al. indicated that there was a relationship between transformational leadership style and job performance.

Many managerial skills are necessary for a project manager to handle the personnel element of a project, such as planning, controlling, leadership skills, and

distributing resources (Shahhosseini et al., 2013). The PMI (2013) defined a project as a temporary venture to create a unique product or service. The temporary attributes of the project do not allow long-term leadership development for a project manager. As organizational structure influences organizational success, the PMI defined three types of organizational structure: functional, projectized, and matrix. In these organizational structures, a project manager has no authority, limited authority, or total authority over the project team members. In most organizations, the project manager has the full responsibility for the project outcome. Strong project leadership and emotional intelligence are necessary for the success of a project (Judge & Zapata, 2015).

Emotional Intelligence Training

Organizations could benefit from emotionally intelligent employees (Clinebell et al., 2013; Tessema, 2010). Emotional intelligence is a tool for measuring and identifying potentially effective leaders as well as for developing effective leadership skills (Batool, 2013; Cheok San & O'Higgins, 2013). Emotional intelligence training could improve emotional intelligence abilities in employees (El Badawy, Srivastava, & Sadek, 2014; Lee, Kim, & Jeon, 2013; Zumrah, 2014). Lee et al. provided 2 days' emotional intelligence training to a group of project managers' then followed up with Salovey and Mayer's emotional intelligence test to measure their emotional intelligence levels. The results showed that development of emotional intelligence abilities sometimes occurs after training programs (Lee et al., 2013). Emotional intelligence training and learning significantly improves employee social and emotional skills (Tang & Yin, 2013). Tang

and Yin also explained that a close relationship existed between emotional intelligence competencies and leadership effectiveness, and that emotional intelligence was teachable.

Different methods to deliver emotional intelligence training are assessment, peer review, video, lecture, and computer-based training. The aim of emotional intelligence training is to change behaviors that may be counterproductive to the self or group in an effort to enhance emotionally intelligent behaviors (Lee et al., 2013). If leaders provide emotional intelligence training, employees will display better relationships, empathy, and problem-solving behaviors (Druskat, Mount, & Sala, 2013; Lee, Zvonkovic, & Crawford, 2014).

Project Success

In the 1980s, project success focused heavily on the use of the correct tools and techniques. In the traditional iron triangle of project management, the project manager's main responsibility was to balance cost, quality, and schedule constraints to meet the customer's needs (Wysocki, 2014). Awan et al. indicated that project managers must move beyond the historic focus on cost, schedule, and technical control. The complexity of project environments creates more demand to ensure that organizations have successful career-development programs to fill project management roles with the right people to deliver project success (Awan et al., 2015). A competent project manager is required for project success (Hwang & Ng, 2013).

The success of a project team depends on the quality of interpersonal relationships (Lindebaum & Cartwright, 2010). Lindebaum and Cartwright (2010) described emotional intelligence as an originator of transformational leadership. Lindebaum and Cartwright

believed a strong positive relationship existed between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence. The success of a project manager is increasingly reliant upon emotional skills, such as sensitivity toward others, empathy, and emotional regulation (Lindebaum & Cartwright, 2010). Muller et al. (2014) identified correlations between success and project managers' leadership competences. Muller et al. reported that project managers and their leadership styles were critical success factors in projects.

Nevertheless, only good managerial skills combined with good leadership skills can lead to long-term success (Muller et al., 2014). Individual team members may influence the success or failure of a project (Creasy & Anantatmula, 2013). Creasy and Anantatmula believed that when project managers focused largely on schedule, budget, and scope, then project managers could lose sight of team members on the project. Teams are composed of many individuals with unique identities, behavioral styles, and motivations. Individual social behaviors and interactions could have positive or negative effects on the project (Creasy & Anantatmula, 2013).

When considering the effect of leadership performance on the success or failure of a project, one should understand the differences between project management and project leadership. Project management refers to the planning and organizing of project activities, through decision-making processes that improve the efficiency and effectiveness of a project (Anantatmula, 2010). Successful leaders convince people of the need to change, stimulate new ways of thinking and problem solving, and encourage people to work together to accomplish project objectives in difficult work environments (Anantatmula, 2010).

A transformational leader is able to mobilize commitment and transcend the performance of both the individual and the project (McCleskey, 2014). Such leaders show charisma as a means of motivating others to integrate into the collective vision a strong consideration of and support for individual team member needs. Finally, transformational leaders can turn an ensemble of skilled, varied personnel into a multi-skilled, creative, and synergized force accomplishing project goals with alacrity (McCleskey, 2014).

Risk and risk management influence the success of Information Technology projects (Didraga, 2013). Risk management as a process consists of five phases: (a) identification, (b) analysis, (c) response, (d) monitoring, and (e) control. Project risk management has a positive effect on project success regarding being on time and within-budget delivery of a predefined result (Didraga, 2013). The triple constraints of project success are still important; but, success occurs when the project achieves the planned business value within the imposed constraints (Didraga, 2013). Risk management has an essential role in project success. Stakeholders are aware of risks, on which they base and adjust their expectations and behavior accordingly.

Transition and Summary

Section 1 encompassed the foundation or basis for the idea that a possible relationship could exist between emotional intelligence, leadership styles, and the effective performance of project managers. Section 1 started with the introduction, background, problem and purpose statement, research questions and hypotheses, and the theoretical framework, assumptions, limitations, delimitations, and a description of how

the outcome of the study would contribute to business need and implication for social change. The literature review included discussions on the three main variables of the proposed study: emotional intelligence, transformational leadership, and the effective performance of the project manager. The literature review also covered the theoretical perspective of the existing body of knowledge of variables within the context of the problem statement.

Sections 2 begin with a further review of the problem statement and justification for the study. Section 2 included an explanation of my role as a researcher and description of ethical issues. Section 2 also included (a) the research method, (b) the proposed quantitative correlational study, (c) population and sampling, (d) data collection and technique, and (e) data analysis.

Section 3 started with the presentation of the findings from the results of the data analysis and the relationship of the results to the purpose and research question and hypotheses. Section 3 also covered the study's implication for social change, recommendation for action based on the results, recommendation for further research, my reflection stemming from achieving the research process, and a final summary that concluded the study.

Section 2: The Project

This section of the study includes a restatement of the purpose of the study, the role of the researcher, and details about the data collection. Section 2 also includes an in-depth description of the selected research method and of the sampling process. The organization of data, analysis of data, validation of the survey instrument, and the maintenance of ethical research practice complete this section.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance. A total of 10 predictor variables were used. The five transformational leadership predictor variables were idealized behavior, idealized attribute, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. The three transactional leadership predictor variables were contingent reward, management by exception active, and management by exception passive. Passive avoidant leadership and emotional intelligence were the final two predictors. The criterion variable was project manager performance. The targeted population consisted of project managers from different industries in the states of Virginia and Maryland, and the District of Columbia. This information could provide business leaders with a better understanding of the role of emotional intelligence and leadership to improve project managers' performance. Improving project managers' performance increases the chances of success of their organizations. Successful organizations are sources of economic development, quality of

work life balance, social security, and employment. Economic growth is the most powerful instrument for reducing poverty and improving the quality of life (Callier, 2013).

Role of the Researcher

My role as a researcher in this quantitative study was to facilitating data collection, conducting data analysis, and presenting the findings as usable information. Researchers must be aware of ethical issues that may arise during the research process (Chintaman, 2014; Wester & Borders, 2014). An ethical researcher must avoid engaging with study participants (Bernard, 2013). I had no direct relationship with the participants and accordingly no such ethical issues may exist in this proposed research. I was familiar with the research topic and the associated challenges, successes, and failures of managing projects because of my 13 years of experience as a project management practitioner.

I had received permission to use and will use the following three preexisting survey instruments: the SSEIT to collect emotional intelligence data, the MLQ to collect leadership data, and BARS to collect performance data. I followed the guidelines established in the Belmont Report, including respect for people, informed consent, and respecting privacy/confidentiality (Vitak, Shilton, & Ashktorab, 2016). The participants for the study were full-time project managers within the states of Virginia and Maryland, and the District of Columbia who were part of the SurveyMonkey Audience. SurveyMonkey did not disclose the names or any personally identifying information of participants. Participants who decided to take part in the proposed study completed a survey consent form prior to accessing the actual survey (see Appendix A).

SurveyMonkey Audience service provided an option for nonparticipation with the invitation to participate in the survey (SurveyMonkey, 2014c). Participants could choose to withdraw from the study, or deny participation without penalty at any time. I used SurveyMonkey to administer the survey to the participants, then collect, organize, and analyze the survey responses to address the research question.

Participants

The eligibility criteria follow from the research question and hypotheses and they define the study population (Acharya, Prakash, Saxena, & Nigam, 2013). A study population can have a broad or narrow definition based on eligibility criteria. The eligibility criterion for this study was working experience in the field of project management. I used an Internet-based survey instrument to measure dependent and independent variables (Sinkowitz-Cochran, 2013). SurveyMonkey Audience is a service offered by SurveyMonkey to allow members to purchase survey responses from a target group (SurveyMonkey, 2014). I used SurveyMonkey Audience to gain access to full-time project managers within the states of Virginia and Maryland, and the District of Columbia. SurveyMonkey Audience locations exist by census regions, census division, or from the United States, United Kingdom, and Australia (SurveyMonkey, 2014).

I obtained survey data from voluntary participants who used the survey instrument. The survey was open for a period of 6 weeks until I obtained the desired number of usable surveys. The cutoff date to receive responses was 6 weeks after the initial opening of the survey. I reviewed the number of usable surveys daily, and extend the cutoff time to meet the required sample size of 102. No vulnerable individuals

participated in this study, and SurveyMonkey excluded participants' identification to ensure confidentiality. I did not establish a working relationship with participants because SurveyMonkey Audience prevents establishing a working relationship with participants, thus eliminating any researcher influence on responses.

Research Method and Design

The three different methods of research are qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance. The aim was to investigate and define the relationship and its strength using a correlational design. The correlational design is the best approach for answering the research question and hypotheses.

The focus of the quantitative research method is on identifying how outcomes influence the variables by using experiments and surveys, while the focus of the qualitative method is on identifying behaviors and attitudes of subjects when variables are unknown (Hyett et al., 2014). Qualitative research requires more time and resources than quantitative research. Quantitative researchers rely on collecting and analyzing numerical data and assess the strength and direction of the associations between variables (Astalin, 2013). Mixed-methods research combines both qualitative and quantitative forms and allows researchers to interpret data objectively and subjectively (Mayoh & Onwuegbuzie, 2013; Yardley & Bishop, 2015).

Research Method

When a researcher tries to determine the relationship between two or more quantifiable variables, a correlational study is the most appropriate method (Rovai, Baker, & Ponton, 2013). I planned to conduct a descriptive quantitative correlational study to determine the relationships between the variables. Three different methods exist for a research study: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods (Caruth, G. D., 2013). The focus of the quantitative research method is on identifying how outcomes influence the variables by using experiments and surveys, while the focus of the qualitative method is on identifying behaviors and attitudes of subjects when variables are unknown (Ibanez-Gonzalez, Mendenhall, & Norris, 2014). In quantitative studies, researchers are able to interpret the behaviors and the attitudes of subject accurately (Ibanez-Gonzalez et al., 2014). In contrast, qualitative studies develop from a conceptual, constructivist worldview: case studies, observations, content analysis, and interviews study design (Hyett, Kenny, & Dickson-Swift, 2014). Quantitative research relies on collecting and analyzing numerical data, whereas the qualitative research method defines the strengths and direction of the associations between variables (Gringering, Barusch, & Cambron, 2013; Lewis, 2015). In quantitative research, a researcher tests an objective theory by examining the relationship between independent and dependent variables (Hyett et al., 2014).

A qualitative method was not an appropriate method for this study because a qualitative study is inductive and prevents defining variables and hypotheses before conducting the research (Marshall & Rossman, 2015). Findings in a quantitative analysis

could be generalizable to a larger population, unlike qualitative analysis where findings are context specific (Poore, 2014). A mixed method combines both qualitative and quantitative forms and allows researchers to interpret data objectively and subjectively (Yardley & Bishop, 2015). A mixed method was not an appropriate choice for this study because mixed method includes qualitative work, and the scope of my research is limited to testing hypotheses (Yardley & Bishop, 2015).

The reason for choosing a quantitative research method for this study was that it was more suitable than mixed and qualitative methods, it fitted the nature of the central question, and there were fewer issues with personal and ethical concerns (Marshall & Rossman, 2015). In an examination of relationships among variables, the quantitative research method is the most appropriate (Marshall & Rossman, 2015). In correlational analysis, researchers examine the relationship between the predictor variables and criterion variable (Bryman, 2015). In this study, the predictor variables were transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and the criterion variable was and project manager performance. Because the focus of this study was to determine the relationship between the predictor variables and the criterion variable, a correlational research design was most appropriate. The quantitative research method was the most suitable method for appraising the relationships between variables (Cooper & Schindler, 2013).

Research Design

Two of the most commonly used quantitative research designs are the experimental and associational approaches (Babbie, 2015; Field, 2013; Turner, Balmer,

& Coverdale, 2013). The focus of experimental research design is on determining if a specific action will affect a result by manipulating the variables (Field, 2013; Verdinelli, 2013; Whitley & Kite, 2013). The design of this study was nonexperimental and correlational as there was need to manipulate any variables. Nonexperimental designs can be correlational descriptive or causal-comparative (Charlwood et al., 2014; Rovai et al., 2013; Turner et al., 2013). Correlational research requires the collection of information from a specified population (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aike, 2013). Based on the purpose of the study of evaluating relationships among three variables, a correlational design was appropriate.

The need to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance was consistent with a correlational design. In a correlational study, a researcher examines the relationship between the predictor variables and the criterion variable (Cokley & Awad, 2013; Yilmaz, 2013). In this study, the predictor variables were emotional intelligence and leadership styles, and the criterion variable was effective performance of project managers. Quasi-experimentalists do not allocate random assignment of valued of predictor variables; nevertheless, manipulation of the study variables is adequate (Cokley & Awad, 2013).

In contrast, in an experimental research study, random assignment of the subjects to the control groups and treatments groups happens (Cokley & Awad, 2013).

Correlational research was appropriate for this study because this analysis did not require

manipulation of experimental variables or random group assignment (Cokley & Awad, 2013).

Population and Sampling

The goal of sampling in research is to generate a manageable subset of data from a large group to represent the population (O'Reilly & Parker, 2013). Convenience sampling, a nonprobabilistic sampling technique applicable to a quantitative study, is the best sampling method for this study. Convenience sampling involves selecting participants based on their convenience and availability (Suen, Huang, & Lee, 2014). Convenience sampling is less expensive than other sampling strategies (Bornstein, Jager, & Putnick, 2013). In this study, I used a convenience sample of project managers from the SurveyMonkey Audience. This form of sampling was an appropriate method based on the chosen approach (correlational analysis, nonexperimental).

Power analysis determines the sample size necessary to discriminate between the null and alternate hypotheses (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). G*Power is a statistical software package quantitative researchers use to conduct an a priori sample size analysis (Faul et al., 2009). A power analysis, using G*Power software, was conducted to determine the appropriate sample size for the study. An a priori power analysis, assuming a medium effect size ($f^2 = .15$), $\alpha = .05$, and 10 predictor variables, identified that a minimum sample size of 118 participants was required to achieve a power of .80. Increasing the sample size to 147 would increase power to .99. I sought between 118 and 147 participants for the study (Figure 1).

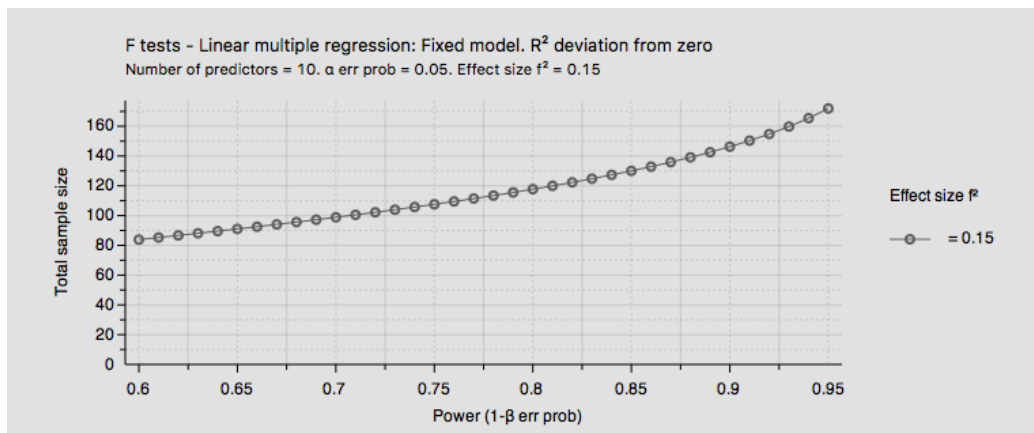


Figure 1. Power as a function of sample size.

Ethical Research

Ethical considerations are essential in social science. Researchers should understand ethical issues and the implications of their scientific work and act accordingly (Whitley & Kite, 2013). Every research study must follow the following guidelines: (a) collect informed consent, (b) be free of deception, and (c) safeguard discretion and confidentiality (Ekekwe, 2013). A documented ethical practice protects researchers, encourages trust, maintains integrity, minimizes harm, and better prepares researchers to face problems (Berger, 2015). To mitigate potential ethical challenges, I followed (a) the governing principles of research ethics to ensure the protection of participants' rights and to meet the ethical standards of Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB), (b) submitted the research proposal for review by IRB before collecting any data, (c) included the IRB's approval number in the research report, and (d) maintained the confidentiality of any sensitive information. The Walden IRB approval number is 08-25-16-0323437. Additionally, I followed the guidelines established in the Belmont Report, including respect for people, informed consent, and respecting privacy/confidentiality as

suggested by Barker (2013), and employed SurveyMonkey Audience to deliver the surveys to targeted survey participants. Participants who choose to take part in this study completed a survey consent form prior to accessing the actual survey (see Appendix A). SurveyMonkey Audience provided an option for nonparticipation with the invitation to participate in the survey (SurveyMonkey, 2014). The participants had the right to refuse or withdraw at any time during the survey without penalty, with any incomplete questionnaires deleted from the study. The invitation to participate included an explanation of the process involved for withdrawing from the study. Participants might skip any questions they think were too personal. The participants would not receive compensation or any form of incentive for participating in this study. The informed consent letter described the purpose of the study, background of the study, study procedures, voluntary nature of the study, risks and benefits of the study, compensation, costs, confidentiality, and consent. I did not collect any survey participants' names, e-mail addresses, Internet protocol addresses, or any other information that could identify an individual participant.

Prior to conducting the survey, I disabled the tracking mechanism feature for storing and accessing the Internet protocol address of the survey participants' e-mail to ensure the ethical protection of the participants (SurveyMonkey, 2014). The disabling of the tracking instrument safeguarded that no link existed between the participant and the participant's response (SurveyMonkey, 2014). SurveyMonkey provided maintenance of all survey responses on a data server that had firewall protection and 24 hours per day security (Corbin, Farmer, & Nolen-Hoeksma, 2013; SurveyMonkey, 2014). To protect

the rights and identities of the participants, I will keep the collected data in a password-protected electronic folder on a Universal Serial Bus (USB) for 5 years, after which I will delete the electronic files and shred paperwork.

Instrumentation

The instruments of choice in this study for data collection were the Schutte's Self-Report of Emotional Intelligence (SSEIT), Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), and the Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scales (BARS). The collected data from the SSEIT pertain to emotional intelligence, while the collected data from the MLQ related to transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidance leadership styles, and the collected data from BARS related to project management performance. A detailed description of each instrument follows.

Schutte's Self-Report of Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT)

Schutte, Malouff, and Bhullar (2009) developed the SSEIT in 1998 based on the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model of emotional intelligence. The SSEIT model proposes emotional intelligence as a multidimensional concept that comprises the appraisal of emotion in the self and others, expression of emotion, regulation of emotion in the self and others, and use of emotion in solving problems (Schutte et al., 2009). The SSEIT had a 33-item self-report questionnaire focusing on emotional intelligence.

The SSEIT had four subscales: (a) perception of emotions, (b) managing one's own emotions, (c) social skills or managing others' emotions, and (d) utilizing emotions. The items comprising the subscales based on these factors are as follows: perception of emotion (Items 5, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22, 25, 29, 32, 33), managing own emotions (Items 2,

3, 10, 12, 14, 21, 23, 28, 31), managing others' emotions (Items 1, 4, 11, 13, 16, 24, 26, 30), and utilization of emotion (Items 6, 7, 8, 17, 20, 27). All 33 items were included in one of these four subscales (Schutte et al., 1998). Participants rate their level of agreement to statements in the questionnaire using 5-point Likert-type response options where 1 represents *strongly disagree* and 5 represents *strongly agree* (Schutte et al., 1998), making the questionnaire follow an ordinal scale of measurement.

Respondents needed on average 5 minutes to complete the online SSEIT questionnaire (Schutte et al., 1998). The SSEIT can provide a measure of emotional intelligence on an ordinal scale (Niroomand, Behjat, & Rostampour, 2014; Schutte et al., 1998). To calculate the total scale score, researchers must reverse code Items 5, 28, and 33, and then sum all items. Scores can range from 33 to 165, with higher scores indicating more characteristics of emotional intelligence (Schutte et al., 1998).

The SSEIT instrument was appropriate for this study because Schutte et al. (1998) created SSEIT based on the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model of emotional intelligence. The SSEIT specifically measures emotional intelligence as a multidimensional construct. Researchers used the SSEIT survey instrument in different fields, such as education, government, retailing, and healthcare among others (Niroomand et al., 2014).

Schutte et al. (1998) showed Cronbach's alpha value for all three subscales were above 0.90 and the subscales conformed with the 0.87 criterion in general use. Two-week test-retest reliability also indicated a scale score of 0.78 (Schutte et al., 1998). I did not make adjustments or revisions to the SSEIT (see Appendix E) to maintain its established

reliability and validity. Appendix E includes a copy of the SSEIT instrument, and Appendix B includes the permission to use the form from the instrument's authors.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

Bass and Avolio developed the MLQ survey instrument in 1995 based on Burns's theory of transformational leadership. This survey instrument will help to evaluate and provide a better understanding of the attitudes and behaviors of the persons by looking at critical dimensions of their leadership styles (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Shatzer, Caldarella, Hallam, and Brown (2014) and Tessema (2010) used the MLQ instrument to determine the behaviors of leadership styles. Asmawi, Zakaria, and Wei (2013) selected the MLQ instrument as a tool to study leadership behaviors.

The MLQ survey instrument is a tool for providing an overview of the major leadership construct, including transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant leadership, in the self-assessment form (Bass & Avolio, 1995). The MLQ instrument consists of 45 questions, which measures the following nine leadership components: (a) idealized behavior, (b) idealized attribute, (c) inspirational motivation, (d) intellectual stimulation, (e) individual consideration, (f) contingent reward, (g) management by exception active, (h) management by exception passive, and (i) *laissez-faire*.

The MLQ questions are on a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranges from 0 - *never* to 4 - *frequently, if not always* (Bass & Avolio, 2004), making the questionnaire follow an ordinal scale of measurement. The Likert-type scale is a measurement tool that aids researchers to determine where to place variables within a range of values (Rovai et al.,

2013). Sullivan and Artino (2013) described a Likert-type scale as a psychometric scale that always produces higher estimates of reliability in samples and is easy to construct. Assessing leadership styles entail using the MLQ with an ordinal scale of measurement. Other researchers used the MLQ survey instrument to measure leadership styles (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Taylor, Psotka, & Legree, 2015; Yalabik et al., 2013). According to Bass and Avolio, the MLQ has strong validity and many researchers worldwide use this system. Their results indicate that the MLQ is a strong predictor of leader performance, which is why it considered the best instrument with which to measure leadership styles for this study (Taylor et al., 2015; Yalabik et al., 2013).

Transformational leadership. The idealized behavior (IB) variable consists of items measured on a scale with a range of 0-4. The total score consists of the average of questions 6, 14, 23, and 34 from the MLQ questionnaire. Response choices for all factors on the questionnaire are 0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often*, and 4 = *frequently, if not always*. The lower scores indicate a project manager with lower levels of IB, and higher scores indicate a project manager with higher levels of the IB behavioral leadership attribute.

Idealized attribute (IA) variable consists of items measured on a scale with a range of 0-4. This score consists of the average of Questions 10, 18, 21, and 35 from the MLQ questionnaire. The lower scores indicate a project manager with lower levels of IA, and higher scores indicate a project manager with higher levels of the IA behavioral leadership attribute. The inspirational motivation (IM) variable also consists of items measured on a scale with a range of 0-4, and this score consists of the average of

Questions 9, 13, and 36 from the MLQ questionnaire. The lower scores indicate a project manager with lower levels of IM, and higher scores indicate a project manager with higher levels of the IM behavioral leadership attribute.

The intellectual stimulation (IS) variable consists of items measured on a scale with a range of 0-4, based on the average of Questions 2, 8, 30, and 32 from the MLQ questionnaire. The lower scores indicate a project manager with lower levels of IS, and higher scores indicate a project manager with higher levels of the IS behavioral leadership attribute. The individual consideration (IC) variable consists of items measured on a scale with a range of 0-4 and consists of the average of Questions 15, 19, 29, and 31 from the MLQ questionnaire. The lower scores indicate a project manager with lower levels of IC, and higher scores indicate a project manager with higher levels of the IC behavioral leadership attribute.

Transactional leadership. The contingent rewards (CR) score has a scale with a range of 0-4, calculated using the average of Questions 1, 11, 16, and 35 from the MLQ questionnaire. The lower scores indicate a project manager with lower levels of CR, and higher scores indicate a project manager with higher levels of the CR behavioral leadership attribute.

The management by exception active (MBEA) variable consists of items measured on a scale with a range of 0-4 and consists of the average of Questions 4, 22, 24, and 27 from the MLQ questionnaire. The lower scores indicate a project manager with lower levels of MBEA, and higher scores indicate a project manager with higher levels of the MBEA behavioral leadership attribute.

Similarly, the management by exception passive (MBEP) variable consists of items measured on a scale with a range of 0-4, calculated as the average of Questions 3, 12, 17, and 20 from the MLQ questionnaire. The lower scores indicate a project manager with lower levels of MBEP, and higher scores indicate a project manager with higher levels of the MBEP behavioral leadership attribute.

Passive avoidant leadership. The laissez-faire (LF) variable consists of items measured on a scale with a range of 0-4, calculated as the average of Questions 5, 7, 28, and 33 from the MLQ questionnaire. The lower scores indicate a project manager with lower levels of LF, and higher scores indicate a project manager with higher levels of the LF behavioral leadership attribute.

The MLQ survey is a reliable and valid instrument with which to identify leadership styles in use in many research studies around the world (Yalabik et al., 2013). Researchers conducting studies on the relationship between transformational leadership and leadership effectiveness used (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The fields of these studies included business, military, government, healthcare, technology, and religious organizations (Abbasi & Zamani-Miandashti, 2013; Theodore, 2014).

The MLQ is a highly validated and reliable instrument, widely used for identifying the leadership styles of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leaders (Abbasi & Zamani-Miandashti, 2013). Previous researchers indicated that the MLQ instrument has a Cronbach's alpha coefficient that ranges from 0.63 to 0.92 (Maritz, Pretorias, & Plant, 2012). Bass and Avolio (2004) stated that confirmatory factor analysis determined the levels of convergent and discriminatory validity in the MLQ. The

MLQ model has a goodness of fit index of 0.91. Bass and Avolio recommended a minimum goodness of fit index of 0.90. When Bass and Avolio analyzed a set of nine samples ($N = 2,154$) for reliability, they found each of the leadership factors scales to have reliabilities between 0.74 and 0.94. By combining 18 independent samples ($N = 6,525$), Antonakis, Avolio, and Sivasubramaniam (2003) concluded that the MLQ attains convergent validity with a correlation coefficient of at least 0.80 across the three leadership styles. Taylor et al. (2015) examined the reliability of the MLQ survey in different cultures, finding a sufficient level of consistency to identify leadership styles.

The MLQ took roughly 15 minutes to administer. The authors of the self-explanatory instrument wrote their instructions on the top of the form. The participants could access to the study's survey through an invitation e-mail that includes a hyperlink to complete the survey. I contemplated no adjustments to the MLQ instrument for this study. Appendix F includes a copy of the instrument while Appendix C is the permission to use the form from the instrument's authors. Raw data from the answers of the participants on this questionnaire would be available upon request from the researcher.

Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scales (BARS)

The BARS, a performance appraisal technique introduced by Smith and Kendall in 1963, is a valid technique that works in any environment to measure performance (Dulaimi, 2004; Dulaimi & Langford, 1999; Khanna & Sharma, 2014; Pomerance & Converse, 2014). As such, I used BARS to assess project manager performance.

The BARS included 57 self-reporting questions assessing project management behavior and effectiveness on five dimensions (Dulaimi, 2004; Dulaimi & Langford,

1999; Khanna & Sharma, 2014). The five dimensions include (a) Managing the project's environment and its resources (Items 1 through 15), (b) Organizing and coordinating (Items 16 through 26), (c) Information handling (Items 27 through 33), (d) Providing for growth and development (Items 34 through 44), and (e) Motivating and conflict handling (Items 45 through 57). The BARS questions are on a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranges from 1- *very ineffective* to 5- *very effective*, making the questionnaire follow an ordinal scale of measurement. The full list of the BARS questions is in Appendix G. I evaluated the performance of project managers using BARS and followed an ordinal scale of measurement. Researchers used the BARS survey instrument to measure performance using an ordinal scale of measurement (Dulaimi, 2004; Dulaimi & Langford, 1999; Khanna & Sharma, 2014; Pomerance & Converse, 2014).

Managing the project's environment and its resources. A project manager's primary role is to program, plan, and control the project's environment and resources. Project managers need to handle labor, materials, and plant effectively by relating them to the project and its environments to ensure steady and satisfactory progress.

Organizing and coordinating. A project manager's role is to organize and coordinate the different tasks and activities performed by different groups on location.

Information handling. This dimension describes a project manager's role in handling information and establishing the flow of communication both within the project and between the project and the outside settings (e.g., the firm, team members, client, stakeholders, and suppliers).

Providing for growth and development. A project manager's role is to provide opportunities for members of the project team to learn and develop. A project manager, through careful observation and counseling, is able to offer the team the chance to become involved in the types of tasks to develop their skills and experience and to give them the opportunity to be involved in work that they can perform to the best of their ability.

Motivating and conflict handling. Project managers should be concerned with effectively motivating team members toward the achievement of the project and firm's objectives. This requires both the installation of a proper motivation system and the elimination of conflicts that may be detrimental to team motivation.

The BARS was appropriate for the study because BARS has been widely accepted and used in measuring performance of project managers in different fields (Debnath et al., 2015; Dulaimi, 2004; Lindebaum & Jordan, 2012). Respondents needed on average 15 minutes to complete the BARS questionnaire (Dulaimi, 2004). The total scale score for each participant consisted of the average of all ratings across all survey items for each subscale/dimension. Higher scores indicated higher effectiveness for that specific dimension (Lindebaum & Jordan, 2012).

The BARS is an established instrument, and is a reliable and valid means of evaluating nurses, engineers, project managers, managers, teachers, and construction workers, as shown in many research studies (Debnath et al., 2015; Dulaimi, 2004; Lindebaum & Jordan, 2012). Dulaimi found that the internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha for each of the BARS scales was in the range of 0.71 to 0.78 and the

construct validity established through the computation of factor loadings, which resulted to more than 0.80 for each subscales. I did not make changes to the BARS instrument for this study. Appendix G includes a copy of the instrument, while Appendix D includes the permission to use the form from the instrument's authors.

Data Collection Technique

The instruments of choice in this study for data collection were the SSEIT survey for emotional intelligence data, the MLQ survey for leadership style data, and the BARS survey for performance data. Web-based surveys are the fastest way of collecting data, and web-based surveys are replacing direct mail and telephone surveys (Roster, Albaum, & Smith, 2014). Appendices E, F, and G included copies of the SSEIT, MLQ, and BARS questions.

SurveyMonkey Audience will convey the survey instruments to a targeted participant pool. SurveyMonkey Audience allows access to more than 1 million members of the SurveyMonkey member pool (Brandon, Long, Loraas, Mueller-Phillips, & Vansant, 2014). Compared to Qualtrics, SurveyMonkey Audience is more economical than Qualtrics (Brandon et al., 2014). In Qualtrics, researchers pay between \$7.00 and \$15.00 per response (Brandon et al., 2014). In SurveyMonkey Audience, researchers spend \$1.00 per response (Brandon et al., 2014).

By establishing a collector account, I gathered the survey data. Collector account validation using the preview/test option ensures that all survey design options were functioning properly before submitting the surveys to the target audience provided by SurveyMonkey. The custom targeting criteria categories were (a) age, (b) education, (c)

gender, and (d) employment status. The cutoff date to receive responses was 4 weeks after the initial opening of the survey. Progress tracking consisted of daily checking of the number of usable surveys completed, with the cutoff time extended to 8 weeks if necessary to meet the required sample size of 102. This research was quantitative and included existing and validated instruments. The use of a pilot study was not necessary as other researchers have established the reliability and validity for the survey instruments (Abbasi & Zamani-Miandashti, 2013; Dulaimi, 2004; Dulaimi & Langford, 1999; Khanna & Sharma, 2014; Pomerance & Converse, 2014; Schutte et al., 2009).

To protect the rights and identities of the participants, all the data resided on a password-protected Universal Serial Bus (USB) flash drive. I will keep the USB flash drive in a password-protected safe, delete data records after 5 years, and provide a summary of findings to any interested parties upon request. Collecting survey data online can result in many advantages and disadvantages (Ward, Clark, Zabriskie, & Morris, 2014). The advantages were (a) low costs, (b) lack of geographical boundaries, (c) data stored electronically, (d) analysis of data becomes easier and available immediately, (e) larger samples possible, (f) no need for an interviewer, (g) respondents are more willing to share personal information, (h) less time spent collecting data, and (i) more accurate data (Ward et al., 2014). The disadvantages included the difficulty of drawing probability sampling based on e-mail addresses of respondents and the absence of a trained interviewer to clarify questions, which may lead to less reliable data (Ward et al., 2014).

Data Analysis

The objective of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project management performance. The data collection and analysis process aims to address the following overarching research questions and hypotheses:

What is the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project management performance?

H_0 : There is no statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project management performance.

H_a : There is a statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project management performance.

The process of data analysis for quantitative studies involved collecting all the data obtained from the inquiry emanating from the surveys. SurveyMonkey's software assigned a unique numerical ID to each participant to maintain anonymity. I exported data from SurveyMonkey into a Microsoft Office Excel 2011 spreadsheet and used SPSS version 22.0 to conduct data analysis. SPSS is a data analysis tool, commonly used in many research studies (George & Mallery, 2013). In this study, I used SPSS to generate

(a) descriptive statistics, and (b) histograms and scatterplots. I used inferential statistics to answer the research question and hypotheses.

Multiple Linear Regression

Multiple linear regression is an appropriate analytical tool when a researcher tries to understand a pattern of associations within a phenomenon (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Many nonexperimental research designs also use a multiple linear regression (Green & Salkind, 2013). Multiple linear regression analysis is a collective statistical technique that allows the assessment of the relationship between one dependent variable and several independent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Multiple regression analysis includes two or more independent variables and provides information about the effects of an independent variable on the dependent variable while concurrently controlling for the effects of other independent variables (Tessema, 2010). Tessema used multiple regression analysis to study the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership in project management.

I used multiple linear regression to analyze the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project management performance. In a multiple linear regression, rejection of the null hypothesis would mean that the effective performance of the project manager is associated with emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. A multiple linear regression was the ideal test for this study because of the analytical qualities of multiple regression analysis. A multiple regression analysis allows the researchers to determine the direction, magnitude, and nature of the relationship

between and among variables (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013). The multiple regression analysis is symbolic of whether two or more of the predictor variables are redundant.

Ogihara (2014) used survey research and multiple linear regression analysis to examine the association linking MLQ leadership style subscales and MLQ perceived leadership effectiveness subscales in a study examining Western leadership characteristics with perceived leadership effectiveness in a sample of Japanese employees. Barani and Rajesh (2012) performed a similar study in which they examined the correlation between faculty performance in technical education institutions and the features of teaching benefits, which informed data analysis procedures. Barani and Rajesh used survey research and multiple linear regression analysis to examine the association linking six independent variables: (a) personal benefits; (b) job security; (c) additional responsibility; (d) training and development; (e) teaching aid and facilities; and (f) work freedom, with faculty performance as the dependent variable.

In this study, I used a multiple linear regression to test the relationship between criterion variable (project manager performance) and the predictor variables (transformational, transactional, passive/avoidance leadership, and emotional intelligence). The following regression equation showed the relationship between the predictor variables and the criterion variable:

$$Y = B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + B_0$$

B_1 and B_2 are slope weights for the two-predictor variables, X_1 and X_2 , and B_0 is an additive constant. SPSS calculated the values for B_0 through B_2 and the actual criterion

variable scores Y (Green & Salkind, 2013). The rejection of the null hypothesis in a multiple linear regression analysis implies that the predictor variables (emotional intelligence and transformational leadership) have a significant effect on the criterion variable (effective performance of the project manager). Multiple linear regression analysis is the ideal method for testing hypotheses in this study (Green & Salkind, 2013). I used the hypothesis testing method as suggested by Barr, Levy, Scheepers, and Tily (2013) to ensure that the hypotheses were properly accepted or rejected. I also tested for significance of regression to test the null hypotheses as suggested by Stang and Poole (2013). The criterion for the rejection of the null hypotheses was the p value in this study. The p value was a numerical value that features how much evidence exists to accept or reject the null hypotheses (Lijffijt, Pappetrou, & Puolamaki, 2014). If the result showed that the p value were less than or equal to 5% (0.05), statistically strong evidence exists to reject the null hypotheses and if the p value was higher than 5% (0.5), insufficient evidence exists to reject the null hypotheses (Lijffijt et al., 2014).

Assumptions

I conducted an in-depth assumption test before performing the regression analysis because of the sensitive nature of the multiple linear regression analyses. The following assumptions must hold prior to the use of multiple linear regression: (a) an absence of outliers, (b) linearity, (c) an absence of multicollinearity, (d) normality, (e) homoscedasticity, and (f) independence of residuals (Cohen et al., 2013). Researchers should verify that the data meet the assumptions; otherwise, the results of the regression analysis will be misleading (Cohen et al., 2013).

Outliers

An outlier assumption in a multiple linear regression is an observation in which the value of the criterion variable is unusual and contains high residuals (Cohen et al., 2013). An outlier is indicative of an error in data entry, or of the particularity of the sample (Cohen et al., 2013). Researchers assess outliers by running and inspecting the Normal Probability Plot (P-P) of the Regression Standardized Residual and the Scatterplot; both produced when requested as part of the regression analysis. Therefore, I requested these plots as part of the regression procedure to assess the outlier assumption.

Linearity

Linearity assumption is that the residuals approximate a straight line relationship with predicted dependent variable scores (Pallant, 2013). Researchers assess linearity by running and inspecting the Normal Probability Plot (P-P) of the Regression Standardized Residual and the Scatterplot (Pallant, 2013); both produced when requested as part of the regression analysis. I requested these plots as part of the regression procedure to assess the linearity assumption.

Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is a condition in which the correlations among the predictor variables are very strong (Cohen et al., 2013). Pallant (2013) indicated correlations $\geq .8$ are of concern and highly suggest multicollinearity. I assessed multicollinearity by running and viewing a correlation matrix of the predictor variables. Any variable, as appropriate, will be removed from the analysis.

Normality

The normality assumption is that the residuals should be normally distributed about the predicted dependent variable value (Pallant, 2013). Researchers assess normality by running and inspecting the Normal Probability Plot (P-P) of the Regression Standardized Residual and the Scatterplot (Pallant, 2013); both produced when requested as part of the regression analysis. Therefore, I requested these plots as part of the regression procedure to assess the linearity assumption.

Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity is an assumption that the criterion variable displays a similar amount of variance across the range of the predictor variables (Cohen et al., 2013). Researchers assess homoscedasticity by running and inspecting the Normal Probability Plot (P-P) of the Regression Standardized Residual and the Scatterplot (Pallant, 2013); both produced when requested as part of the regression analysis. Therefore, I requested these plots as part of the regression procedure to assess the linearity assumption.

Combatting Possible Influence of Assumption Violations

Researchers are faced with decisions when assumption violations are grossly violated. Two major approaches, based on statistical corrections, are data transformations and bootstrapping. Data transformations have a major drawback in that transformations yield data that are out of their original metric (e.g. dollar changed to the log of one dollar). The transformed metric (log of one dollar) may often be difficult for business leaders to understand (personal communications R. Taylor, personal communication, March 10, 2014). However, bootstrapping is a widely accepted technique used to account

for assumption violations (Moss & Yeaton, 2014). In the bootstrapping approach, researchers use the sample as a pseudo population by randomly using replacements for some participants to create a number of data sets (Kline, 2015). By using a bootstrapping approach, researchers ensure that the distribution in the sample represents the actual distribution in the population (Kline, 2015). I ran bootstrapping, using 1000 sample replacements and reported the 95% bootstrap confidence intervals where appropriate.

Other statistical analyses such as the *t* test were not suitable for the study as it focuses on determining difference between two groups (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). In the same way, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was not appropriate for this study. Researchers use ANOVA to determine the effect of factors on a dependent variable with three or more groups (Coxe, West, & Aiken, 2013). Correlation analysis was also not suitable for the study as it only determines associations between variables while linear regression analysis, though determining causation among variables, only involves one independent variable (Wilcox et al., 2013).

I exported all data obtained from the participants from SurveyMonkey to a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet for data cleaning. Responses with ambiguous answers did not go through to the final data set. I screened every answer to ensure that all correspond to the possible options provided in every question and treated cases with missing data accordingly. Missing data are an issue that many researchers encounter during a study, and researchers should address such issues (Quintana, Park, & Cbrera, 2015). Reasons for missing data include missing paired comparisons by design, the respondent fails to complete the whole paired comparison experiment, the respondent fails to respond to a

comparison or has insufficient knowledge to judge, or the respondent fails to respond to a comparison or has full knowledge, but does not distinguish between the options (Dziura, Post, Zhao, Fu, & Peduzzi, 2013). The strategy for addressing missing data includes using the following alternatives: (a) deleting data cases with missing values list-wise, (b) pairwise deleting cases with missing values, (c) replacing all missing data values with the variable mean, and (d) including missing data cases with user-missing values and treating all user-missing values as valid values (Rousseau, Simon, Bertrand, & Hachey, 2012). In this proposed study, I deleted data cases with missing value.

Study Validity

The aim of all researchers is to achieve perfect reliability and validity in research studies (Myrick & Feinn, 2014). Researchers should use reliable and valid instruments in studies, which in turn leads to reliable and valid results (Bernard, 2013; Bryman, 2015). Validity is the most important component of a research study (Sandelowski, 2015). The focus in quantitative research is on reliability and validity to ensure that others can replicate the study with the same results (Zohrabi, 2013).

Validity means measuring the ability of the empirical indicator and the conceptual definition of the construct (Myrick & Feinn, 2014). In quantitative research, validity indicates the possibility of drawing useful and meaningful inferences from the scores on the survey instruments (Smith, 2014). Validity takes numerous forms (Ward, 2013). Two main types of validity exist: internal and external (Myrick & Feinn, 2014). Internal validity means that researchers determine if their results are attributable to the identified hypotheses or to other variables (Smith, 2014). Internal validity is associated with

experimental research. Threats to internal validity are selection, maturation, instrumentation, history, mortality, and regression.

Another threat to internal validity is the lack of random sampling, particularly in studies trying to prove causality (Bernard, 2013). In a quantitative study, internal validity is dependent on the participants' honesty in answering the survey question and the statistical analysis of the independent variables (Myrick & Feinn, 2014). Internal validity measures the extent to which a researcher can conclude that only a variation in the independent variable caused a variation in the dependent variable (Bernard, 2013). Internal validity measures the extent to which a researcher can draw valid conclusions with respect to causal effects of a variable on another in a study (Bernard, 2013). Because the study fit within the scope of the nonexperimental, quantitative, correlational study, and had no objectives of testing causation, internal validity would not be an issue for this study.

External validity means the ability to generalize the results of the study to other situations and people (Myrick & Feinn, 2014). Threats to external validity include making an incorrect inference or generalization, and external validity issues are people, time, and place (Myrick & Feinn, 2014). The external threats to validity relate to the ability to generalize the study results (Kumar, 2014). As the collected data for this study were limited to the environment and participant sample selected for the study, generalization was only possible to other groups that had the same characteristics.

Statistical conclusion validity depended on the following factors: (a) an adequate sample size, (b) employing the appropriate statistical tests to analyze the data, (c) using

adequate statistical power, (d) reliability of measures, (e) restriction of range, (f) fishing and error rate problem, and (g) random heterogeneity of respondents (Barends, Jansen, ten Have, & ten Have, 2014). To improve the statistical validity of this study, I employed G*Power 3.010 software to compute this study's minimum sample size of 102 with an error probability of 0.05, an effect size of 0.13, and a power of 0.95.

Transition and Summary

Section 2 included the purpose statement, role of the researcher, participants, research method, research design, population, and sampling, ethical research, instrumentation, data collection technique, data analysis, and study validity. Section 3 contained an overview of the study, including the presentation of findings, identifying future research opportunities, implications for social change, and recommendation for action. Finally, I provided my reflections on completing this stage of my academic journey.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

The objective of this final study was to determine a relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance. Multicollinearity was found between individualized behavior and inspirational motivation; individualized behavior was removed from the analysis. The results of the multiple regression analysis indicated the full model (nine predictors) significantly predicted project manager performance $F(9, 92) = 8.330, p < .001$. Inspirational motivation ($t = 3.213, p = .002$) was the only significant contributor to the model.

Presentation of the Findings

This section is an explanation testing of the assumptions, present descriptive statistics, present inferential statistic results, provide a theoretical conversation pertaining to the findings, and conclude with a concise summary.

Tests of Assumptions

The assumptions (a) outliers, (b) linearity, (c) multicollinearity, (d) normality, (e) homoscedasticity, and (f) independence of residuals were evaluated. As discussed in Section 2, multicollinearity was assessed by a visual inspection of a correlation matrix. The assumptions of outliers, linearity, normality, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals were assessed by visually inspecting the Normal Probability (P-P) Plot of the Regression Standardized Residual and Scatterplot produced when running the regression procedure. I employed bootstrapping, using 1,000 samples, to address the possible

influence of any assumption violations. Bootstrap 95% confidence intervals are presented where appropriate.

Multicollinearity. I assessed multicollinearity by viewing the correlation coefficients among the 10 predictor variables. A bivariate correlation of .814 ($p < .001$) between individualized behavior and individualized motivation suggested multicollinearity might be of concern. I removed individualized behavior from the analysis.

Outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals. Outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals were evaluated by examining the Normal Probability Plot (P-P) of the Regression Standardized Residual (Figure 2) and the scatterplot of the standardized residuals (Figure 3). Due to the tendency of the points to lie in a reasonably straight line (Figure 2), I determined there were no major violations of these assumptions. The lack of a clear or systematic pattern in the scatterplot of the standardized residuals (Figure 3) further supports the tenability of the assumptions being met. However, I computed 1,000 bootstrapping samples in the regression procedure. The bootstrap 95% confidence intervals are reported where appropriate.

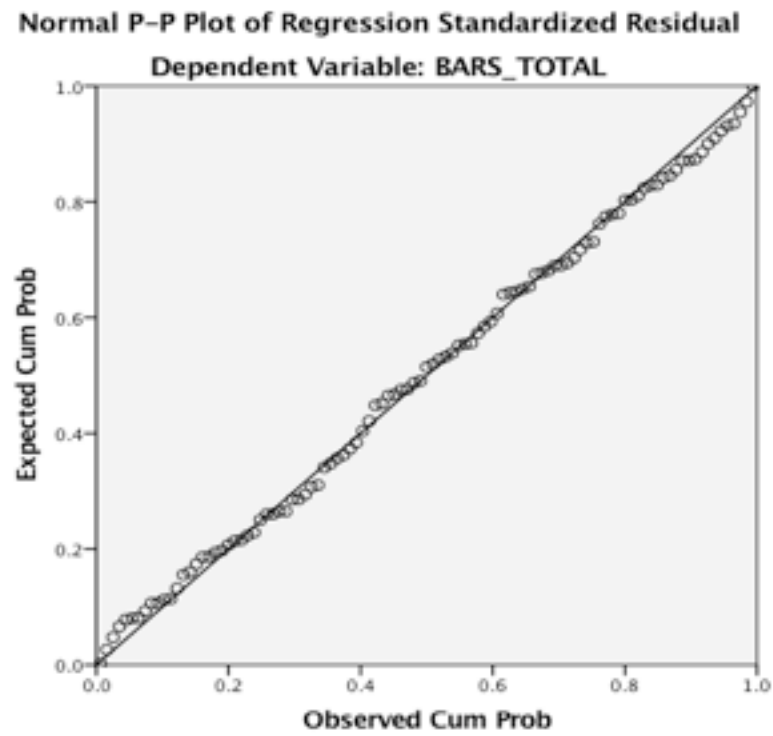


Figure 2. Normal Probability Plot (P-P) of the Regression Standardized Residuals.

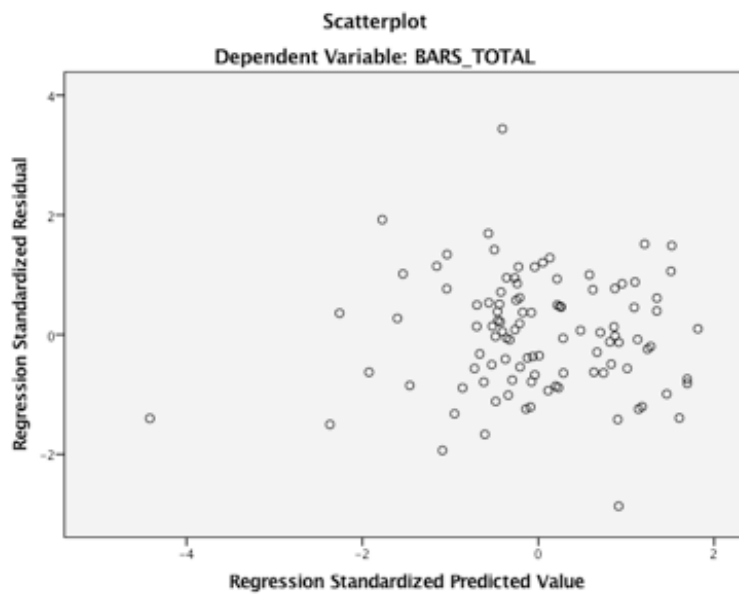


Figure 3. Scatterplot of the standardized residuals.

Descriptive Statistics

A total of 103 records were used in the analysis. Table 1 contains descriptive statistics for the study variables.

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations for Study Variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Bootstrap ^a 95% CI (<i>M</i>)
Transformational leadership			
Idealized attribute	11.24	2.35	[10.83, 11.73]
Inspirational motivation	9.63	1.80	[9.27, 9.97]
Intellectual stimulation	12.52	2.29	[12.09, 12.94]
Individualized consideration	12.91	2.26	[12.47, 13.34]
Transactional leadership			
Contingent rewards	12.18	1.68	[11.84, 12.49]
MBEA	11.12	3.21	[9.43, 10.70]
MBEP	3.53	2.17	[3.15, 3.95]
Passive avoidant leadership	2.94	1.82	[2.58, 3.30]
Emotional intelligence	136.0	12.67	[133.64, 138.44]
BARS	214.78	17.18	[211.10, 217.43]

Note: *N* = 103.

^aBootstrap results are based on 1,000 bootstrap samples

Inferential Results

I used standard multiple linear regression, $\alpha = .05$, to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project management performance. The five

transformational leadership predictor variables were idealized behavior, idealized attribute, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. The three transactional leadership predictor variables were contingent reward, management by exception active, and management by exception passive. Passive avoidant leadership and emotional intelligence were the final two predictors. The criterion variable was project manager performance. The null hypothesis was that transformational leadership; transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, and emotional intelligence would not significantly predict project manager performance. The alternative hypothesis was that transformational leadership; transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, and emotional intelligence would significantly predict project manager performance.

Preliminary data analyses were conducted to assess the assumptions of multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals (see *Tests of Assumptions*). Multicollinearity was of concern, as two variables (individualized behavior and inspirational motivation), were highly correlated ($r = .814$). Individualized behavior was removed from the analysis, resulting in nine predictor variables. There were no other serious violations noted. The model as a whole was able to significantly predict project manager performance, $F(9, 92) = 8.330, p = .002, R^2 = .449$. The R^2 value (.449) indicated that approximately 45% of the variance in project manager performance is accounted for by the linear combination of the predictor variables. The inspirational motivation variable was the only significant contributor to the model ($t = 3.213, \beta = 3.959, p < .002$). Table 2 depicts the regression summary table.

Finally, I applied Stein's formula to assess how well the model can be used to predict scores of a different sample of data from the same population. The adjusted R^2 , using Stern's formula was .32, indicating that in a different sample, approximately 32% of the variance in project manager performance can be accounted for by the linear combination of the predictor variables (transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive avoidance leadership, and emotional intelligence).

Table 2

Regression Analysis Summary for Predictor Variables

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	95% Bootstrap CI (<i>B</i>)
Idealized attribute (IA)	.111	.859	.016	.129	.898	[-1.78, 1.75]
Inspirational motivation (IM)	3.959	1.232	.429	3.213	.002	[1.55, 6.52]
Intellectual stimulation (IS)	.806	.996	.111	.809	.421	[-1.14, 3.14]
Individualized consideration (IC)	.186	1.033	.025	.180	.858	[-2.29, 2.43]
Contingent rewards (CR)	1.596	1.285	.161	1.242	.217	[-1.51, 4.33]
MBEA	.228	.577	.044	.396	.693	[-.925, 1.51]
MBEP	1.023	.757	.133	1.351	.180	[-.420, 2.83]
Passive avoidant	.770	.979	.084	.786	.434	[-1.34, 2.95]
Emotional intelligence (EI)	.139	.139	.105	.996	.322	[-.161, .434]

The final predictive equation was:

$$\text{Project manager performance} = 115.95 + .111(\text{IA}) + 3.959(\text{IM}) + .806(\text{IS}) + .186(\text{IC}) +$$

$$1.596(\text{CR}) + .228(\text{MBEA}) + 1.023(\text{MBEP}) + .770(\text{PA}) + .139(\text{EI})$$

Inspirational motivation. The positive slope for inspirational motivation 3.959 as a predictor of project manager performance indicated there was about a 4 point increase in project manager performance for each one-point increase in inspirational motivation. In other words, project manager performance tends to increase as inspirational motivation increases. The squared semi-partial coefficient (sr^2) that estimated how much variance in project manager performance was uniquely predictable from transformational leadership was .06, indicating that approximately 6% of the variance in project manager performance is uniquely accounted for by inspirational motivation when all other predictor variables are controlled.

I employed the multiple regression analysis to determine a relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, emotional intelligence, and project manager performance. I found multicollinearity between individualized behavior and inspirational motivation; so, I removed the individualized behavior from the analysis. In the assessment, I found the nine predictors significantly predicted project manager performance. The results of the assessment indicated that project manager performance tends to increase as inspirational motivation increases.

The result of the Tessema (2010) correlation coefficient analysis showed that emotional intelligence accounts for 44% of the change in transformational leadership behaviors. Tessema demonstrated a relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership in that project managers with higher emotional intelligence

were more likely to use transformational leadership than those with lower emotional intelligence. Calloway (2010) mentioned in his doctoral dissertation that emotional intelligence and transformational leadership have a positive relationship on the development of self-efficacy, and the relationship between self-efficacy and performance. Lindgren, Packeroff, and Sergi (2014) presented in their research paper that four distinct emotional processes associated with the invocation of project management discourse in daily work practice. Maamari and Majdalani (2017) found that the leaders' emotional intelligence does affect his/her leadership style. The leaders' style affects directly the respective employees' feeling of organizational climate to varying levels. Maamari and Majdalni found the variance between different leadership styles is small.

Analysis Summary

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine a relationship between emotional intelligence, leadership styles, and effective performance of project managers. Individualized behavior was removed from the analysis due to high multicollinearity with inspirational motivation. The model as a whole (nine predictors) significantly predicted project manager performance; however, inspirational motivation was the only significant contributor to the model. The null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was accepted. The linear combination of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive/avoidance leadership, and emotional intelligence significantly predict project management performance.

Applications to Professional Practice

The results of this study have many implications for professional practice. The applications for professional practice can be derived directly from the parameters identified in the predictive regression model. Based on the results of the multiple regression analysis, the model as a whole was able to predict project management performance. Project managers can use the regression model by examining the relative importance of the individual predictors to aid in employing practical applications; inspirational motivation was the only significant predictor. Inspirational motivation is the degree to which the leader articulates a vision that is appealing and inspiring to followers (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Leaders with inspirational motivation challenge followers with high standards, communicate optimism about future goals, and provide meaning for the task at hand (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

The significant relationship indicates that as inspirational motivation increases, project management performance tends to increase. Based on these results, it stands to reason that project managers should seek to enhance their inspirational motivation characteristics. Specifically, project managers can (a) talk optimistically about the future, (b) articulate a compelling project vision for the future, (c) talk about what needs to be accomplished and express confidence goals will be achieved, (d) create an exciting image of what is essential to consider, and (e) encourage team spirit and general enthusiasm (Hughes, 2014).

Project managers who employ these inspirational motivation techniques potentially impact a range of critical business success factors such as extra effort, ethical

behavior, learning orientation, and project success (Baneri & Krisham, 2000). According to Bass (1998), leaders high in inspirational motivation and idealized influence usually form a charismatic and inspirational leadership style. Project leaders can also focus on becoming role models where followers demonstrate a high degree of trust. Organizational leaders should conduct training for project managers on inspirational motivation to improve project managers' effectiveness in creating and leading high performing teams. Successful project managers may not be effective leaders; but, project managers can develop leadership skills to be effective leaders. Organizational leaders should assign project managers with high inspirational motivation to lead strategic and complex projects. Project managers with high inspirational motivation give meaning to follower's work, arouses team spirit, illustrate attractive future state, clearly communicate expectations, and commit to goals and shared vision (Awan et al., 2015).

Implication for Social Change

Effective leadership is an essential requirement for project manager's success and business sustenance in the current global economy (Islam & Ali, 2013). Ineffective project management is one of the leading causes of project lost (Kamisan & King, 2013). Leadership behaviors affect employees' performance (Caillier's, 2014; McKnight's, 2013). The result from this study indicated when inspirational motivation characteristics increases project management performance tends to increase.

One of the implications for potential social change from this study is that business leaders can obtain an improvement in employee morale and productivity, by helping project managers develop necessary skills for managing projects and achieving project

success. Business leaders who improve project managers' performance increase the propensity of organizational success. Successful organizations are sources of economic development, quality of work life balance, social security, and employment. Economic growth is the most powerful instrument for reducing poverty and improving the quality of life.

Developing the necessary skills for project managers may encourage a higher level of social interaction between project managers and other stakeholders in the business community (Gialuisi & Coetzer, 2013). A higher level of social interaction may enable project managers to play a critical role in shaping their organization's future and project success. A successful organization can make a positive impact on society by providing jobs, making capital investment, and improving the quality of life for the community.

Recommendation for Action

The findings from this study indicated that a significant relationship existed between inspirational motivation and project management performance. Based on these findings, I recommend that business leaders develop strategies to train and develop their project managers in the specific area of inspirational motivation. Because inspirational motivation is a predictor of project performance, project managers with high inspirational motivation skills may have better performance which may result in improving project success. A proficient project manager can use his or her leadership skills to expand project-based knowledge as well as to develop business practices, which may increase

organizational performance. I intend to publish this study in the ProQuest/UMI dissertation database and a scholarly journal.

Recommendations for Further Research

The sample comprised project managers from different industries in the states of Virginia and Maryland and the District of Columbia. The first recommendation for future research would be to expand the external validity of the study by extending the population to a broader geographical region. Using a clustered sampling approach will aid in minimizing costs associated with data collection (Daniel, 2012). Ensuring heterogeneity of the cluster samples will aid tremendously in the within cluster differences being low and the between cluster variance being low. The study should also account for the possible influence of industry on project management performance including industry as a predictor or control variable would strengthen the study design.

I employed a correlation design to assess the relationship between the predictor and dependent variables. A major weakness of the correlation design is the lack of cause and effect relationship (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). A causal comparative research design (although true cause and effect cannot be ascertained) would aid in assessing the impact and influence of the predictor variables on project management performance. The primary difference in the analyses will include the scale of measurement of the predictor variables. The regression technique required all predictor variables to have at least an ordinal scale of measurement. A researcher would collapse the predictor variables into categories, thus making the predictor variables reflect a nominal (categorical) scale of measurement. A factorial analysis (e.g. two-way ANOVA,

three-way ANOVA, etc.) could be conducted to assess potential impact and influence of the predictor variables on project manager performance.

The final area for further research would be to expand this study to a mixed method sequential explanatory design. I did not identify the expected relationship between emotional intelligence and project manager performance; inspirational motivation was the only significant contributor to the model. The qualitative component would be useful in providing insight, from the participant's views, why reported emotional intelligence scores were not predictive of project manager performance.

Reflections

Prior to conducting the research for this study, I had preconceived ideas that emotional intelligence and leadership styles would be statistically significant to project managers' performance. The desire to conduct a study on emotional intelligence and leadership styles originated from my personal experience on how soft skills and leadership style affected project success. I chose quantitative research methods and an anonymous survey participant pool to alleviate any risks related with my personal biases. I did not identify the expected relationship between emotional intelligence and project manager performance. Upon completion of the study, I realized that the results of the study could provide a foundation for future qualitative research that can provide insight, from the participant's views, why reported emotional intelligence scores were not predictive of project manager. The findings from this study have changed my personal perception of project management and made me revisit my personal views of leadership approach towards being a better project manager in the future.

Conclusions

Projects can fail despite advances in methods and tools. The human element of project management warrants serious consideration as a critical factor of the project manager's role and its link to project management success. A project manager's leadership style is a supplement to existing success factors. The results of this study indicated that as inspirational motivation increases, project management performance tends to increase. Based on these results, project managers should seek to enhance their inspirational motivation characteristics. Adoption of these findings might assist business leaders to improve project managers' performance which will increase the propensity of organizational success.

References

- Abbasi, E., & Zamani-Miandashti, N. (2013). The role of transformational leadership, organizational culture and organizational learning in improving the performance of Iranian agricultural faculties. *Higher Education, 65*, 1-15. doi:10.1007/s10734-013-9618-8
- Acharya, A., Prakash, A., Saxena, P., & Nigam, A. (2013). Sampling: Why and how of it? *Indian Journal of Medical Specialties, 4*, 330-333. doi:10.7713/ijms.2013.0032
- Aggarwal, J., & Krishnan, V. R. (2013). Impact of transformational leadership on followers self-efficacy: Moderating role of follower's impression management. *Management and Labour Studies, 38*, 297-313. doi:10.1177/0258042x13513129
- Allameh, S. M., Pool, J. K., Kazemi, R. V., & Mostafavi, M. (2015). The impact of emotional intelligence on transformational leadership and leader effectiveness. *Latin American Journal of Management for Sustainable Development, 2*, 83-93. doi:10.1504/LAJMSD.2015.067473
- Anantatmula, V. S. (2010). Project manager leadership role in improving project performance. *Engineering Management Journal, 22*, 13-22. Retrieved from <http://www.asem.com>
- Antonakis, J., Avolio, B.J., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (2003). Context and leadership: An examination of the nine-factor full-range leadership theory using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. *Leadership Quarterly, 14*, 261-295. doi:10.1016/S1048-9843(03)00030-4

- Armstrong, R. A. (2014). When to use the Bonferroni correction. *Ophthalmic & Physiological Optics*, 34, 502-508. doi:10.1111/opo.12131
- Aronson, Z. H., Shenhar, A. J., & Patanakul, P.P. (2013). Managing the intangible aspects of a project: The effect of vision, artifacts, and leader values on project spirit and success in technology-driven projects. *Project Management Journal*, 44, 35-58. doi:10.1002/21322
- Asmawi, A., Zakaria, S., & Wei, C. (2013). Understanding transformational leadership and R&D culture in Malaysian universities. *Innovation: Management, Policy & Practice*, 15, 287-304. doi:10.5172/imp.2013.15.3.287
- Astalin, P. K. (2013). Qualitative research designs: A conceptual framework. *International Journal of Social Science and Interdisciplinary Research*, 2, 118-124. Retrieved from <http://www.indianresearchjournals.com>
- Austin, C., Browne, W., Haas, B., Kenyatta, E., & Zulueta, S. (2013). Application of project management in higher education. *Journal of Economic Development, Management, IT, Finance and Marketing*, 5, 75-99. Retrieved from <http://gsmijgb.com>
- Awadzi Calloway, J. D. (2010). *Performance implications of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership: Toward the development of a self-efficacious military leader* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3413132)

- Awan, M. H., Ahmed, K., & Zulqarnian, W. (2015). Impact of project manager's soft leadership skills on project success. *Journal of Poverty, Investment, and Development*, 8, 27-46. Retrieved from www.iiste.com
- Ayoko, O. B., & Chua, E. L. (2014). The importance of transformational leadership behaviors in team mental model similarity, team efficacy, and intra-team conflict. *Group and Organization Management*, 39, 504-531.
doi:10.1177/1059601114550080
- Babbie, E. (2015). *The practice of social research* (14th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomson.
- Balamohan, P., Tech, M., & Gomathi, S. (2015). Emotional intelligence: Its importance and relationship with individual performance, team-effectiveness, leadership and marketing effectiveness. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 6, 120-128.
doi:10.5901/mjss.2015.v6n1p120
- Barani, G., & Rajesh, R. (2012). A study on factors influencing faculty performance management system in technical educational institutions. *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences*, 50, 168-179.
- Barends, E., Janssen, B., ten Have, W., & ten Have, S. (2014). Difficult but doable: Increasing the internal validity of organizational change management studies. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 50, 50-54.
doi:10.1177/0021886313515614

- Barker, M. (2013). Finding audiences for our research: Rethinking the issue of ethical challenges. *Journal of the Communication Review, 16*, 70-80.
doi:10.1080/10714421.2013.757504
- Bar-On, R. (1997). *The emotional quotient inventory (EQ-i): Users manual*. Toronto, ON, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
- Bar-On, R. (2006). The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI). *Psicothema, 18*, 13-25. Retrieved from <http://www.psicothema.com/english>
- Barr, D. J., Levy, R., Scheepers, C., & Tily, H. J. (2013). Random effects structure for confirmatory hypothesis testing: Keep it maximal. *Journal of Memory and Language, 68*, 255-278. doi:10.1016/j.jml.2012.11.001
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1995). *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire technical report*. Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2004). *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire: Manual and sampler set* (3rd ed.) Mind Garden, Inc.
- Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational leadership*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Batool, B. F. (2013). Emotional intelligence and effective leadership. *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly, 4*, 84-94. Retrieved from <http://www.jbsq.org>

- Berger, R. (2015). Now I see it, now I don't: Researcher's position and reflexivity in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research, 15*, 219-234. Retrieved from <http://qrj.sagepub.com>
- Bernard, H. R. (2013). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Bertholo, J. (2013). The shadow in project management. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 74*, 358-368. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.03.007
- Bornstein, M., Jager, J., & Putnick, D. (2013). Sampling in developmental science: Situations, shortcomings, solutions, and standard. *Developmental Review, 33*, 357-370. doi:10.1016/j.dr.2013.08.003
- Bosco, F. A., Aguinis, H., Singh, K., Field, J. G., & Pierce, C. A. (2015). Correlational effect size benchmarks. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 100*, 431-449. doi:10.1037/a0038047
- Brandon, D. M., Long, J. H., Loraas, T. M., Mueller-Phillips, J., & Vansant, B. (2014). Online instrument delivery and participant recruitment services: Emerging opportunities for behavioral accounting research. *Behavioral Research in Accounting, 26*, 1-23. doi:10.2308/bria-50651
- Braun, S., Peus, C., Weisweiler, S., & Dieter, F. (2013). Transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and team performance: A multilevel mediation model of trust. *Leadership Quarterly, 24*, 270-283. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.11.006
- Breevaart, K., Bakker, A., Hetland, J., Demorouti, E., Olsen, O. K., Espevik, R. (2013). Daily transactional and transformational leadership and daily employee

- engagement. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 87, 138-157. doi:10.1111/joop.12041
- Bryman, A. (2015). *Social research methods* (5th ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Burns, J. M. (2010). *Leadership*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Burton, L., & Welty Peachey, J. (2013). The call for servant leadership in intercollegiate athletics. *Quest*, 65, 354-371. doi:10.1080/00336297.791870
- Cailier, J. G. (2014). Toward a better understanding of the relationship between transformational leadership, public service motivation, mission valence, and employee performance: A preliminary study. *Public Personal Management*, 4, 218-239. doi:10.1177/0091026014528478
- Caldwell, C., McConkie, M., & Lincoln, B. (2014). Simon Peter and transformative leadership: Leadership insights for today's leaders. *Journal of Management and Strategy*, 5, 18-32. doi:10.5430/jms.v5n1p18
- Callier, J. G. (2013). Do employees feel comfortable blowing the whistle when their supervisors practice transformational leadership. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 36, 1020-1028. doi:10.1080/01900692.2013.798812
- Carter, M. Z., Armenakis, A. A., Field, H. S., & Mossholder, K. W. (2013). Transformational leadership, relationship quality, and employee performance during continuous incremental organizational change. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 34, 942-958. doi:10.1002/job.1824

- Carter, M. Z., Mossholder, K. W., Field, H. S., & Armenakis, A. A. (2014). The effect of racial and gender dissimilarity between supervisors and subordinates. *Group and Organization Management, 39*, 691-719. doi:10.1177/1059601114551605
- Caruth, G. D. (2013). Demystifying mixed methods research design: A review of the literature. *Mevlana International Journal of Education, 3*, 112-122. doi:10.13054/mije.13.35.3.2
- Catania, J. T., Armstrong, G., & Tucker, J. (2013). The effects of project management certification on the triple constraint. *International Journal of Information Technology Project Management, 4*, 93-111. doi:10.4018/ijitpm.2013100106
- Cavazotte, F., Moreno, V., & Bernardo, J. (2013). Transformational leaders and work performance: The mediating roles of identification and self-efficacy. *Brazilian Administration Review, 10*, 490-512. doi:10.1590/S1807-76922013000400007
- Charlwood, A., Forde, C., Grugulis, I., Hardy, K., Kirkpatrick, I., MacKenzie, R., & Stuart, M. (2014). Clear, rigorous, and relevant: Publishing quantitative research articles in work, employment and society. *Work Employment and Society, 28*, 155-167. doi:10.1177/0950017014526448
- Cherry, M. G., Fletcher, I., & O'Sullivan, H. (2013). Exploring the relationships among attachment, emotional intelligence and communication. *Medical Education, 47*, 317-325. doi:10.1111/medu.12115
- Cheok San, L., & O'Higgins, E. (2013). Emotional intelligence and leadership styles in China. *Asia Pacific Management Review, 18*, 441-468. doi:10.6126/APMR.213.18.4.06

- Chih, Y. Y., & Zwikael, O. (2015). Project benefit management: A conceptual framework of target benefit formulation. *International Journal of Project Management*, 33, 352-362. doi:10.1016/j.ijproman.2014.06.002
- Chintaman, S. A. (2014). Business research method – A review. *International Journal of Management Research and Reviews*, 4, 416-420. Retrieved from <http://ijmrr.com/>
- Choudhary, A. I., & Akhtar, S. A. (2013). Impact of transformational and servant leadership on organizational performance: A comparative analysis. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 116, 433-440. doi:10.1007/s10551-012-1470-8
- Chughati, M. W., & Lateef, K. (2015). Role of emotional intelligence on employees performance in customer services: A case study of telecom sector of Pakistan. *International Journal of Advance Research in Computer Science and Management Studies*, 3, 101-108. Retrieved from <http://www.ijarcsms.com>
- Clarke, S. (2013). Safety leadership: A meta-analytic review of transformational and transactional leadership styles as antecedents of safety behaviors. *Journal of Occupational and organizational Psychology*, 86, 22-49. Retrieved from <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com>
- Clinebell, S., Skudiene, V., Trijonyte, R., & Reardon, J. (2013). Impact of leadership styles on employee organizational commitment. *Journal of Service Science*, 6, 139. Retrieved from <http://www.cluteonline.com>
- Codier, E. (2014). Making the case of emotionally intelligent leaders. *Nursing Management*, 45, 44-48. doi:10.1097/01.NUM.0000440634.64013.11

- Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S., & Aiken, L. (2013). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Cokley, K., & Awad, G. H. (2013). In defense of quantitative methods: Using the “Master’s Tools” to promote social justice. *Journal for Social Action in Counseling & Psychology, 5*, 26-41. Retrieved from <http://www.jsacp.tumblr.com>
- Collinson, D. (2014). Dichotomies, dialectics, and dilemmas: New directions for critical leadership studies? *Leadership, 10*, 36-55. doi:10.1177/1742715013510897
- Connelly, L. M. (2013). Limitation section. *Medsurg Nursing, 22*, 325-325, 336. Retrieved from <http://www.medsurnursing.net/cgi-bin/WebObjects/MSNJournal.woa>
- Cooper, D., & Schindler, P. (2013). *Business research methods* (12th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.
- Corbin, W. R., Farmer, N., M., & Nolen-Hoeksma, S. (2013). Relations among stress, coping strategies, coping motives, alcohol, consumption and related problems: A mediated moderation model. *Addictive Behaviors, 36*, 1912-1919. doi:10.1016/j.addbeh.2012.12.005
- Coxe, S., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2013). *The Oxford handbook of quantitative methods*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Creasy, T., & Anantatmula, V. S. (2013). From every direction, how personality traits and dimensions of project managers can conceptually affect project success. *Project Management Journal, 44*, 36-51. doi:10.1002/pmj.21372

- Crowne, K. A. (2013). Cultural exposure, emotional intelligence, and cultural intelligence an exploratory study. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 13, 5-22. doi:10.1177/1470595812452633
- Cserhati, G., & Szabo, L. (2014). The relationship between success criteria and success factors in organizational event projects. *International Journal of Project Management*, 32, 613-624. doi:10.1016/j.ijproman.2013.08.008
- Dahlvig, J., & Longman, K. A. (2014). Contributors to women's leadership development in Christian higher education: A model and emerging theory. *Journal of Research on Christian Education*, 23, 5-28. doi:10.1080/10656219.2014.862196
- Debnath, S. C., Lee, B. B., & Tandon, S. (2015). Fifty years and going strong: What makes behaviorally anchored rating scales so perennial as an appraisal method? *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 6, 16-25. Retrieved from [http:// www.ijssnet.com](http://www.ijssnet.com)
- Didraga, O. (2013). The role and the effects of risk management in IT projects' success. *Information Economica*, 17, 86-98. doi:10.12948/issn1451305/17.2013.08
- Druskat, V. U., Mount, G., & Sala, F. (2013). *Linking emotional intelligence and performance at work: Current research evidence with individuals and groups*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associate, Inc.
- Dulaimi, M. F. (2004). The influence of academic education and formal training on the project manager's behavior. *Journal of Construction Research*, 6, 179-193. Retrieved from <http://www.worldscientific.com>

- Dulaimi, M. F., & Langford, D. (1999). Job behavior of construction project managers: determinants and assessment. *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management*, 125, 256-264. doi:10.1061/(ASCE)0733-9364(1999)125:4(256)
- Dziura, J. D., Post, L. A., Zhao, Q., Fu, Z., & Peduzzi, P. (2013). Strategies for dealing with missing data in clinical trials: From design to analysis. *Yale Journal of Biology and Medicine*, 86, 343-358. Retrieved from <http://www.nih.gov>
- Ekekwe, O. J. (2013). *Relationship between institutional framework and growth of SMEs in Nigeria's petroleum industry* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertation and Theses database. (UMI No. 1318499616)
- El Badawy, T. A., Srivastava, S., & Sadek, M. B. (2014). Assessing the relationship between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and organizational learning capability in private higher education institutions in Egypt and India: A comparative study. *International Journal of Business Administration*, 5, 38-47. doi:10.5430/ijba.v5n6p38
- Fan, X. (2013). "The test is reliable"; "The test is valid: Language use, unconscious assumptions, and education research practice. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 22, 217-218. doi:10.1007/s40299-012-0036-y
- Fan, Y., Thomas, M., & Anantatmula, V. (2014). A longitudinal study of the required skills of project managers. *Journal of Modern Project Management*, 1, 138-154. Retrieved from <http://journalmodernpm.com>

- Farrokhyar, M., Reddy, D., Poolman, R., & Bhandari, M. (2013). Practical tips of surgical research: Why perform a priori sample size calculation? *Canadian Journal of Surgery, 56*, 207-213. doi:10.1503/cjc.018012
- Fasola, O. S., Adeyemi, M. A., & Olowe, F. T. (2013). Exploring the relationship between transformational, transactional leadership style and organizational commitment among Nigerian banks employees. *International Journal of Academic Research in Economic and Management Sciences, 2*, 96-107. doi:10.6007/IJREMS/v2-i6/445
- Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A. G. (2009). Statistical power analyses using G*Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analysis. *Behavior Research Methods, 41*, 1149-1160. doi:10.3758/BRM.41.4.1149
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS Statistics*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Gardner, H. (2011). *Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Garel, G. (2013). A history of project management models: From pre-models to the standard models. *International Journal of Project Management, 31*, 663-669. doi:101016/j.iproman.2012.12011
- George, D., & Mallery, P. (2013). *SPSS for Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference. 18.0 Update* (13th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

- Gialuisi, O., & Coetzer, A. (2013). An exploratory investigation into voluntary employee turnover and retention in small business. *Small Enterprise Research, 20*, 55-68.
doi:10.5172/ser.2013.20.1.55
- Gignac, G. (2015). Seven-factor model of emotional intelligence as measured by Genos EI. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment, 26*, 309-316.
doi:10.1027/1015.5759/a000041
- Gioia, D. A., Corley, K. G., & Hamilton, A. L. (2013). Seeking qualitative rigor in inductive research. *Organizational Research Methods, 16*, 15-31.
doi:10.1177/1094428112452151
- Goh, S. K., & Low, B. Z. J. (2013). The influence of servant leadership towards organizational commitment: The mediating role of trust in leaders. *International Journal of Business and Management, 9*, 17-25. doi:10.5539/ijbm.v9n1p17
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York, NY: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (2011). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York, NY: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2013). *Primal leadership: Unleashing the power of emotional intelligence*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business Review Press.
- Green, S. B., & Salkind, N. J. (2013). *Using SPSS for Windows and Macintosh: Analyzing and understanding data* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

- Greenidge, D., Devonish, D., & Alleyne, P. (2014). The relationship between ability-based emotional intelligence and contextual performance and counterproductive work behaviors: A test of mediating effects of job satisfaction. *Human Performance, 27*, 225-242. doi:10.1080/08959285.2014.913591
- Gringeri, C., Barusch, A., Cambron, C. (2013). Epistemology in qualitative social work research: A review of published articles, 2008-2010. *Social Work Research, 37*, 55-63. doi:10.1093/swr/svs032
- Grunes, P., Gudmundsson, A., & Irmer, B. (2013). To what extent is the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model of emotional intelligence a useful predictor of leadership style and perceived leadership outcomes in Australian educational institutions? *Educational Management Administration and Leadership, 42*, 112-135. doi:10.1177/1741143213499255
- Guillaume, O., Honeycutt, A., & Savage-Austin, A. R. (2013). The impact of servant leadership on job satisfaction. *Journal of Business and Economics, 4*, 444-448. Retrieved from <http://www.academicstar.us>
- Gupta, V., & Kumar, S. (2013). Impact of performance appraisal justice on employee engagement a study of Indian professionals. *Employee Relations, 35*, 61-78. doi:10.1108/01425451311279410
- Hamstra, M. R., W., Van Yperen, N., W., Wisse, B., & Sassenberg, K. (2014). Transformational and transactional leadership and followers' achievement goals. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 29*, 413-425. doi:10.1007/s10869-013-9322-

- Hannah, S. T., Schaubroeck, J. M., & Peng, A. C. (2015). Transforming followers' value internalization and role self-efficacy: Dual processes promoting performance and peer norm-enforcement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. (Online)
doi:10.1037/ap10000038
- Hess, J. D., & Bacigalupo, A. C. (2014). Enhancing decisions and decision-making process through the application of emotional intelligence skills. *Journal of Management Policies and Practices*, 2, 1-17. doi:10.15640/jmpp.v2n3a1
- Ho, C. F., Hsieh, P. H., & Hung, W. H. (2014). Enablers and processes for effective knowledge management. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 114, 734-754.
doi:10.1108/IMDS-08-2013-0343
- Hornstein, H. (2015). The integration of project management and organizational change management is now a necessity. *International Journal of Project Management*, 33, 291-298. doi:10.1016/j.ijproman.2014.08.005
- Hu, J., & Linden, R. (2015). Making a difference in the teamwork: Linking team prosocial motivation to team processes and effectiveness. *Academy of Management Journal*, 58, 1102-1127. doi:10.5465/amj.2012.1142
- Humphrey, R. H., Ashforth, B. E., & Diefendorff, J. M. (2015). The bright side of emotional labor. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 36, 749-769.
doi:10.1002/job.2019
- Hwang, B. G., & Ng, W. J. (2013). Project management knowledge and skills for green construction: Overcoming challenges. *International Journal of Project Management*, 3, 272-284. doi:10.1015/j.ijproman.2012.05.004

- Hyett, N., Kenny, A., & Dickson-Swift, V. (2014). Methodology or method? A critical review of qualitative case study reports. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-being*, 9, 1-12. doi:10.3402/qhw.v9.23606
- Ibanez-Gonzalez, D. L., Mendenhall, E., & Norris, S. (2014). A mixed methods exploration of patterns of healthcare utilization of urban women with non-communication disease in South Africa. *BMC Health Services Research*, 14, 658-673. doi:10.1186/s12913-014-0528-y
- Inyang, B. J. (2013). Exploring the concept of leadership derailment: Defining new research agenda. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 8, 78-85. doi:10.5539/ijbm.v8n16p79
- Islam, S., & Ali, N. (2013). Motivation-hygiene theory: Applicability on teachers. *Journal of Managerial Science*, 7, 87-104. Retrieved from <http://www.qurtuba.edu.pk/jms/>
- Jabeen, F., Behery, M., & Elanain, H. A. (2015). Examining the relationship between the psychological contract and organizational commitment: The mediating effect of transactional leadership in the UAE context. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 23, 102-122. doi:10.1108/IJOA-10-2014-0812
- Jiang, J. (2014). The study of the leadership between leadership behavior and project success. *American Journal of Trade and Policy*, 1, 51-55. Retrieved from <http://www.journals.abc.us.org/index.php/ajtp/index>

- Joseph, D. L., Jing J., Newman, D. A., & O'Boyle, E. H. (2015). Why does self-reported emotional intelligence predict job performance? A meta analytic investigation of mixed EI. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 100*, 298-342. doi:10.1037/a0037681
- Judge, T. A., & Zapata, C. P. (2015). The person-situation debate revisited: Effect of situation strength and trait activation on the validity of the Big Five personality traits in predicting job performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 58*, 1149-1179. doi:10.5465/amj.2010.0837
- Kamisan, P. & King, B. M. (2013). Transactional and transformational leadership: A comparative study of the different between Tony Fernandes (Airasia) and Idris Jala (Malaysia Airlines) leadership styles from 2005-2009. *International Journal of Business & Management, 8*,107-116. doi:10.5539/ijbm.v8n24p107
- Keil, M., Lee, H. K., & Deng, T. (2013). Understanding the most critical skills for managing IT projects: A Delphi study of IT project managers. *Information and Management, 50*, 398-414. doi:10.1016/j.im.2013.05.005
- Kerzner, H. (2013). *Project management: A system approach to planning, scheduling, and controlling*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Keskes, I. (2014). Relationship between leadership styles and dimensions of employee organizational commitment. A critical review and discussion of future directions. *Intangible Capital, 10*, 26-51. doi:10.3926/ic.476
- Khanna, M., & Sharma, R. J. (2014). Employees' performance appraisal and its techniques: A review. *Asian Journal of Advanced Basic Sciences, 2*, 51-58.
Retrieved from <http://www.ajabs.org>

- Kim, H., & Kim, J. (2015). A cross-level study of transformational leadership and organizational affective commitment in the Korean local government: Mediating role of procedural justice and moderating role of culture types based on competing values framework. *Leadership, 11*, 158-185.
doi:10.1177/1742715013514880
- Kline, R. B. (2015). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (4th edition). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Knippenberg, D., & Sitkin, S. B. (2013). A critical assessment of charismatic transformational leadership research: Back to the drawing board? *Academy of Management Annals, 7*, 1-60. doi:10.1080/19416520.2013.759433
- Kumar, R. (2014). *Research methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Lam, C., & O'Higgins, E. E. (2012). Enhancing employee outcomes: The interrelated influences of manager's emotional intelligence and leadership style. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 33*, 149-174.
doi:10.1108/01437731211203465
- Lawlor, K. B., Batchelor, J. H., & Abston, K. (2015). The Moderating Role of Time on the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership. *Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship, 20*, 28-48.
doi:10.9774/GLLEAF.1158.2015.0004

- Lee, H., Park, J., & Lee, J. (2013). Role of leadership competencies and team social capital in IT services. *Journal of Computer Information Systems*, 53, 1-11.
Retrieved from <http://iacis.org/jcis/articles/JCIS534-1.pdf>
- Lee, J. H., Kim, M. S., & Jeon, A. (2013). The effects of emotional intelligence on service recovery and organizational loyalty: A case of flight attendance of South Korean airlines. *Service Business*, 7, 665-686. doi:10.1007/s11628-012-0181-7
- Lee, N., Zvonkovic, A. M., & Crawford, D. W. (2014). The impact of work-family conflict and facilitation on women's perceptions of role balance. *Journal of Family Issues*, 35, 1252-1274. doi:10.1177/0192513X13481332
- Leedy, P. D., & Ormrod, J. E. (2015). *Practical research: Planning and design* (11th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Merrill Prentice-Hall.
- Lewis, S. (2015). Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches. *Health Promotion Practice*, 16, 473-475.
doi:10.1177/1524839915580941
- Li, N., Barrick, M. R., Zimmerman, R. D., & Chiaburu, D. S. (2014). Retaining the productive employee: The role of personality. *The Academy of Management Annual*, 8, 347-395. doi:10.1080/19416520.214.890368
- Liang, S., & Chi, S. S. (2013). Transformational leadership and follower task performance: The role of susceptibility to positive emotions and follower positive emotion. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 28, 17-29. doi:10.1007/s10869-012-9261-x

- Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., Liao, C., & Meuser, J. D. (2014). Servant leadership and serving culture: Influence on individual and unit performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *57*, 1434-1452. doi:10.5465/amj.2013.0034
- Lijffijt, J., Papapetrou, P., & Puolamaki, K. (2014). A statistical significance testing approach to mining the most informative set of patterns. *Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery*, *28*, 238-263. doi:10.1007/s10618-012-0298-2
- Lindebaum, D., & Cartwright, S. (2010). A critical examination of the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. *Journal of Management Studies*, *47*, 1317-1342. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6486.2010.00933
- Lindebaum, D., & Jordan, P. J. (2012). Relevant but exaggerated: The effect of emotional intelligence on project manager performance in construction. *Construction Management and Economics*, *30*, 575-583. doi:10.1080/01446193.2011.593184
- Lindgren, M., Packendorff, J., & Sergi, V. (2014). Thrilled by the discourse, suffering through the experience: Emotions in project-based work. *Human Relations*, *4*, 604-624. doi:10.1177/0018726713520022
- Locke, L., Spirduso, W. W., & Silverman, S. J. (2014). *Proposals that work: A guide for planning dissertations and grant proposals* (6th ed.). New York, NY: Sage.
- Lowe, K., Avolio, B., & Dum Dum, U. (2013). Transformational and charismatic leadership: The road ahead. *Leadership and Management*, *5*, 71-75. doi:10.1108/S1479-3571(2013)000000509
- MacDonald, C., Walker, D. H., & Moussa, N. (2013). Towards a project alliance value for money framework. *Facilities*, *31*, 279-309. doi:10.1108/02632771311307179

- Maamari, B. E., & Majdalani, J. F. (2017). Emotional intelligence, leadership style and organizational climate. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 25. doi:10.1108/IJOA-04-2016-1010.
- Maritz, R., Pretorius, M., & Plant, K. (2012). Exploring the interface between strategy making and responsible leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 98, 101-113. doi:10.1007/s10551-011-1024-5
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. (2015). *Designing qualitative research* (6th ed). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). *What is emotional intelligence?* New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Mastrangelo, A., Eddy, E., R., & Lorenzet, S.I J. (2014). The relationship between enduring leadership and organizational performance. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 35, 590. doi:10.1108/LODJ-082012-0097
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2012). The validity of the MSCEIT: Additional analyses and evidence. *Emotion Review*, 4, 403-408. doi:10.1177/1754073912335815
- Mayoh, J., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2013). Towards a conceptualization of mixed methods phenomenological research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 9, 91-107. doi:10.1177/1558689813505358
- McCleskey, J. M. (2014). Situational, transformational, and transactional leadership and leadership development. *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly*, 5, 117-130. Retrieved from <http://jbsq.org>

- McKnight, L. L. (2013). Transformational leadership in the context of punctuated change. *Journal of Leadership, Accountability, and Ethics, 10*, 103-112.
Retrieved from <http://www.na-businesspress.com>
- Men, L. R. (2014). Strategic internal communication: Transformational leadership, communication channels, and employee satisfaction. *Management Communication Quarterly, 28*, 264-284. doi: 10.1177/089331891452436
- Metcalf, L., & Benn, S. (2013). Leadership for sustainability: An evolution of leadership ability. *Journal of Business Ethics, 112*, 369-384. doi:10.1007/s10551-012-1278-6.
- Mittal, S. & Dhar, R. L. (2015). Transformational leadership and employee creativity. *Management Decision, 53*, 894-910. doi:10.1108/MD-07-2014-0464
- Mir, F. A., & Pinnington, A. H. (2014). Exploring the value of project management: linking project management performance and project success. *International Journal of Project Management, 32*, 202-217.
doi:10.1016/j.ijproman.2013/05/012
- Morris, P. W. G. (2014). Project management: A profession with a hole in its head or, why a change in the culture of academic support is needed for the profession. *Engineering Project Organization Journal, 4*, 147-151.
doi:10.1080/21573737.2013.873717
- Moss, B. G., & Yeaton, W. H. (2014). Evaluating effects of developmental education for college students using a regression discontinuity design. *Evaluation Review, 37*, 370-404. doi:10.1177/0193841X14523620

- Muller, R., & Marinsuo, M. (2015). The impact of relational norms on information technology project success and its moderation through project governance. *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business*, 8, 154-176.
doi:10.1108/IJMPB-04-2014-0036
- Muller, R., Pfarrer, M. D., & Little, L. M. (2014). A theory of collective empathy in corporate philanthropy decisions. *Academy of Management Review*, 39, 1-21.
doi:10.5465/amr.2012.0031
- Myrick, K. M., & Fienn, R. (2014). Internal and external validity of THIRD test for hip labral tears. *The Journal for Nurse Practitioners*, 10, 540-544.
doi:10.1016/j.nurpra.214.06.021
- Nahavandi, A. (2014). *The art and science of leadership* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Nahod, M. M., & Mladen, V. (2013). The impact of ICB 3.0 competences on project management success. *Journal of Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 74, 244-254.
doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.03.014
- Niroomand, S. M., Behjat, F., & Rostampour, M. (2014). a quantitative study on the relationship between EFL university student's emotional intelligence and motivation. *Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods*, 4, 137.
- Northouse, P. G. (2015). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (7th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Nubold, A., Dorr, S. L., & Maier, G. W. (2015). Considering the orphan: Personal identification and its relations with transformational leadership, trust, and

performance in a three-path mediation model. *Leadership*, 11, 230-254.

doi:10.1177/1742715014522679

Ogihara, S. (2014). *Leadership styles and organizational effectiveness in a Japanese information technology firm* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3634213)

O'Reilly, M., & Parker, N. (2013). "Unsatisfactory saturation": A critical exploration of the notion of saturated sample sizes in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research*, 13, 190-197. doi:10.1177/1468794112446106

Pallant, J. (2013). *The SPSS survivor manual* (5th ed.). Berkshire, England: Open University Press.

Park, J. G., Kim, J. S., Yoon, S., & Joo, B. K. (2017). The effects of empowering leadership on psychological well-being and job engagement: The mediating role of psychological capital. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 38, 350-367. doi:10.1108/LODJ-08-2015-0182

Parke, M., Seo, M., & Sherf, E. (2015). Regulating and facilitating: The role of emotional intelligence in maintaining and using positive affect for creativity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100, 917-934. doi:10.1037/a0038452

Parnell, R. B., & Onge, J. L. S. (2015). Teaching safety in nursing practice: Is emotional intelligence a vital component? *Teaching and Learning in Nursing*, 10, 88-92. doi:10.1016/j.teln.2014.11.001

- Parris, D. L., & Peachy, J. W. (2013). A systematic literature review of servant leadership theory in organizational contexts. *Journal of Business Ethics, 113*, 337-393. doi:10.1007/s10551-012-1322-6
- Patanakul, P. (2014). Project manager in multi-project environments. *Handbook on Project Management and Scheduling, 2*, 971-981. doi:10.1007/978-3-319-05915-0_14
- Pemsel, S., & Wiewiora, A. (2013). Project management office a knowledge broker in project based organizations. *International Journal of Project Management, 31*, 31-42. doi:10.1016/j.ijproman.2012.03.004
- Pomerance, M. H., & Converse, P. D. (2014). Investigating context specificity, self-schema characteristics, and personality test validity. *Personality and Individual Differences, 58*, 54-59. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2013.10.005
- Poore, B. M. (2014). *The relationship between organizational identity and social impact scores of benefit corporations* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 1513243802)
- Project Management Institute (PMI). (2013). *A guide to the project management body of knowledge* (5th ed.). Newton Square, PA: Author.
- Quintana, T. A., Park, S., & Cabrera, Y. A. (2015). Assessing the effect of leadership styles on employees' outcomes in international luxury hotels. *Journal of Business Ethics, 129*, 469-489. doi:10.1007/s10551-014-2170-3

- Rahim, M. A. (2014). A structural equations model of leaders' social intelligence and creative performance. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 23, 44-56.
doi:10.1111/caim.12045
- Ramos, P., & Mota, C. (2014). Perceptions of success and failure factors in information technology projects: A study from Brazilian companies. *Precedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 119, 349-357. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.040
- Randall, K. J. (2013). Emotional intelligence: What is it, and do Anglican clergy have it? *Mental Health, Religion & Culture*, 17, 262-270.
doi:10.1080/13674776.2013/796916
- Redick, A., Reyna, I., Schaffer, C., & Toomey, D. (2014). Four-factor model for effective project leadership competency. *Journal of Information Technology and Economic Development*, 5, 53-67. Retrieved from <http://www.gsmi-ijgb.com/Pages/JITED.aspx>
- Roster, C. A., Albaum, G., & Smith, S. M. (2014). Topic sensitivity and Internet survey design: A cross-cultural/national study. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 22, 91-102. doi:10.2753/MTP1069-6679220106
- Rousseau, M., Simon, M., Bertrand, R., & Hachey, K. (2012). Reporting missing data: A study of selected articles published from 2003-2007. *Quality and Quantity*, 46(5), 1393-1406. doi:10.1007/s11135-011-9452-y
- Rovai, P. A., Baker, D. J., & Ponton, K. M. (2013). *Social science research design and statistics: A practitioner's guide to research methods and IBM SPSS analysis*. Chesapeake, VA: Watertree Press.

- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality, 9*, 185-211. Retrieved from <http://www.sciencedirect.com>
- Sandelowski, M. (2015). A matter of taste: Evaluating the quality of qualitative research. *Nursing Inquiry, 22*, 86-94. doi:10.1111/nin.12080
- Sanjuan, A. G., & Froese, T. (2013). The application of project management standards and success factors to the development of a project management assessment tool. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 74*, 91-100.
doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.03.035
- Schlaerth, A., Ensari, N., & Christian, J. (2013). A meta-analytical review of the relationship between emotional intelligence and leaders' constructive conflict management. *Group Processes and Intergroup Relations, 16*, 126-136.
doi:10.1177/1368430212439907
- Schutte, N., Malouff, J., Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, J. T., Golden, C. J., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and individual differences, 25*, 167-177.
doi:10.1016/S0191-8869(98)00001-4
- Schutte, N., Malouff, J., & Bhullar, N. (2009). The assessing emotions scale. In C. Stough, D. Saklofske, & J. Parker (Eds.). *The assessment of emotional intelligence* (pp. 119-135). New York: Springer Publishing.
- Schutte, N. S., & Malouff, J., & Thorsteinsson, E. B. (2013). Increasing emotional intelligence through training: Current status and future directions. *International*

Journal of Emotional Education, 5, 56-72. Retrieved from

<http://www.um.edu.mt/edres/ijee>

Schutte, N. S., & Loi, N. M. (2014). Connections between emotional intelligence and workplace flourishing. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 66, 134-139.

doi:10.1016/j.paid.2014.03.031

Schweitzer, J. (2014). Leadership and innovation capability development in strategic alliances. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 35, 442.

doi:10.1108/LODJ-01-12-0001

Serrador, P., & Turner, R. (2015). The relationship between project success and project efficiency. *Project Management Journal*, 46, 30-39. doi:10.1002/pmj.21468

Shahhosseini, M., Daud Silong, A., & Arif Ismail, I. (2013) Relationship between transactional, transformational leadership styles, emotional intelligence and job performance. *Research World: Journal of Arts, Science, and Commerce*, 6, 15-22.

Retrieved from <http://www.researchworld.com>

Shatzer, R. H., Caldarella, P., Hallam, P. R., & Brown, B. L. (2014). Comparing the effects of instructional and transformational leadership on student achievement: Implications for practice. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 42, 445-459. doi:1177/1741143213502192

madterSinkowitz-Cochran, R. (2013). Survey design: To ask or not to ask? That is the question. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 56, 1159-1164. doi:10.1093/cid/cit005

- Smith, P. C., & Kendall, L. M. (1963). Re-translation of expectations: An approach to the construction of unambiguous anchors for rating. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 47, 149-155. doi:10.1037/h0047060
- Smith, T. A. (2014). Testing theory and related factors for influencing proficiency in quantitative research. *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*, 18, 117-128. Retrieved from <http://www.alliedacademies.org/>
- Spalek, S. (2014). Does investment in project management pay off? *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 114, 832-856. doi:10.1108/IMDS-10-2013-0447
- Stang, A., & Poole, C. (2013). The researcher and the consultant: A dialogue on null hypothesis significance testing. *European Journal of Epidemiology*, 28, 939-944. doi:10.1007/s10654-013-9861-4
- Stenling, A., & Tafvelin, S. (2014). Transformational leadership and well-being in sports: The mediating style of need satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 26, 182-196. doi:10.1080/10413200.2013.819392
- Suen, L. W., Huang, H., & Lee, H. (2014). A comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *Journal of Nursing*, 61, 105-111. doi:10.6224/JN.61.3.105
- Sullivan, G. M., & Feinn, R. (2012). Using effect size or why the *p* value is not enough. *Journal of Graduate Medical Education*, 4, 279-282. doi:10.4300/JGME-D-12-00156.1
- Sullivan, G. M., & Artino, A. R. (2013). Analyzing and interpreting data from Likert-type scales. *Journal of Graduate Medical Education*, 5, 541-542. doi:10.4300/JGME-5-4-18

- Sun, P. Y. (2013). The servant identity: Influences on the cognition and behavior of servant leaders. *Leadership Quarterly*, 24, 544-557.
doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.03.008
- SurveyMonkey. (2014). *Our audience*. Retrieved from
<http://www.surveymonkey/mp/audience/our-survey-respondents>
- SurveyMonkey. (2015). *Everything you wanted to know, but were afraid to ask*.
Retrieved from <https://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/aboutusSurveyMonkey>
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2012). *Using multivariate statistics* (6th ed.). New York, NY: Pearson.
- Tang, H. W., & Yin, M. S. (2013). Prioritizing emotional intelligence training needs using optimal globalization grey relational analysis. *Journal of Modeling in Management*, 8, 320-338. doi:10.1108/JM2-01-2011-0006
- Taylor, T. Z., Psotka, J., & Legree, P. (2015). Relationships among applications of tacit knowledge and transformational/transactional leader styles: An exploratory comparison of the MLQ and TKML. *Leadership and Organizational Development Journal*, 36, 120-136. doi:10.1108/LODJ-01-2013-008
- Tessema, D. B. (2010). *The relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership in project management: A quantitative study* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No.3402253)
- Theodore, J. (2014). The importance of imbedding the concept of continuous development in the formulation of global strategies. *International Journal of*

Management and Information Systems, 18, 109-116. Retrieved from

<http://cluteinstitute.com>

Tonkin, T. H. (2013). Authentic versus transformational leadership: Assessing their effectiveness on organizational citizenship behavior of followers. *International Journal of Business and Public Administration*, 10, 40-61. Retrieved from

<http://www.iabpad.com/IJBPA/>

Tourish, D. (2014). Leadership, more or less? A processual, communication perspective on the role of agency in leadership theory. *Leadership*, 10, 79-98.

doi:10.1177/1742715013509030

Turner, T. L., Balmer, D. F., & Coverdale, J. H. (2013). Methodologies and study designs relevant to medical education research. *International Review of Psychiatry*, 25,

301-310. doi:10.3109/09540261.2013.790310

Tyssen, A. K., Wald, A., & Spieth, P. (2013). The challenge of transactional and transformational leadership in projects. *International Journal of Project*

Management, 53, 535-546. doi:10.1016/j.ijproman.2013.05.010

Uhlir, Z. (2013). The effect of the project manager certification process on the development of project management: A Croatian perspective. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 74, 223-232. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.03.009

van der Hoorn, B., & Whitty, S. J. (2015). Signs to dogma: A Heideggerian view of how artefacts distort the project world. *International Journal of Project Management*,

33, 1206-1219. doi:10.1016/j.ijproman.2015.02.011

- Varajao, J., & Cruz-Cunha, M. M. (2013). Using AHP and the IPMA competence baseline in the project managers selection process. *International Journal of Production Research*, *51*, 3342-3354. doi:10.1080/00207543.2013.774473
- Verdinelli, S. (2013). Data display in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, *12*, 359-381. Retrieved from ejournals.library.ualberta.ca
- Vidyarathi, P. R., Anand, S., & Liden, R. C. (2014). Do emotionally perceptive leaders motivate higher employee performance? The moderating role of task interdependence and power distance. *Leadership Quarterly*, *25*, 232-244. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.08.003
- Vitak, J., Shilton, K., & Ashktorab, Z. (2016). Beyond the Belmont principles: Ethical challenges, practices, and beliefs in the online data research community. In *Proceedings of the 19th ACM Conference on Computer-Supported Cooperative Work & Social Computing*, 941-953. doi:10.1145/28180482820078
- Voss, M., & Kock, A. (2013). Impact of relationship value on project portfolio success: Investigating the moderating effects of portfolio characteristics and external turbulence. *International Journal of Project Management*, *31*, 847-861. doi:10.1016/j.ijproman.2012.11.005
- Waterbury, S. (2016). Transform your leadership. *Nursing Management*, *47*, 53-54. doi:10.1097/01.NUMA.0000488866.63732.dd
- Ward, P., Clark, T., Zabriskie, R., & Morris, T. (2014). Paper/pencil versus online data collection: An exploratory study. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *46*, 84-105. Retrieved from <http://www.questia.com>

- Ward, B. W. (2013). What's Better-R, SAS, SPSS, or Stat? Thought for instructor of statistics and research methods courses. *Journal of Applied Social Science*, 7, 115-120. doi:10.1177/1936724412450570
- Wechsler, D. (1940). The relationship between personality and psychological ability. *British Journal of Psychology*, 36, 133-151. Retrieved from <http://www.rmci.ase.ro>
- Weinberger, L. (2013). Emotional intelligence, leadership style, and perceived leadership effectiveness. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 11, 747-772. doi:10.1177/152342230936081
- Wester, K. L., & Borders, L. D. (2014). Research competencies in counseling: A delphi study. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 92, 447-458. doi:10.1002/j.1556-6676.2014.00171.x
- Whitley, E. B., & Kite, E. M. (2013). *Principle of research in behavioral science*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Wilcox, R., Carlson, M., Azen, S., & Clark, F. (2013). Avoid lost discoveries, because of violations of standard assumptions by using modern robust statistical methods. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*, 66, 319-329. doi:10.1016/j.jclinepi.2012.09.003
- Wisker, Z. L., & Poulis, A. (2014). Emotional intelligence - Sales performance relationship: A mediating role of adaptive selling behavior. *International Journal of Management and Economics*, 43, 32-35. doi:10.1515/ijme-2015-0002

- Wysocki, R. K. (2014). Effective project management: *Traditional, agile, extreme* (7th ed.). Indianapolis, IN: John Wiley & Sons.
- Yalabik, Z. Y., Popaitoon, P., Chowne, J. A., & Rayton, B. A. (2013). Work engagement as a mediator between employee attitudes and outcomes. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*, 2799-2823.
doi:10.1080/09585192.2013.763844
- Yang, L. R., Huang, C. F., & Hsu, T. J. (2014). Knowledge leadership to improve project and organizational performance. *International Journal of Project Management*, *32*, 40-35. doi:10.1016/j.ijproman.2013.01.011
- Yardley, L., & Bishop, F. L. (2015). Using mixed methods in health research: Benefits and challenges. *British Journal of Health Psychology*, *20*, 1-4.
doi:10.1111/bjhp.12126
- Yi-Feng, Y. (2014). Studies of transformational leadership: Evaluating two alternative models of trust and satisfaction. *Psychological Reports*, *114*, 740-757.
doi:10.2466/01.04.PRO.114k27w2
- Yilmaz, K. (2013). Comparison of quantitative and qualitative research traditions: Epistemological, theoretical, and methodological differences. *European Journal of Education*, *48*, 311-325. doi:10.1111/ejed.12014
- Young, A., & Temple, B. (2014). *Approaches to social research: The case of deaf studies*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

- Yukl, G. (2012). Effective leadership behavior: What we know and what questions need more attention. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 26, 66-85.
doi:10.5465/amp.2012.0088
- Zacher, H., Pearce, L. K., Rooney, D., & McKenna, B. (2014). Leaders' personal wisdom and leader member exchange quality: The role of individualized consideration. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 121, 171-187. doi:10.1007/s10551-013-1692-4
- Zahra, S., Nazir, A., Khalid, A., Raana, A., & Majeed, N. (2014). Performing inquisitive study of PM traits desirable for project progress. *International Journal of Modern Education and Computer Science*, 6, 41-47. doi:10.5815/ijmeecs.2014.02.06
- Zhu, W., Newman, A., Miao, Q., & Hooke, A. (2013). Revisiting the mediating role of trust in transformational leadership effects: Do different types of trust make a difference? *Leadership Quarterly*, 24, 94-105. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.08.004
- Zohrabi, M. (2013). Mixed method research: Instruments, validity, reliability and reporting findings. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3, 254-262.
doi:10.4304/tpls.3.2.254-262
- Zumrah, A. R. (2014). Service quality in Malaysian public sector: The role of transfer of training. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Science*, 144, 111-117.
doi:1.1016/j.sbspro.2014.07.279
- Zumrah, A. R. (2015). How to enhance the impact of training on service quality: Evidence from Malaysian public sector context. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 27, 514-529. doi:10.1108/JWL-06-2014-0048

Appendix E: SSEIT

Each of the following items asks you about your emotions or reactions associated with emotions. After deciding whether a statement is generally true for you, use the 5-point scale to respond to the statement. Please circle the “1” if you strongly disagree that this is like you, the “2” if you somewhat disagree that this is like you, “3” if you neither agree nor disagree that this is like you, the “4” if you somewhat agree that this is like you, and the “5” if you strongly agree that this is like you.

There are no right or wrong answers. Please give the response that best describes you.

- 1 = strongly disagree
- 2 = somewhat disagree
- 3 = neither agree nor disagree
- 4 = somewhat agree
- 5 = strongly agree

1. I know when to speak about my personal problems to others.
2. When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcome them.
3. I expect that I will do well on most things I try.
4. Other people find it easy to confide in me.
5. I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people.
6. Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important.
7. When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.
8. Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living.
9. I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.
10. I expect good things to happen.
11. I like to share my emotions with others.

12. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.
13. I arrange events others enjoy.
14. I seek out activities that make me happy.
15. I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others.
16. I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.
17. When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me.
18. By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing.
19. I know why my emotions change.
20. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas.
21. I have control over my emotions.
22. I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.
23. I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on.
24. I compliment others when they have done something well.
25. I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send.
26. When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I experienced this event myself.
27. When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas.
28. When I face a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail.
29. I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them.
30. I help other people feel better when they are down.
31. I used good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles.

32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice.

33. It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do.

Appendix F: MLQ

The objective of this survey 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, please leave the answers blank or select N/A as your response.

Listed below are five descriptive statements on the following pages. Judge according to the frequency that each statement fits you. Please note, the word, “others” refers to peers, direct reports, clients, supervisors, and/or all of the persons listed. Please use the following as the rating scale:

1. Not at all
2. Once in a while
3. Sometimes
4. Fairly often
5. Frequency if not always
6. N/A not applicable

1. I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.
2. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.
3. I do not intervene until problems become serious.
4. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.
5. I avoid getting involved when important issues arise.

Appendix G: Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scale (BARS) for Measuring Performance

The objective of this survey is to measure your performance. Please answer all items on this answer sheet.

If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, please leave the answers blank or select N/A as your response.

Listed below are five descriptive statements on the following pages. Judge according to the frequency that each statement fits you. Please use the following as the rating scale:

On a 1-5 scale

1. Very ineffective
2. Fairly ineffective
3. Average
4. Fairly effective
5. Very effective

1. Ensure commitment to safety and quality at all levels of staff.
2. Have the overall target constantly in mind with well-defined long-, medium-, and short-term goals.
3. Review costs against budgets and incomes on a regular basis, minimum monthly.
4. Think of the future effects that any decision will have on the overall project.
5. Monitor materials wastage on major items.
6. Advise the client if the project cost will be over the budget.
7. Determine costs to completion on a regular basis and base decisions on this.
8. Keep up to date with new ideas in the construction business.
9. Interpret the effect of changes in the contract.
10. Have an open attitude to new methods of working.

11. Shift resources to the site to cover unforeseen difficulties.
12. Look at financial performance rather than construction problems.
13. Monitor progress at long intervals, i.e., monthly instead of daily or weekly.
14. Leave functions such as income to the quantity surveyor and costs to the accountant.
15. Prefer confrontation to show senior management that you have the company's interest in mind.
16. Warn all parties of future problems they may cause by late information.
17. Hold regular co-ordination meetings.
18. Hold weekly planning, review, and co-ordination meetings at all levels.
19. Find it important to communicate with the professionals.
20. Select co-operative staff, employees, suppliers, and subcontractors who have worked well together.
21. Have short, daily, informal meeting during tea breaks or similar.
22. Write formally to make others aware of your plans and aims.
23. Separate the planning and execution functions of the project manager's work.
24. Rely upon the engineer/architect to set all standards on site.
25. Become bogged down in details, which others should handle.
26. Take each day as it comes and handle each crisis as it arises.
27. Have a company system for receiving and forwarding information coupled with informal contracts.
28. Set up mechanisms for transfer of information.

29. Delegate the responsibility for setting up a mechanism for transfer of information and for monitoring the process.
30. Have a separate department dealing with information received and advising on future requirements.
31. Make all communication formal, i.e., in writing.
32. Circulate all information available to everyone, irrespective of his or her needs.
33. Ignore paperwork, just concentrate on the main task. Ensure all communications are verbal.
34. Delegate work that is demanding but attainable.
35. Discuss with each member of staff his or her progress and good/bad points.
36. Have an organizational structure that allows staff to see their next position on the management ladder.
37. Stretch staff to test their ability to respond.
38. Allow junior staff to perform every function on a daily basis whilst retaining overall control.
39. Organize short courses on each company system.
40. Use company guidelines to provide opportunities for the team to develop.
41. Have career structures and a personnel department independent of the site to oversee promotions and rewards.
42. Have an open review of each individual performance.
43. Delegate repetitive work to subordinates.
44. Use the manager's time to educate staff.

45. Have daily informal contacts with all staff on site.
46. Think it is important that staff understand why things happen in a certain way.
47. Reward good staff and educate poorer members.
48. Ask the opinions of staff.
49. Tell people why you made a particular decision.
50. Give decent salaries and conditions to keep staff happy.
51. Take responsibility for errors of subordinates.
52. Despite bad work relationships, still entertain the team.
53. Expect that incentives could lead to shortcuts.
54. Have the capacity to ignore the opinion of one member of the project team.
55. Let managers above the project manager control incentives.
56. Apply pressure to individuals at too junior a level rather than to those responsible.
57. Have no consideration or regard for other persons'/organizations' aims or problems.