

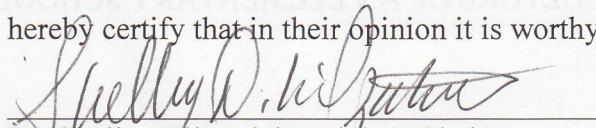
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PRINCIPAL AND STAFF EMOTIONAL
INTELLIGENCE AND THE CULTURE OF AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

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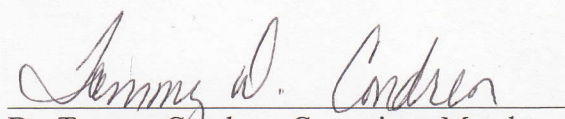
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INTELLIGENCE AND THE CULTURE OF AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

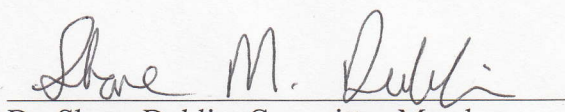
Presented by Crystal Magers, a candidate for the degree of Doctor of Education, and hereby certify that in their opinion it is worthy of acceptance.



Dr. Shelley Kilpatrick, Advisor Chair
Department of Behavioral Sciences Chairman



Dr. Tammy Condren, Committee Member
Professor of Graduate Studies in Education



Dr. Shane Dublin, Committee Member
Professor of Graduate Studies in Education

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PRINCIPAL AND STAFF EMOTIONAL
INTELLIGENCE AND THE CULTURE OF AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

A Dissertation
Presented to
The Faculty of the Graduate Education Department
Southwest Baptist University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

By

Crystal Magers, B.S., M.S.

Dr. Shelley Kilpatrick, Dissertation Advisor

April 2019

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This dissertation journey has been one of the most challenging and rewarding experiences I have had. I can honestly say this journey has made me twice the leader, educator and person I was prior to walking it. I have not only learned about leadership, but also about myself. There were moments when the challenge was so great, I was unsure I would make it. I could not have had a better advisor and committee. Each member of my committee had a different, special impact on my life. The support of my advisor, Dr. Kilpatrick, Dr. Condren, and Dr. Dublin is irreplaceable and I want to thank you for challenging me to dig deeper and helping me find an inner drive that I didn't know existed. Each of you made me better and I will forever be grateful for your support and mentorship.

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study. There was not a day that went by that my father wasn't serving his family, friends and community.

My mother has always been the most positive influence in my life! My mother helps me see the good in the world and in people. My mother taught me that no mountain is too high to climb, but also that she would be climbing that mountain alongside me. This influence has become a philosophy I share and pass on to my own family, friends and colleagues. Without the influence, support, encouragement and love of my mother this dissertation would not have been possible.

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ABSTRACT

Creating and sustaining a healthy school culture is the charge of every principal who leads an elementary school (Missouri DESE, 2013). Low levels of emotional intelligence in staff could result in conflictual interactions between students, staff, and parents, creating a toxic school culture. The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school, and the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school. The researcher conducted two studies measuring school culture and emotional intelligence in elementary school staff. For both studies, the researcher used the Assessing Emotions Scale, which addressed the four factors of emotional intelligence that Mayor and Salovey (1990) identified. Principals and certified school staff completed the surveys. Separate but similar measures of school culture were used in Study 1 and Study 2. The large school district in Missouri was already administering the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey; therefore, it became the measure of school culture. In Study 2, the School Culture Triage Survey was administered to a sample of elementary school staff in Missouri. In Study 1, a moderate, negative correlation was found, confirming a relationship between total school culture and total emotional intelligence scores. In Study 2, when analyzing individual level data, a moderate but significant positive correlation was found between the perceived culture of an elementary school and the emotional intelligence of staff. In Study 1 and Study 2, emotional intelligence of the principal was not tied to the school culture score. Ultimately, individual level data did indicate that

individuals who have higher levels of emotional intelligence will also perceive a positive school culture.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Overview

Every school has a culture, that feeling you get upon entering a school that helps you determine whether you want to be there or not. Although culture can be felt by anyone who enters the school, Short and Greer (1997) defined the intangible feeling as the traditions, beliefs, policies, and norms within a school that can be shaped, enhanced, and maintained through the school's principal and teacher-leaders. Schein (1992) elaborated when he defined culture this way:

A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. (p. 12)

Bolman and Deal (2008) defined culture as "the way we do things around here," (p. 278) and the anchor to an organization's identity and sense of itself. However defined, culture is something that should not be overlooked by school leaders and could mean success or failure for any school-wide initiative (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Deal & Peterson, 2009; Fullan, 2001; Schein, 2010).

Culture has been known to affect a school and has been deemed to be an important part of educational leadership programs for years. Although a strong emphasis has been placed on culture and its importance in schools, culture is not easily determined or measured. Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) referred to school culture as the personality of the school, which takes years to develop, is based on values and beliefs, and provides for a limited mindset. Culture is included within Bolman and Deal's (2008) symbolic

frame of organizational leadership and is credited as forming the super glue that unites people within an organization, helping the institution reach desired goals. Schein (2010) referred to culture as an abstraction, making it necessary to deal with the ideas behind situations that occur. The abstract ideas behind situations create a force within a school that is not only powerful but affects everything, every day (Schein, 2010).

One cannot thoroughly examine a school's culture without providing further attention to the day-to-day interactions between staff members. Personal relationships are a fundamental component of life, making emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills imperative (Bolman & Deal, 2008). Bar-On and Parker (2000) analyzed several studies in dozens of organizations, which suggested that flexibility, self-confidence, persistence, empathy, and the ability to get along with others make up about two thirds of the skills connected to high performance in the workplace. All the skills referenced by Bar-On and Parker were social or emotional skills. A national survey of employers found that 4 in 10 employees are not able to work cooperatively with fellow employees (Burgess, Lampe & Frankforter, 2013). A person's emotional intelligence can have a direct impact on personal relationships and day-to-day interactions.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as "The subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's own thinking and actions" (p. 189). The daily interactions between staff require each staff member to use their emotional intelligence to function as a team. Emotional intelligence not only affects interactions with others but also the way people go about their work. Goleman (1995) suggested that people who are emotionally versed are at an advantage in all areas of life, and more apt to be satisfied, effective, able to think clearly, and focus on

work. If you look at the emotional intelligence of staff within an elementary school and how they interact with one another, you will also be looking at an important part of the culture of a school.

Culture has received attention in both the education and business world (Goleman, 2005). Emotional intelligence has also become an idea that is well known, and several books and programs have been produced geared toward helping people improve their levels of emotional intelligence (Bolman & Deal, 2008). Marshall Goldsmith, ranked premier executive educator by *The Wall Street Journal*, *Forbes*, the *Harvard Business Review*, and *Fast Company*, endorses Emotional Intelligence 2.0: a step by step program created by Bradberry and Greaves to increase emotional intelligence, and even refers to the skills of emotional intelligence as critical when seeking high job performance (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Stephen Covey, Ken Blanchard, Joseph Grenny, Captain D. Michael Abrashoff, and Lois P. Frankel are among the many bestselling authors in business who deem the skills of emotional intelligence a powerful predictor of success in personal and professional life (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). In the past decade, enthusiasm for emotional intelligence has increased dramatically (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012). However, there is limited research on emotional intelligence and the relationship that exists between a school's culture and the emotional intelligence of staff who contribute to that school culture.

Some children have deficiencies in emotional intelligence resulting from an insecure home life. Goleman (1995) referred to schools as one of the few places communities can rely on to help repair the deficiencies children who are not provided a secure home life have in emotional and social competence. Goleman endorsed the use of emotional literacy courses as a tool to prevent violence in schools, while noting the

success of such courses implemented in several hundred New York City public schools. The Resolving Conflict Creatively Program founded by Lantieri involves training staff and students to recognize, name, and empathize with emotions and when implemented, has increased the care kids have for one another and decreased the number of fights in school (Goleman, 1995). Goleman also referred to the Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS) program, implemented as an intervention for changing the path of boys who were headed toward a future of violence and crime. This program is also an emotional literacy program that includes 50 lessons teaching different emotions, such as monitoring how you and those around you are feeling, controlling impulses, managing anger, and helping children manage social rejection and friendships. Since every child is required to go to school, Goleman stated it is the place in which children can receive the basic lessons for success in life that may not be provided outside of school and will in turn take up the slack for families who fall short in socializing children. Goleman went further to say this:

Whether or not there is a class explicitly devoted to emotional literacy may matter far less than how these lessons are taught. There is perhaps no subject where the quality of the teacher matters so much, since how a teacher handles her class is in itself a model, a de facto lesson in emotional competence-or the lack thereof.

Whenever a teacher responds to one student, twenty or thirty others learn a lesson.
(p. 279)

In this research, Goleman was referring to staff and student relationships, which is part of the culture of a school. A focus on emotional intelligence in schools could transform schools by creating a culture in which students feel cared for, respected, safe, and connected to peers, teachers, and the entire school community (Goleman, 1995). A

teacher's level of emotional intelligence can affect how he or she interacts with not only students but also with all stakeholders, which has a direct effect on the culture of the school. This research explored whether a relationship exists between a school's culture and the emotional intelligence of staff. If a relationship exists, measures can be taken to improve school culture through improving emotional intelligence in staff.

This chapter will present the problem statement while providing a rationale for the study. Additionally, the research questions, hypotheses, theoretical framework, assumptions, limitations, delimitations, and design controls will be included. To develop a common understanding of terms within this research, key terms will also be defined within this chapter.

Problem Statement

Culture is the foundation for everything that occurs within a school (Schein, 2010). "Every organization has a culture, that history and underlying set of unwritten expectations that shape everything about the school" (Peterson, 2002, p. 10). In order for an organization to be successful and achieve goals, the leader must have the ability to understand and shift the culture (Fullan, 2001). School culture has an effect on the way people behave on a daily basis and how they respond to challenges and change. Creating and sustaining a positive, healthy school culture starts with looking closely at what influences school culture. One of those factors could be emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence is directly related to people's behavior or responses to their environment. Emotional intelligence is defined by Mayer and Salovey (1997) this way:

The integration of several emotional abilities: the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion: the ability to access and/or generate feelings when

they facilitate thought: the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. (p. 10)

Noe (2012) conducted a study that showed no significant correlation when analyzing the relationship between a principal's overall emotional intelligence quotient and teacher-perceived culture. However, research regarding the effects of emotional intelligence of staff on school culture is limited. If staff are low in emotional intelligence, they may have difficulty understanding others' thoughts and feelings, perspective taking, and understanding or communicating their own thoughts and needs, all of which can contribute to a negative school culture.

Schein (1992) defined culture as the following:

A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. (p. 12)

A staff member's level of emotional intelligence can determine how they act, react, and interact with other staff, students, and parents. Since staff interactions are a large part of a school's culture, emotional intelligence could have a direct effect on the culture of a school. Low levels of emotional intelligence in staff could result in conflictual interactions between students, staff, and parents, thus creating a toxic school culture.

A toxic school culture also has traditions, rituals, stories, and a network of cultural players (Deal & Peterson, 2009). In a positive school culture, stakeholders encourage one another. In a toxic school culture, the cultural players are negative and put others down, debilitating those who are positive. Deal and Peterson (2016) explained several

characteristics of a toxic school culture: (a) school staff are focused on their own interests instead of what is best for students, for fear of losing power or status; (b) staff become destructive and hostile, using retaliation and distrust when handling disagreements; (c) staff are apathetic, view students as burdens, and applaud teachers for their lack of drive and disservice to students; (d) few celebrations or positive rituals are had, and incompetence and low expectations are celebrated instead; and (e) toxic staff members use social media to bully new teachers, complain, and attack other staff members. In a toxic school culture, pessimistic staff that are a part of an informal negative network working within the school often drive out positive teachers who are focused on the needs of students.

A toxic school culture affects staff, students, parents, and the community. In a positive culture, school assemblies and celebrations bring people within the school together. However, in a school with a toxic culture, people find meaning in negativity and villains bring people together to whine and grumble while becoming disinterested in the shared purpose for the school (Deal & Peterson, 2016). Students also become aware of the disinterest and lack of purpose and become detached. Daisy (as cited in Deal & Peterson, 2016) described toxic culture as the following:

A toxic culture is one where the most pure souls are viewed with suspicion, of course, they must have an ulterior motive...It is one where the nice guys finish last and the sociopaths win...It is a society where what matters...is taking part in the rigged game of finance for digits that have no real meaning. (p. 182)

The culture of a school is positive or toxic because of interactions between staff, students, and families.

Emotional intelligence involves a person's ability to monitor their own and others' feelings and emotions, and then use that information to determine how to react to a situation (Mayer & Salovey, 1990). If the emotional intelligence of staff members is high, stakeholders will be better at reading, understanding, and managing emotions, and those emotions will assist thinking and reasoning. When staff members are unable to make correct inferences about daily emotion-related interactions, they feel and act poorly at work, contributing to a toxic school culture (Krishnakumar, Hopkins, & Robinson, 2017). Individuals within a school face political pressure to achieve high academic scores, yet they receive low pay and experience stress because of expectations from parents and the community. A lack of emotional intelligence could prohibit a person from successfully managing the stress and pressure related to the education field, thus contributing to a toxic school culture. By improving emotional intelligence of staff, staff members are better equipped to deal with pressure or stress they face daily while on the job.

A toxic school culture is not a healthy situation for an organization entrusted with educating future generations. For this reason, more research on the emotional intelligence of all staff in a building is needed to determine the effects of emotional intelligence on the culture of a school. This study explored the effects of emotional intelligence of staff on the culture of the school.

Rationale for the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal, the staff, and the culture of an elementary school. Culture is consistently repeated once created by our interchange with staff and shaped by our own conduct (Schein, 2010). To create a positive school

culture, staff behavior and interactions must be monitored and at times addressed by the building leader. This is a challenging task, making it necessary to delve into emotional intelligence as it impacts daily interactions between staff, which could affect the culture of a school. If aspects of a school culture are or become dysfunctional, leaders must implement conscripted programs to swiftly overcome and manage the current culture. Producing or maintaining a positive school culture is a dynamic process that is a foundational part of leadership and an indispensable role of leaders (Schein, 2010).

Creating, sustaining, and changing school culture are all important aspects of school leadership. Peter Senge (2006) outlined the core disciplines necessary to build or change a learning organization. Mental modes, which comprise one of the disciplines, are the deeply engrained assumptions, generalizations, pictures, or images that influence how we understand the world and how we take action (Senge, 2006). For example, two individuals with different mental modes can sit in a meeting and leave with different descriptions of what happened in the meeting. To truly bring change through Senge's Systems Thinking, mental modes must be exposed and held to scrutiny (Senge, 2006). Understanding emotional intelligence can aid in unearthing staff mental modes, which may create, sustain, and change the culture of an organization.

Bradberry and Greaves (2009) referred to emotional intelligence as follows:

...your ability to recognize and understand emotions in yourself and others, and your ability to use this awareness to manage your behavior and relationships.

Emotional intelligence is the "something" in each of us that is a bit intangible. It affects how we manage behavior, navigate social complexities, and make personal decisions that achieve positive results. (p. 17)

In a school, every decision made or action taken can affect the school's culture. Emotional intelligence has an influence on how we get to those decisions and actions. Exposing mental modes, the assumptions and generalizations that influence decisions and actions, can improve or maintain a positive school culture. A person with high emotional intelligence has an awareness of their own emotions and how they impact the decisions they make. A person who has low emotional intelligence may never have the ability to recognize and understand their emotions, making it difficult to self-reflect and determine what assumptions and generalizations are influencing their decisions and actions. If a relationship between the emotional intelligence of the principal and staff and the culture of an elementary school exists, defining the relationship will enable principals to use what they know about emotional intelligence to build a positive school culture.

Research Questions

This study examined the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school. Data collection for this study was guided by the following research questions and hypotheses:

1. What is the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school?
2. What is the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school?

Statement of Null Hypothesis

H₀1. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school, such that those schools that have higher levels of emotional intelligence will not have a more positive school culture.

H₀2. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school, such that those principals who have a higher level of emotional intelligence will not have a more positive school culture. .

Statement of Research Hypothesis

1. There will be a statistically significant relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school, such that those schools that have higher levels of emotional intelligence will also have a more positive school culture.
2. There will be a statistically significant relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school, such that principals who have a higher level of emotional intelligence will also have a more positive school culture.

Theoretical Framework

This research was guided by Schein's (1992) theory of organizational culture. Schein not only defined, but dissected, and harnessed the importance of an organization's culture but also linked organizational culture to schools and leadership. Culture is an invisible phenomenon that happens around us and encompasses all parts of the daily work in a school. In any interaction, positive or negative, insight can be obtained that tells about the culture of the school. For example, if a veteran teacher is contemptuous toward a parent complaint, and the principal does not intervene, the school culture will become one that devalues the concerns of parents and averts parental input (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015). Schein (2010) explained that understanding the forces of culture is important to

unravel complicated interactions that occur within a school and also to enable us to better understand ourselves.

Additionally, Salovey and Mayer's (1990) framework of emotional intelligence assisted in guiding this study. Salovey and Mayer stated that "Emotionally intelligent individuals accurately perceive their emotions and use integrated, sophisticated approaches to regulate them as they proceed toward important goals" (p. 200). Salovey and Mayer further indicated that the lack of emotional intelligence in a staff member can impact their ability to work with others.

Goleman (2005) used the work of Salovey and Mayer (1990) to further the development of emotional intelligence by taking significant research and combining it with recent findings that examine how emotions are controlled in the brain. Goleman's research is an important part of this study specifically because of his adaptation of emotional intelligence to education, leadership, the work environment, and daily interactions in life. Although Goleman based his research on the work of Mayer and Salovey, Goleman is widely known for contributing innovative brain and behavioral research through the five domains of emotional intelligence: (a) self-awareness; (b) self-regulation; (c) internal motivation; (d) empathy; and (e) social skills.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made as the study began:

1. It was assumed that all participants in this study were certified members of an elementary school staff.
2. It was assumed that all participants in this study were able to self-report on both their own emotional intelligence and the school culture.

3. It was assumed that participants in this study would provide honest, truthful answers to each survey question.
4. It was assumed that the survey results would be confidential but linked to an individual elementary school within Missouri.

Limitations

1. Causation cannot be determined because this is a correlational study.
2. The study was limited to the number of responses received from each elementary school.
3. Responses were based on the individual's perception of their school culture.
4. Responses were based on the individual's self-perceived level of emotional intelligence.

Delimitations

Responses within the same elementary school were confidential, but tied to that elementary school.

1. Only certified staff members and principals in elementary schools (any combination of Kindergarten through Grade 5 [K-5]), were included in this study.
2. Only elementary schools in Missouri Regional Professional Development Centers (RPDCs), as defined by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (DESE) were used in this study.

Design Controls

The researcher used a quantitative study to obtain the degree to which emotional intelligence of staff members and the principal was related to the culture of an elementary school. Study 1 requested all elementary schools in a large school district in the

Southwest RPCD region of Missouri to participate in the study. Study 2 used a purposive sample of elementary schools in Missouri.

The survey instruments used in this study were then sent to all elementary school principals in a large school district in the Southwest RPCD region of Missouri and a purposive sample of school districts in Missouri, requesting school principals to distribute to certified staff. In Study 1, The Assessing Emotions Scale (Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2009) was used to measure emotional intelligence, and the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey data obtained from a large school district in the Southwest RPCD region of Missouri were used to measure culture. In Study 2, The School Culture Triage (Wagner, 2006) was used to measure the culture of a school and The Assessing Emotions Scale (Schutte et al., 2009) was used to measure emotional intelligence. QuestionPro was used to ensure results were anonymous but tied to the school that employed each participant. If an inadequate number of schools participated, the researcher emailed and called principals, as necessary, to request further participation in the survey, reminding them of the incentive offered.

Definition of Key Terms

Emotion. “Organized responses, crossing the boundaries of many psychological subsystems, including the physiological, cognitive, motivational, and experiential systems” (Mayer & Salovey, 1990, p. 186).

Emotional intelligence. “The integration of several emotional abilities: the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion....” These skills are used when regulating ones own emotions and emotions of others. “...the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion

and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 10).

Healthy and positive school culture. A healthy school climate is imbued with positive student, teacher, and administrator interrelationships. Teachers like their colleagues, their school, their job, and their students, and they are driven by a quest for academic excellence. They believe in themselves and their students and set high but achievable goals. Students work hard and respect others who do well academically. Principal behavior is also positive, that is, friendly and supportive. Principals have high expectations for teachers and go out of their way to help them. Healthy schools have good relationships with the community (Hoyt, Chase-Lansdale, McDade, & Adam, 2011).

Intelligence. “Intelligence is the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p.186).

Organizational culture. “A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid.... When new staff are hired, the learned, shared assumptions are then taught to new staff. ...as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems” (Schein, 1992, p.12).

Toxic school culture: School staff focus on their own interests instead of what’s best for students, handle disagreements using retaliation and distrust, view students as burdens, are apathetic, applaud teachers for their lack of drive and disservice to students,

use social media to bully new teachers, and complain and form informal negative networks within the school (Deal & Peterson, 2009).

Summary

Culture is something that should not be overlooked by school leaders and could mean success or failure for any school-wide initiative (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Deal & Peterson, 2009; Fullan, 2001; Schein, 2010). Staff interactions, which are affected by an individual's level of emotional intelligence, play a role in the culture of a school. This study examined the relationship between the emotional intelligence of the principal, staff, and the culture of an elementary school.

Chapter Two will review literature on two models of emotional intelligence, compare both models, and define the model used for this research. Chapter Two will also present literature on the levels of culture as defined by Schein (2010) and review literature on the relationship between emotional intelligence and the culture of a school. Chapter Three will describe participants, how participants were selected, the research setting, design, and instrumentation used, and will explain how the data were analyzed. Chapter Four will present the results of the data collected. Chapter Five will provide a summary of this project, the implications, and significance of these findings, as well as recommendations for the educational environment and future studies.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The culture of any organization can be felt all day, any day. School culture can determine success or failure for an organization and should not be taken lightly by leaders (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Deal & Peterson, 2009; Fullan, 2001; Schein, 2010). This literature review provides an in-depth analysis of research in emotional intelligence and culture of an organization. For the purpose of this study, the researcher relied heavily on the theories provided by Mayer and Salovey (1990) but also used research done since Mayer and Solovey's initial study. The work of Goleman (2005) was also explored, as he has widely become known as the face of emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Goleman's research was primarily founded on the work of Mayer and Salovey but went further to provide specific examples for how to use emotional intelligence theories to experience success in life and leadership.

The literature review will begin by focusing on emotional intelligence, and will study culture by analyzing the theory of Schein (1992), who has made a notable mark on organizations through his research and theory on organizational culture. Finally, the review will focus on literature addressing the relationship between emotional intelligence and culture, examining studies completed with a focus on both constructs.

Emotional Intelligence

Mayer and Salovey

Mayer and Salovey (1990) introduced emotional intelligence as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 189). Their research around

emotional intelligence began by closely examining emotion, intelligence, and social intelligence. Intelligence is the ability of a person to act consciously, think logically, and deal with their environment in an effective manner (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Social intelligence is a person's ability to understand their own intelligence, manage their emotions, and respond appropriately to others (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). After much research, Salovey and Mayer determined that emotional intelligence was a branch of social intelligence and consists of one's ability to monitor not only their own feelings but also the feelings of others while using this information to act, react, resolve problems, and manage behavior. Kirby and Lam (2002) believed that how a person regulates and interprets the emotions experienced in any role may impact successful task completion, thus having an impact on a person's work performance. People who have well-developed emotional intelligence can identify and control their own emotions and those of others, are not as likely to be disabled by fear, taken over by emotions that are negative, and suppressed by anxiety, all of which can negatively impact performance of an individual and the team with which they work with (Seipp, 1991). People who do not have well-developed emotional intelligence struggle to identify their own and others' emotions, are easily taken over by fear and negative self-talk, and let anxiety overwhelm them.

All people experience emotions. Mayer and Salovey (1997) pointed out that although all children develop an ability to understand their emotions, not all reach the same level of emotional intelligence. Children adapt and respond to changes in their environment automatically without much conscious thought (Panksepp, 1988). As children grow older and become adults, they develop an ability to understand and control their emotions (Izard et al., 2011). Since Mayer and Salovey's initial research on emotional intelligence, more research has been conducted and the term itself has been

applied in many ways. Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2008) referred to the many models and definitions of emotional intelligence as confusing and including features that are not directly related to emotional intelligence. Daus and Ashkanasy (2003) stated, “These models have done more harm than good regarding establishing emotional intelligence as a legitimate, empirical construct with incremental validity potential” (pp. 69-70). Mayer et al. (2008) also noted that additional traits were added to their initial model without justification, other than their potential to be a predictor of success. Mayer and Salovey presented the four branch model of emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Emotional intelligence is not comprised of or measured by looking only at one of the four branches, but can only be measured when looking at all four branches. To better understand emotional intelligence, and how it impacts interactions within the workplace, the four branches as defined by Mayer and Salovey (1997) will be discussed.

Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004) defined Branch 1 as, “The perception of emotion that involves the capacity to recognize emotion in others’ facial and postural expressions. It involves nonverbal perception and expression of emotion in face, voice, and related communication channels” (p. 199). A person high in emotional intelligence will have the ability to recognize honest versus dishonest articulation of feeling because they understand the expression of emotions and where they come from (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). To develop emotional understanding, it is necessary to possess the ability to perceive emotions, which will in turn help manage emotion (Joseph & Newman, 2010). When people have the ability to read another’s emotions this helps to ensure good interpersonal interactions. In a study that explored the association between emotional intelligence and interpersonal relations, higher emotional-intelligence scores were

associated with better relationships and the results supported the connection between emotional intelligence and interpersonal relationships (Schutte et al., 2001).

Mayer et al. (2004) defined Branch 2 as “facilitation, involving the capacity of emotions to assist thinking” (p. 199). This branch involves the link between emotions and thinking. Emotions can shape and improve thinking; for instance, emotions assist thinking when one can put themselves in another person’s shoes to imagine how that person may be feeling. At that point, the knowledge would assist how they would interact with that person based on their situation. Your mood or how you are feeling will affect the way you view a situation or a problem (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Krishnakumar et al., (2017) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs). CWBs include “...hostile, destructive behaviors that undermine organizational functioning” (Hopkins, et al. 2016, p.122) and represent how people respond emotionally to work situations that make them feel stressed or frustrated. People who are emotionally intelligent may not engage in CWBs because they can think carefully in situations when emotions are high (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Branch 3 relates to how an individual understands emotions (Mayer et al., 2004) and their capacity to examine emotions. A young child’s ability to understand their emotions differs from an adults understanding. This branch (understanding) involves a developmental facet and involves a person’s ability to reason not only about one emotion but about a sequence of emotions. “An individual who feels unlovable might reject another’s care for fear of later rejection” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 14). Cyders and Smith (2008) analyzed emotion-based dispositions and noted that if a person who has low emotional intelligence feels substantial emotions without understanding them, emotional behaviors that are impulsive will ensue, leaving the person at the mercy of their emotions.

People who understand and can control their emotions are more likely to lessen the ambiguous influences on those emotions (Krishnakumar et al., 2017).

Branch 4, the final branch of emotional intelligence represents the managing of emotions, which includes identifying one's own emotions and expressing them accurately as well as identifying other people's emotions while determining if the emotion they are showing is honest or dishonest (Mayer et al., 2004). This is considered the highest branch of Mayer and Salovey's (1990) model. A quality tied to this branch is recognition of emotions without making them bigger or smaller than they actually are (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Krishnakumar et al., (2017) found that an ability to manage emotions might lessen negative affect in the workplace. It is also suggested that employees who have a higher emotional intelligence score are better employees and people who fail to make accurate emotion-related inferences at work often feel poorly and act poorly in the workplace (Krishnakumar et al., 2017).

Knowing Salovey and Mayer's (1990) definition and all facets of emotional intelligence is the first step to understanding how emotional intelligence may affect the culture of an elementary school. Several studies have been conducted that explore the effects of emotional intelligence in a variety of settings. Cook (2006) analyzed the effects of emotional intelligence on a principal's leadership performance. Condren (2002) also did research on emotional intelligence focusing on leadership effectiveness, which includes building culture within a school. Noe (2012) studied the relationship between a principal's emotional intelligence quotient, school culture, and student achievement. This research is also important to consider as it guided this study and will be explored further as it relates to the relationship between emotional intelligence and the culture of a school.

Daniel Goleman

Daniel Goleman's best-selling book has become widely known as the face of emotional intelligence (Mayer et al., 2008). Goleman's (2005) book, *Emotional Intelligence* was a cover story in *Time Magazine*, resulting in media coverage that attracted further attention to his model of emotional intelligence (Mayer et al., 2008). Goleman stated that his "model of emotional intelligence focuses on performance at work and organizational leadership, melding emotional intelligence theory with decades of research on modeling the competencies that set star performers apart from average" (p. 4).

Goleman (2005) proposed an expanded framework of emotional intelligence that included the following components: (a) self-awareness, (b) self-regulation, (c) internal motivation, (d) empathy, and (e) social skills. Goleman mentioned that people may be good at one of the domains and not at other domains. Goleman went further to say that "lapses in emotional skills can be remedied; to a great extent each of these domains represents a body of habit and response that, with the right effort, can be improved on" (p. 44). This idea alone suggests that if low levels of emotional intelligence are identified, strategies can be implemented that would improve a person's emotional intelligence.

Self-awareness is easily explained by one's ability to know what emotion they are feeling and how to act upon that emotion. Goleman (2005) and Mayer and Salovey (1997) agreed that a person who is self-aware knows how they feel and want to change it. The two facets could be viewed separately but Goleman and Mayer and Salovey believed they go hand in hand. A practical example would be knowing you are in a bad mood and desiring to get out of the bad mood. A person who lacks self-awareness may be engulfed in his or her emotions and unable to elude the bad mood; therefore, he or she does little to

escape it (Goleman, 1995). A person can also be aware of their bad mood, but accept it. An example provided by Goleman (1995) is a person who is depressed and has come to terms with their despair, therefore accepting it. Bar-On and Parker (2000) and Goleman recognized self-awareness as the keystone of emotional intelligence. If a person is aware of their internal state of emotion, they are able to control those emotions and experience empathy for others (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012). Goleman went further to note that if self-awareness is present with the ability to self-manage emotions, it can prevent anxiety and anger, allowing a person to fully engage in work and life.

Self-regulation is the ability to regulate moods and think prior to acting. Goleman (2005), used stories that were associated with real life to demonstrate the ability to self-regulate emotions. Anger is a common emotion used to explain this domain. Self-regulation would be one's ability to regulate their mood and think prior to acting out of anger. An example in a school setting is when a teacher shares a perspective that is contrary to yours, and instead of making a sarcastic comment out of anger, you would think of a better way to respond. As cited by Lam and O'Higgins (2012), Bradberry and Greaves (2009) included self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management when defining emotional intelligence. Bradberry and Greaves mentioned self-regulation when defining relationship management as the ability to use self-awareness of emotions to successfully manage interactions with others, including effective communication and handling of conflict. Working with others and managing relationships is a necessary skill in any organization.

Motivation is the third domain of Goleman's (2005) emotional intelligence theory. This form of motivation is when someone has the ability to motivate themselves, which has been referred to as an internal motivation. A person that is internally motivated

would take initiative, be driven, and be optimistic. An example Goleman (1995) gave was a salesperson and their emotional reaction to defeat. Every time a salesperson is turned down, it could become harder for them to pick up the phone and continue calling. A person who is optimistic views the defeat as an opportunity to try a new approach, does not take the rejection personally, and remains motivated to continue with hope of making a sale (Goleman, 1995). A pessimist may view themselves as a failure, thus prompting apathy leading to depression and no motivation to continue.

Empathy is the fourth domain and was referred to by Goleman (2005) as “the ability to know how another feels” (p. 96). Goleman placed a lot of merit on empathy even stating that criminal psychopaths, rapists, and child molesters often lack empathy (p. 96). Goleman suggested that empathy is partially taught to children as they observe their parents’ responses to others. Paying attention to a person’s tone and body language, then responding appropriately is also a part of empathy. According to research by Davis (1983), Smith (1759), and Spencer (1970), there are two broad categories of response within empathy, which include a cognitive, intellectual reaction, and a visceral, emotional reaction. Recognizing the affective and cognitive components to the empathetic response can help provide an understanding of empathy (Davis, 1983). Stegmann, Roberge, and van Dick, R. (2012) included six ways empathy can influence interpersonal encounters in work groups:

- Empathy evokes altruistic motivation (Batson 1991, 2010; Hoffman 2000) and increases concern for the welfare of a different other and the group as a whole.
- Empathy increases moral judgement and helps to resolve conflicts between individuals or between people belonging to different (sub) groups (Batson et al. 1997b; Gibbs 2003).

- Empathy increases the likelihood of mutual identity confirmation between team members, which in turn fosters cooperation (Milton & Westphal, 2005).
- Empathy also increases the likelihood of self-disclosure (Phillips et al., 2009) and on the receiving end, the feeling of being understood by others may lead people to open up themselves and disclose valuable information (Marci et al., 2007).
- Empathy is also likely to foster team-learning behaviors, which have been proven to foster team performance (Gibson & Vermeulen 2003; van der Vevgt & Bunderson, 2005).
- Empathy toward specific social groups can positively influence their attitudes on organizational policies and programs aimed at reducing discrimination and on improving relationships between members of different social categories within the organization (Batson & Ahmad, 2009; Harrison et al., 2006; Schur, et al., 2005). (p. 27)
- In summary, knowing how another feels, or having empathy for others, can affect the way people who work together interact in a positive manner (Stegmann et al., 2012).

The fifth and final domain is social skills (Goleman, 2005). The social skills domain is about a person's ability to get along and work with others. Some traits demonstrated in this domain would be approachable, easy to talk to, easy to get along with, good communicator, manages conflict well, and cooperates with others. To work effectively with others, you must have social competencies that are often referred to as "people skills" (Goleman, 2005). An inability to persuade, influence, or inspire others

while putting them at ease can cause problems when socializing with others (Goleman, 2005). Without good people skills, interpersonal disasters are likely (Goleman, 2005).

Comparison of Mayer and Salovey Versus Goleman

Mayer et al., (2008) noted that because Goleman's (1995) book contained parts of their emotional intelligence model, some investigators inaccurately believed that Goleman's book was endorsed by Mayer and Salovey as an accurate interpretation of emotional intelligence. Mayer et al., (2008) also noted that Goleman's model is a journalistic version that early-on made claims that were later refuted in his 2005 book. Mayer and Salovey's (1990) work was research based and provided theory on intelligence.

Goleman's (2005) book is based on the foundational principals of Mayer and Salovey (1990). Goleman stated, "The growth of this area of scholarship owes much to Mayer and Salovey, who, along with their colleague David Caruso, a business consultant, have worked tirelessly on behalf of the scientific acceptance of emotional intelligence" (p. 4). Goleman's theory of emotional intelligence closely identifies with Mayer and Salovey's theories and for the purpose of this study, both Goleman and Mayer and Salovey's work were used. Mayer and Salovey's definition of emotional intelligence was used as the researched definition of emotional intelligence. Goleman adapted earlier theories of emotional intelligence and connected them to leading an organization, which is at the forefront of a positive school culture.

Culture

The word culture comes from the German word "kultur." E.B. Tylor (1903) defined culture as "that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of

society.” Tylor believed that societies were measured by their knowledge of the truth and more knowledge meant more civil or less savage. The more civil a society was, the more cultured they were.

Later, Franz Boas defined culture as “the distinctive body of customs, beliefs, and social institutions that seemed to characterize each separate society” (Goodenough, 1981, p. 48). This definition differs from that of E.B. Tylor and does not focus on separate societies and the measure of their degree of culture or stage of cultural development. Instead, this new definition gave each society its own culture and is what is commonly referred to as culture today. Goodenough (1981) pointed out that theorists agree, culture within a society is learned and builds a body of tradition. Culture does not outline a standard for governing behavior, but instead involves the behavior of people within a community and the patterns of their behavior (Goodenough, 1981). In 1963, Goodenough summarized culture as consisting of, “standards for deciding what is...what can be...how one feels about it, standards for deciding what to do about it, and...how to go about doing it” (pp. 258-259).

Pagel (2012) made a distinction between genetics that are passed down from our ancestors and culture. Genetics are something each person is born with, while culture is acquired from watching, imitating, and learning from others (Goodenough, 1981; Pagel, 2012). The components of culture are similar to genes, and can be passed down from generation to generation but are developed as one progresses through life and is shaped by those around himself or herself (Pagel, 2012). The power of culture affects individuals daily by directing them on what they should eat, believe in, and like as well as many other factors that define who we are as individuals and how we treat other individuals.

The culture in which we are raised defines who we become as individuals. The culture in which we work also defines who we are and how we function as a group within a school or a business. Culture also affects organization success (Seago, 2016). In a recent Duke University study, *Corporate Culture: Evidence From the Field*, 91 percent of North American CEOs and chief financial officers said culture was important to an organization; 91 percent said improving their company's culture would boost its value; and more than half said culture has a significant effect on productivity, company value, creativity, profitability, and rate of growth (Seago, 2016). Culture in the business and education world has been defined in many ways. A broad definition of culture is, "The way we do things around here" (Deal & Kennedy, 2000, p. 4). For the purpose of this research, the definition of Schein (1992) was used, which is elaborate and encompasses many definitions of culture. Schein (1992) defined culture this way:

A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. (p. 12)

Culture is not exactly inside the heads of individuals within the organization, but between individuals and expressed publicly through symbols, meanings, and interactions with groups of people (Sabanci, Ahmet Sahin, Sonmez & Yilmaz, 2016). The culture of a school can have a positive or negative impact on the school (Sabanci, 2018). Schein (2010) referred to culture as an abstract concept that should be observable if our goal is to understand culture in a useful way. Schein (2010) went further to list 11 specific observable events and hidden forces that can be complex but important when taking an extensive look at school culture.

Categories of Culture as Defined by Schein

Category 1 is observed behavioral regularities when people interact, includes language people use, rituals applied to different situations, and customs adopted by the team (Schein, 2010). Bolman and Deal (2008) also listed rituals and language as important tenants of culture under the symbolic frame for organizations. Deal and Peterson (2016) noted that “without ritual, any culture will wither and die” (p. 99). The rituals adopted by staff members within a school are what bond people together and make them feel as if they are part of a larger group. “Rituals reveal values at their deepest level...[People] express in ritual what moves them most, and since the form of expression is conventionalized and obligatory, it is the values of the group that are revealed” (Moore & Meyerhoff, 1977, p. 32). Every ritual within a school contributes to the culture of a school in either a positive or negative way (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Deal & Peterson, 2016; Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015). Greeting students at the door contributes to a positive culture and tells students that you are glad they are at school. Sitting at your desk on your computer tells students that you do not know if they entered the room or not and that you are too busy to stop what you are doing to greet them each day. If a principal greets each classroom each day, teachers will greet their students and students will greet each other, thus creating the culture that each person is greeted every day.

Category 2 is group norms, refers to values and standards that develop in a group (Schein, 2010). These norms are developed and shared by the group of people working together. Norms are often unspoken and govern things such as the way people dress and behave and quickly become an inherent obligation (Deal & Peterson, 2016). Culture leads the way group members behave through the norms shared by the group. Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) provided an example of school dress code as a norm and a function of a

school's culture. If staff wear jeans and t-shirts but dress up when visitors are in the building, this is the culture of the building. If visitors come to the building more often, staff will begin to dress up more often, thus shifting the norms of the dress code while changing the culture. Norms are unwritten rules and often take precedence over the written rules. Norms are what new employees view to learn how things are done within the school. If the attendance policy states that staff arrive at a certain time, and one staff member is continually late without being confronted, then a new norm is set. This example provided by Guenert and Whitaker is a perfect demonstration of how the norms of an organization can affect the culture in a positive or negative manner.

Category 3 is espoused values are the principles or values that are desired by the group (Schein, 2010). These values are public and can be articulated by members of the group. Two examples would be "students first" or "all students can learn." Bolman and Deal (2008), referred to espoused theories as "accounts individuals provide whenever they try to describe, explain, or predict their behavior" (p. 169). The espoused values held by group members or school staff drive behavior. Deal and Peterson (2016) convey the importance of values as the conscious voice of what an organization represents. If a school claims to value relationships with parents but does not allow parents to volunteer in the school, the behavior does not match the principle the school claims to value. Allowing parents to volunteer in the school while following volunteer policies would support the claim that the school values relationships with parents and would be an appropriate behavior to demonstrate the principle.

Category 4 is formal philosophy is "the broad policies and ideological principles that guide a group's actions toward stockholders, employees, customers, and other stakeholders" (Schein, 2010, p. 15). A school mission and vision statement would be an

example of formal philosophies. Deal and Peterson (2016) credited a school's mission as the bedrock to its culture. An important part of having a positive school culture is when a mission is created and shared by stakeholders. Requiring a staff to reflect on the school's mission and vision while sharing actions or behaviors that demonstrate the mission and vision is one way to reinforce the importance of the school mission and vision as formal philosophies contributing to the culture of the school. Bush (2015), stated that creation of practices and programs that build school culture are the key to developing and maintaining positive organizational culture. The values an organization lives are what count (Bolman & Deal, 2008). Creating a school mission statement, posting it on the wall, and never referring to it again would be an example of a formal philosophy that has no impact on the culture of a school.

Category 5 is rules of the game refer to the unwritten rules that involve how you get along with other individuals in the organization (Schein, 2010). This category encompasses Deal and Kennedy's (2000) definition of culture, "The way we do things around here" (p. 4). Rules of the game can entail the processes staff use to do their work. Fullan and Hargreaves (1996) introduced five types of school cultures; Deal and Kennedy (1999) introduced the sixth. The six levels are: collaborative, comfortable-collaborative, contrived-collegial, balkanized, fragmented, and toxic. The levels range from high functioning to devastatingly dysfunctional. Rules of the game for building leaders within a positive school culture involve: creating a supportive, creative, healthy environment in which staff are empowered and feel supported, the principal is visible, and staff are included in decision making. These are all ways building leaders can improve school culture (Lockhart, 2018).

How staff collaborate and get along with each other is the heart of Schein's fifth category. In a collaborative school culture, all teachers work alongside one another engaging in professional development opportunities with a commitment to improve their work (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015). An important cornerstone to school culture and communication is relationships, which enable leaders to build the capacity of staff and results in staff who are emotionally invested, leading to creation of positive school culture (Teasley, 2017). Pounder (1998) noted, "When we speak of changing schools into more collaborative organizations, what we really mean is that we want to change the nature of the relationships, or patterns of relating" (p. 29). If teachers collaborate and work together with the goal of improving their practice, this contributes to a positive school culture. If teachers argue with their principal in the staff meeting in front of the rest of the staff, and it is allowed, this becomes the way things are done within that organization and contributes to a toxic school culture. A vital part of collaboration within an organization is communication between staff who work together. Collaboration will not exist without effective communication when sharing expectations, directions, goals feelings, and emotions in the context of the coordinated action (Sabanci et al., 2017).

Category 6 is climate and is often confused with culture but falls within the culture of an organization. Climate involves the way in which staff interact with students, families, and the community (Schein, 2010). Individual and group communication is imperative in all organizations (Sabanci et. al., 2017). A study by Keiser and Schulte (2009) compared the school climate of two elementary schools by measuring students' and teachers' perceptions of their school's ethical climates. Keiser and Schulte noted that by assessing school climate, school leaders could build on strengths to develop a positive school community. Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) provided an excellent example of

climate, when a veteran teacher who dismisses the concerns of a parent is not corrected by the principal but is supported by her colleagues. This interaction demonstrates the climate of the building and can eventually affect the culture when new teachers learn the behavior and think they, too, are supposed to devalue concerns of parents and remain closed to parent input.

Category 7 is embedded skills apply to certain abilities displayed by team members when it comes to getting specific tasks done (Schein, 2010). This would entail creating a tradition that gets repeated year to year without actually vocalizing the tradition. In a positive school culture, a group of individuals would create and pass down positive traditions that are repeated each year without question. Within the symbolic frame for organizations, Bolman and Deal (2008) referred to traditions that get repeated as symbols. Regardless of the form symbols take within an organization, the culture of the organization is uncovered and communicated through its symbols or traditions (Bolman & Deal, 2008). A significant event that happens year after year, has a special meaning, builds community, connects stakeholders, and reinforces core values is a tradition (Deal & Peterson, 2016). Hosting a fall festival or literacy or math night each year would be an example of a tradition at a school.

Category 8 is habits of thinking, mental models, and/or linguistic paradigms. Linguistic paradigms are “the shared cognitive frames that guide the perceptions, thought and language used by members of the group” (Schein, 2010, p. 15). These cognitive frames are then taught to new staff members through social interactions. The mental model plays a role in how staff make decisions and linguistic paradigms include phrases staff members use. Senge (2006) explained that a person’s mental model is why two people can view the same event and describe the event differently. An example shared by

Senge was the generalization that “people are untrustworthy” (p. 164). This generalization is a part of the person’s mental model, which if active, shapes the way the person acts. Mental models not only affect what we see but also what we do. Schein (2010) stated that a good way to determine the components of your school culture is to observe what new staff members are taught. This is one way to scratch the surface of culture but a true understanding of aspects of this category being passed down will only be shared to new staff once they earn indefinite status within the group and are trusted (Schein, 2010). It is important to know the mental models of staff when trying to understand the language of staff and why components of this category are passed on to new staff.

Category 9 is shared meanings are understandings created as interactions with staff members occur (Schein, 2010). When individuals are willing to share their perspective while listening and accepting others perspective as valuable and meaningful, shared meaning has occurred. These shared meanings help define individuals within the organization and how they fit in. Positive interactions with staff contribute to a positive school culture. Shared meaning does not mean that all staff members share the same views, but that all staff listen and respect the views of others while seeking to understand their point of view. Without shared meaning, conflictual interactions may occur that contribute to a toxic school culture. Meredith, Moolenaar, Struyve, Machteld, Vandecandelaere, Gielen & Kyndt (2017) pointed out that in a larger school, it is common for subcultures to occur, meaning that teachers who work closely and interact throughout the day may develop their own norms and values leading to inconsistency and lack of collaboration toward a shared positive school culture.

Category 10 is root metaphors or integrating symbols represents how groups are characterized according to themselves (Schein, 2010). This category of culture involves material artifacts such as the school building, classroom, or office layout and reflects thought and emotional responses from staff. Zott and Huy (2007) defined a symbol as “something that stands for or suggests something else; it conveys socially constructed means beyond its intrinsic or obvious functional use” (p. 72). Bolman and Deal (2008) noted that each organization has its own form of symbols, and its culture is communicated and displayed through those symbols. Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) pointed out that symbols show what is valued within a school. Creating a new school logo or getting a new school mascot are examples of symbols that contributes to the culture of a school. The purpose is not what the symbol is, but how school spirit is built around the symbol. Without a mascot or symbol, school spirit may be lacking.

Category 11 is formal rituals and celebrations (Schein, 2010) involve not only how things are celebrated within an organization but also what is celebrated. A practical example might be Mondays. If Mondays are celebrated, this will help staff start the week in a positive manner. Ceremonies are considered a celebration and stabilize, reassure, socialize, and convey a certain message to the community (Bolman & Deal, 2008). Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) defined ceremonies as “glorified rituals...regularly held events that usually incorporate visitors to the school in recognizing an important aspect of the school culture” (p. 35). Deal and Peterson (2016) credited celebrations with forging respect and pride while leaving the feeling of contributing to something greater than oneself.

A successful ceremony communicates values, is intentionally designed, and celebrates central accomplishments, which builds a sense of community (Deal &

Peterson, 2016). Deal and Peterson (2016) used the work of Deal and Key (1998), Trice and Beyer (1985), and Deal and Peterson (2009) to create the following list of elements included in a meaningful celebration: a special and value-linked purpose; symbolic dress and adornments; symbols, signs, banners, or flags; stories of history, accomplishments, or special effort; a distinctive manner of speaking or presentation; an invocation of deeper purpose and values; attention to who is invited and where they sit; recognition of those who have shown exemplary commitment; photographing, recording, and sharing the event with others; appropriately chosen and varied music; a carefully selected, attractive setting; special food or drink that represents tradition; the effective use of media, film, or visual displays; value-laden language and commentary; meaningful symbols and artifacts of past and present; ritual and ongoing traditions carefully enacted; and the recounting of core legends or stories (p. 120 & 121).

Levels of culture defined by Schein

Schein (2010) believed that there are many facets to culture but also that culture can and should be analyzed at different levels. The categories listed above are not to be confused with the levels below. The levels of culture range from concrete to deeply embedded inert beliefs that Schein referred to as the essence of culture.

Level 1: artifacts are at the surface level of culture. This level includes everything you can see, hear, and feel when you engage with a new group and culture (Schein, 2010). Many components of Bolman and Deal's (2008) structural frame would be included in this level of culture. In order for the meaning of artifacts to become clear, one must be a part of the staff for a long period of time. Artifacts as a part of culture are easy to see but hard to decipher according to Schein (2010). Deal and Peterson (2009) included trophy cases, pictures on the walls, statues, web sites, YouTube videos, and

architecture as examples of rich artifacts and sources of information. If you enter a school and notice pictures of students covering the walls, along with artwork created by students, you may assume that the visible artifacts mean that celebrating students is an important part of the school's culture. Schein (2010) stated, "Observers can describe what they see and feel but cannot reconstruct from that alone what those things mean in the given group" (p. 24). Artifacts are an important part of culture, but the meaning behind the artifacts may only be known after one has experienced the culture at a deeper level (Gagliardi, 1990, 1999).

The next level of culture, level 2, is as follows: espoused beliefs and values. When a group faces a problem or task for the first time, the solution at which the group arrives at will be a reflection of someone on the team's belief or sense of what is right (Schein, 2010). A shared value will turn into a shared assumption if the solution was successful and the belief was adopted by the group. An example of an espoused belief or value would be the use of a behavior chart for a student who was having behavior problems. If the chart is successful for one student, the chart may be used with other students and if the chart is successful for many students, an espoused belief would likely develop that behavior charts will shift students' behavior and improve the situation. Not all espoused beliefs are this easily tested and explained. An example of an espoused belief that is not easily tested would be a personnel issue. A staff member may want to make sure that school policy is enforced by the leader of the school in an effort to remain fair and consistent. However, when a staff member is reprimanded for leaving students unsupervised (which is clearly against school policy), the staff member may receive social validation from colleagues, which would reinforce the belief that leaving the student unsupervised in the given situation was validated. Argyris and Schon (1978,

1996) explained that when the values and beliefs that bring comfort and meaning for a group are not aligned with the values and beliefs that correspond with adequate performance, the behavior we see does not match the value or desired behavior. This is one example of how espoused beliefs and values are abstract and confusing at times. Schein (2010) stated that espoused beliefs and values would at times not provide an explanation of behavior, and could be mutually contradictory. Espoused beliefs and values can help understand a part of a school's culture, but to have a deep understanding of culture one must also understand the third level of culture.

Level 3 of culture is basic underlying assumptions. "If a basic assumption comes to be strongly held in a group, members will find behavior based on any other premise inconceivable" (Schein, 2010, p. 28). One example of a basic underlying assumption is that every time a certain staff member asks questions they are challenging the authority of the person delivering the message. This basic assumption developed from previous interactions with the staff member, in which the staff member challenged new initiatives or directives given by the principal or district. This basic assumption shared by staff creates uncomfortable interactions with the staff member because of staff responding defensively, creating an unhealthy environment within staff meetings and interactions with this staff member within the school. Basic assumptions can quickly become indubitable and difficult to change. The biggest challenge for leaders is to get to the bottom of culture by seeking to understand the basic assumptions made at that deeper level.

Balkar (2015) studied teachers' perceptions of an empowering school culture and drew this conclusion:

When evaluating the characteristics of an empowering school culture, and the reflections of empowerment on the current culture of the school, it can be said that school culture is a determinative factor for carrying out teacher empowerment at schools and that teacher empowerment can be used as a tool to form school culture. (p. 217)

Balkar's research shows that teacher empowerment and school culture affect each other but that school culture can determine teachers' feelings of empowerment. This study suggests culture has a tremendous impact on many functions within a school.

The Relationship Between the Emotional Intelligence of Principal and Staff and the Culture of a School

Mayer and Salovey's (1990) definition of emotional intelligence has been defined, Goleman's (2005) application of emotional intelligence has been touched upon, and culture of an organization has been explained in great detail. These concepts are notable alone but the relationship between the two could be significant when seeking to improve an organization. A toxic school culture is unhealthy, prevents growth for individuals, the organization and results in low satisfaction, negative outcomes, and high turnover (Lockhart, 2018). Low level of emotional intelligence in staff or the principal could be related to a toxic school culture.

Several studies (Balkar, 2015; Cabello, Sorrel, Fernandez-Pinto, Extremera, & Fernandez-Berrocal, 2016; Condren, 2002; Cook, 2006; De Vito, 2009; Ruestow, 2008; Sadasa, 2013) have been completed that measure emotional intelligence and a facet of culture. Cabello et al. conducted a study that analyzed an adult's ability to understand their emotions, specifically focusing on age and gender differences in emotional intelligence in adults. This study focused primarily on adults between the ages of 17 and

76 and showed that gender did affect the total, emotional intelligence score as well as scores on the four emotional intelligence branches. Ability emotional intelligence scores were greater in women than in men and younger and older adults scored lower than middle aged adults with the exception of one branch (Cabello et al., 2016). This study supported Goleman's (2005) claim that women have higher emotional intelligence than men.

Ruestow (2008) studied the effect of a leader's emotional intelligence on follower job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Ruestow concluded that the emotional intelligence of the leader appears to have an effect on various aspects of follower job satisfaction. Recommendations included repeating the study with a larger sample size. School culture has a direct effect on teacher satisfaction and the principal has a direct effect on the culture of a school. Therefore, the emotional intelligence of the leader and follower job satisfaction are both related to school culture.

Cook (2006) studied the effects of emotional intelligence on principals' leadership performance, with results indicating that the principals' level of emotional intelligence significantly affected their performance as an educational leader. Cook compared how elementary principals rate their level of emotional intelligence in Goleman's five categories as well as how elementary principals rate their effectiveness in the nine standards of leadership. Cook went further to discuss which categories, including culture, of leadership performance were affected by emotional intelligence more than others. Cook also noted that based on his research, gender, age, and years of experience had no effect on emotional intelligence. Cook concluded that emotional intelligence had a significant effect on principals' leadership performance.

De Vito (2009) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher burnout. An analysis in De Vito's study showed a positive relationship between personal accomplishment and intrapersonal, interpersonal, and general mood subscales of emotional intelligence. Additionally, no prominent relationship existed between emotion exhaustion, depersonalization, and emotional intelligence total score (De Vito, 2009). Sadasa (2013) completed a similar study that focused on the influence of organizational culture, leadership behavior, and job satisfaction towards teacher job performance. Sadasa concluded that culture has a direct influence on teacher satisfaction and job performance. Although De Vito analyzed emotional intelligence and its impact on staff, and Sadasa analyzed culture and its impact on staff, this study went further to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence of staff and the effects on the culture of an organization.

In a study completed by Condren (2002), the relationship between principals' emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness was examined. In this study, five levels of leadership effectiveness were used to determine the effectiveness of a leader. This study supported the idea that some relationship did exist but was not statistically significant. Condren noted that the evidence suggested that a female principal at the elementary level, with well-established emotional intelligence did tend to be perceived more favorably when addressing leadership effectiveness. Although several studies have been done on the effects of emotional intelligence, emotional intelligence of staff as it relates to school culture has not been studied.

Summary

Culture is known to affect many aspects of a school (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015). "Culture forms the superglue that bonds an organization, unites people and helps an

enterprise accomplish desired ends” (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 253). Shifting school culture can be an arduous task because culture is very complex and requires deep study of the underlying issues within a school or organization (Schein, 2010). Emotional intelligence and aspects of school culture go hand in hand and often overlap when analyzing day-to-day interactions and the deeper meanings behind those interactions.

This chapter provided theory behind emotional intelligence and organizational culture in schools. Although several studies have been done on the effects of emotional intelligence, emotional intelligence of staff as it relates to school culture has not been studied. This study could provide insight into the underlying components of staff interactions that happen on a daily basis, which enhance or damage the culture of a school. This study examined the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the staff, principal, and the culture of an elementary school.

Chapter Two reviewed literature on two models of emotional intelligence, compared both models, and provided definitions used for this research. Levels of culture as defined by Schein (2010) were presented and literature on the relationship between emotional intelligence and the culture of a school was reviewed. Also included were studies linking emotional intelligence to elements of school culture and their recommendations.

Chapter Three will identify participants, how they were selected, the research setting, design, and instrumentation used, and will explain how the data were analyzed. Chapter Four will present the results of the data analyses. Chapter Five will provide a summary of this project, the implications, and significance of these findings, as well as recommendations for the educational environment and future studies.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Creating and sustaining a healthy school culture is the charge of every principal who leads an elementary school (Missouri DESE, 2013). Low levels of emotional intelligence in staff could result in conflictual interactions between students, staff, and parents, creating a toxic school culture. Gaining insight into the emotional intelligence of staff members could aid principals in building a healthy school culture. The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school, and the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school. The researcher conducted this study in two parts. Study 1 was restricted to a large school district in Missouri. Study 2 was administered in a purposive sample of elementary schools in Missouri.

For both studies, the researcher used the Assessing Emotions Scale, which addressed the four factors of emotional intelligence that Mayor and Salovey (1990) identified. Separate but similar measures of school culture were used in Study 1 and Study 2. The large school district in Missouri was already administering the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey; therefore, it became the measure of school culture, reducing overall participant burden. In Study 2, the School Culture Triage Survey was administered to a sample of elementary schools in Missouri.

Separate tools were used to measure culture in Study 1 and Study 2; however, both tools were accurate measures of school culture and comparable for the purpose of this study. The Panorama Learning and Culture Survey and the School Culture Triage

Survey both obtain information on the 11 categories and three levels of culture, as Schein (2010) defined them. Study 1's Panorama Learning and Culture Survey obtains data specific to Schein's 11 categories and 3 levels of culture. For example, Faculty Growth Mindset, Teaching Efficacy, and Educating All Subscales provide data specific to several categories, including Categories 1–3, 7, 8, and 9 of Schein's 11 categories of culture. "To what extent can teachers increase how much their most difficult students learn from them?" is the first question in the subscale of Faculty Growth Mindset. "How confident are you that you can help your school's most challenging students to learn?" and "How easy do you find interacting with students at your school who are from a different cultural background than your own?" are the first questions in the Teaching Efficacy Subscale and the Educating All Subscale. Analyzing responses to these questions can provide insight specific to the espoused beliefs, values, and the basic underlying assumptions of the staff who work together within the elementary school, which is Category 3 of Schein's categories of culture.

Coaching and Feedback Subscale obtains data specific to Category 9, "shared meanings . . . understandings created as interactions with staff members occur." Shared meaning involves staff listening and respecting the views of others, while seeking to understand the point of view of others, which applies directly to coaching and feedback. Student Mindset and Grit Subscales obtain data specific to Category 8, which is "habits of thinking or linguistic paradigms." The scores obtained in these two subscales provide information about staff perception of how often students can change items such as, talent, effort, intelligence and how students set and pursue goals. The data from the Student Mindset and Grit Subscales can provide insight into the shared cognitive frames that guide perceptions of staff (Category 8). The researcher has provided specific examples of

how the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey applies to culture; however, all subcategories provide insight into several categories of culture, according to Schein (2010).

Study 2's School Culture Triage Survey includes three subcategories. The first category of the School Culture Triage Survey, "Professional Collaboration," provides data specific to Category 5, "how you get along with other individuals in the organization," and Level 2, "espoused beliefs and values," of Schein's (2010) 11 categories, and 3 levels of school culture. Affiliative Collegiality and Self-Determination–Efficacy Subscales are the second and third categories and provide insight into the espoused beliefs, values and basic assumptions of the staff who work together within each elementary school.

The Panorama Learning and Culture Survey that was used in Study 1 and the School Culture Triage Survey that was used in Study 2 are both measures of culture, but they are two different surveys. The School Culture Triage Survey contains three subcategories. The first subscale of the School Culture Triage Survey is Professional Collaboration. All five questions included in this subscale include phrases about teachers collaborating to make decisions within the school. The Coaching and Feedback Subscale on the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey also addresses collaboration, but is more specific to coaching and feedback.

The second category of the School Culture Triage Survey is Affiliative Collegiality. The six questions included in this subscale specifically address Categories 1, 2, 8, and 9 of Schein's 11 categories of culture. The questions in the Affiliative Collegiality Subscale are broad and specific to school culture, while the questions on the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey are less broad, but also provide insight into

Categories 1, 2, 8, and 9 of Schein's 11 categories of culture. The final subscale of the School Culture Triage is Self-Determination–Efficacy which aligns with the Teaching Efficacy Subscale on the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey.

The most significant difference between the School Culture Triage Survey and the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey are the scales and the manner in which the questions are worded. The School Culture Triage Survey scale ranges from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*) and the scale on the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey changes for each subscale. Most questions on the School Culture Triage Survey refer to teachers and staff. For example, “teachers and staff discuss instructional strategies and curriculum issues.” The questions on the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey are more specific to each teacher who is filling out the survey. For example, “How often do you receive feedback on your teaching?” All questions are important measures of culture and can be used to measure Schein's 11 categories of culture.

In Study 1 and Study 2, a building emotional intelligence score and a building-level culture score were compared to determine whether a correlation existed. The findings of this study were intended to inform principals of the relationship between levels of emotional intelligence of staff and the culture of a school. In this chapter, the researcher will describe the methodology used, including the participants, how they were selected, the research setting, design and instrumentation, data analysis, and a summary of the chapter.

Research Questions

In this study, the researcher examined the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school.

Data collection for this study was guided by the following research questions and hypotheses:

1. What is the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school?
2. What is the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school?

Statement of Null Hypotheses

1. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school, such that those schools that have higher levels of emotional intelligence will not have a more positive school culture.
2. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school, such that those principals who have a higher level of emotional intelligence will not have a more positive school culture.

Statement of Research Hypotheses

1. There will be a statistically significant relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school, such that those schools that have higher levels of emotional intelligence will also have a more positive school culture.
2. There will be a statistically significant relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school, such that principals who have a higher level of emotional intelligence will also have a more positive school culture.

Study 1

Participants

The participants in this study were not selected randomly. A large school district in Missouri was selected as a representative district. The researcher obtained permission from the control group school district prior to sending the survey to all of the elementary school principals in the district. The researcher invited elementary school principals to complete the survey and to send the electronic link to the survey to certified staff in their schools. The researcher was limited to the principals' willingness to disseminate the survey. The participants were selected based on certification and employment in an elementary school in the representative district.

Participants were either a principal or a certified staff member working in an elementary school in a large school district in Missouri. A certified staff member might have included teacher, counselor, instructional technologist, behavior interventionist, or other similar positions. In total, the researcher obtained the 481 individual participants in the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey. Each participant was tied to an elementary school; however demographic information about each participant did not accompany this data. The researcher obtained the 518 individual participants in the Assessing Emotions Scale independently, by sending the Assessing Emotions Scale to certified staff in the same elementary schools included in the data obtained from the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey. The researcher received 47 more responses to the Assessing Emotions Scale than those that the school district provided from the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey. Of the 518 participants, 41 men, 476 women completed the survey, and one participant did not share his or her gender. A wide variety of roles and certifications were represented. Twenty-three participants were principals, three participants were

assistant principals, 392 participants were teachers, and 100 participants were in a support role (e.g., an instructional coach or school counselor). Of these participants, 17% had been working in their current building for less than 1 year, 25% of the participants had been working in their current building for 1–3 years, 25% had been working in their current building for 4–6 years, 11% had been working in their current building for 7–9 years, 12% had been working in their current building for 10–15 years, and 11% had been working in their current building for 15 or more years. The years in education ranged from less than a year to 15 or more years, with 30% of the participants working for 1–6 years, 21% working for 7–12 years, and 56% working for 15 or more years.

Survey recruitment used three incentives to encourage participation. The principals of all schools who participated received summary information on their schools. Specifically each school that had 60 or more of their staff participate in the survey received their building culture and emotional intelligence scores, as well as a copy of the research to aid in improving both scores. Principals of buildings that did not reach the minimum requirement for participation received only overall study results to protect individual confidentiality. Principals did not receive identifying information of staff who participated to ensure confidentiality. The second incentive used was a PDF form of “jeans day” coupons to print and give to staff for participation. The third incentive was for schools that reached 60% staff participation to be included in a drawing for a \$200 gift card to purchase a meal to recognize staff. Once all data were collected, the names of the schools that participated with 60% staff participation were put into a drawing and the school that was drawn received a \$200 gift card.

Sampling Procedures

Permission to use the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey data was obtained from a large school district in Missouri. Elementary principals in the control group district emailed the Assessing Emotions Scale link to staff and data were analyzed to determine a building emotional intelligence score. All participants were made aware that their responses would be tied to the school in which they were employed; however, their identity would remain anonymous and confidential. A link to the Emotional Intelligence Survey was sent to participants by email. The survey items were available on QuestionPro, an online software program.

Each participant was prompted to enter his or her school name. The school name tied participant responses to the school in which they were employed. With alpha equaling .05 beta β .20 and r equal .5, a sample of 24 gave the researcher sufficient power to detect an effect. The number of certified staff members in each elementary school was obtained from the school district and, once a 60% response rate was reached from 25 elementary schools, those data were used as a part of this study. Collecting similar surveys in two different samples allowed the researcher to compare results. If the results were similar, there would be greater confidence in the findings.

Research Setting

The research setting for this study included elementary schools in a large school district in Missouri. The Panorama Learning and Culture Survey data were obtained from the large school district in Missouri and the Assessing Emotions Scale was emailed to the principals and sent to certified staff within each elementary school by the building principal. This sample provided a wide range of responses, which offered an extensive view of the effects of the self-perceived levels of emotional intelligence of the principal

and staff on the culture of an elementary school. Participant responses were tied to each school, and demographic information was obtained for each elementary school through the Missouri DESE. Once surveys were completed, data were examined according to the research questions driving this study.

Research Design

In accordance with the guidelines of Southwest Baptist University regarding the protection of human participants, a request for review was submitted to the Research Review Board for approval to survey certified staff members in a large school district in Missouri. When permission was received, the researcher emailed, completed, and accessed the surveys online. Once surveys were completed, the data was analyzed.

To explore one important element of the culture of an elementary school, the researcher focused on the emotional intelligence of certified staff members and the principal, as well as on the culture of the school. Principals in a large school district in Missouri received an email containing a survey administered through QuestionPro. This survey provided an emotional intelligence score for each participant. A school-level emotional intelligence score was calculated. The school-level emotional intelligence score and the school-level culture score were then compared to identify any statistically significant relationship between the emotional intelligence of certified staff members and the principal, as well as the culture of the school. Surveys were anonymous, but were tied to the building in which the respondent was employed.

The survey was sent to principals in January 2019, requesting that principals share the survey with certified staff members within their elementary school. Three incentives were used to obtain participation. The first incentive offered to the schools that participated was supplying the building principal with the results of the survey. Each

school that had 60% of its staff participate in the survey received its building culture and emotional intelligence scores, as well as a copy of the research to aid in improving both scores. The principals of buildings that did not reach 60% participation did not receive results. To ensure confidentiality, the principals did not receive identifying information of the staff who participated. The second incentive was a PDF form of “jeans day” coupons to print and give to staff for participation. The third incentive for schools that reached 60% staff participation was inclusion in a drawing for a \$200 gift card to purchase a meal to recognize staff. Once all data were collected, the names of schools that had 60% staff participation were put into a drawing and the school that was drawn received a \$200 gift card. A reminder was generated and sent to all elementary principals in a large school district in Missouri through email, in an effort to obtain additional responses, which included an update on the percentage of staff who had completed the survey. Two weeks after the initial email was sent, a second email was sent to principals, and phone calls were made as necessary. Once a sufficient amount of responses were received, the results were put in the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) and analyzed for statistical significance.

Instrumentation

Two surveys were used in this research. The Assessing Emotions Scale (see Appendix A) was used to obtain the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence for certified staff members and the principal within each elementary school. The Panorama Learning and Culture Survey that Panorama administered in a large school district in Missouri (see Appendix C) was used to obtain the self-perceived level of culture in each elementary school. Demographic information was also collected for each participant.

Schutte et al. (2009) based the self-report emotional intelligence test on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) original model of emotional intelligence. The Assessing Emotions Scale is considered a trait measure of emotional intelligence and has been used in a variety of studies for research suggesting the scale has sound reliability and reasonable evidence of validity (Schutte et al., 2009). The development sample consisted of 346 participants and Schutte et al. (2009) found that the internal consistency of the Assessing Emotions Scale (as measured by Cronbach's alpha) was .90. The internal consistency of the 33-item scale has been reported in many other studies. When testing for internal consistency, the mean alpha across diverse samples of the other studies has been .87 (Schutte et al., 2009). The Assessing Emotions Scale asks participants to respond to each statement using a Likert-type scale of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The participants selected 1 if they (*strongly disagreed*), 2 if they (*somewhat disagreed*), 3 if they (*neither agreed nor disagreed*), 4 if they (*somewhat agreed*), and 5 if they (*strongly agreed*). This trait approach to emotional intelligence used information that was related to how emotional intelligence characteristics are displayed in everyday life. For example, Question 1 asked the participants to provide the response that described them according to the following statement: "I know when to speak about my personal problems to others." In another example, Question 2 asked the participants to use the same Likert-type scale to provide the response that described them according to the following statement: "When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them." "Total scale scores are calculated by reverse coding Items 5, 28, and 33, and then summing all items. Scores can range from 33 to 165, with higher scores indicating more characteristic emotional intelligence" (Schutte et al., 2009, p. 2). The Assessing Emotions Scale was intended to assess trait emotional intelligence (Schutte et

al., 2009). Although the developer recommended using total scores on the 33-item scale, Ciarrochi, Chan, and Bajgar (2001) devised four subscales from the 33 items. Perception of Emotions Subscale included 10 statements (Items 5, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22, 25, 29, 32, and 33). For example, "I find it hard to understand the nonverbal messages of other people." The Managing Own Emotions Subscale included nine statements (Items 2, 3, 10, 12, 14, 21, 23, 20, and 31). For example, "When I am faced with obstacle, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them." The Managing Others Emotions Subscale included eight statements (Items 1, 4, 11, 13, 16, 24, 26, and 30). For example, "I know when to speak about my personal problems to others." The Utilization of Emotions Subscale included six items (Items 6, 7, 8, 17, 20, and 27). For example, "Some of the major events of my life have led me to reevaluate what is important and not important." Again, the participants were asked to respond to each statement, using a Likert-type scale of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). These four subscales were analyzed in addition to the total, emotional intelligence score for each school. Ciarrochi et al. (2001, 2002), drawing on responses from adolescents and university students respectively, reported the internal consistency for subscales as follows: Perception of Emotion Subscale (.76, .80); Managing Own Emotions Subscale (.63, .78); Managing Others' Emotions Subscale (.66, .66); and Utilization of Emotion Subscale (.55; Schutte, 2009, p. 126). This survey was created by and used with the permission of Schutte (2001).

The Assessing Emotions Scale demonstrates not only reliability, but also evidence of convergent validity. Convergent validity measures constructs that are not only related to one another in theory, but also are observed as related to one another. Convergent validity shows that the responses to the Assessing Emotions Scale are related to other measures of emotions. Schutte (2009) referenced several studies in which the researchers

obtained scores using this scale. Among the studies that Schutte (2009) reported were Brackett and Mayer (2003), who found that scores on the Emotional Quotient Inventory (a self-report survey that measures emotional intelligence and is based on a larger definition of emotional intelligence), and the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (a performance test of emotional intelligence) were correlated with scores on the Assessing Emotions Scale. The Assessing Emotions Scale scores were also related to clarity of emotions, repair of emotions, and attention to emotions when analyzing the work of Bastian, Burns, and Nettelbeck (as cited in Schutte, 2009). Schutte (2009) referenced numerous studies related to outcomes that one might expect to be associated with emotional intelligence and are found in employment, mental health, and academic pursuits. Divergent validity measures constructs that should not be related in theory and are not observed to be related. Schutte (2009) addressed divergent validity, showing that the Assessing Emotions Scale is not related to measures representing different variables. Schutte (2009) examined correlations between each of the Big Five Dimensions, (five dimensions that seem to underlie many characteristic traits, including extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotion stability, and openness) indicating that the scores in the studies are relatively distinct when they are compared to the Assessing Emotions Scale scores.

The Panorama Learning and Culture Survey (see Appendix C) was administered by Panorama and data were used to analyze the building-level culture score when compared to the emotional intelligence score for each elementary school a large school district in Missouri. The Panorama Learning and Culture Survey asked participants to score each statement using a similar Likert-type scale that was original for each section of questions or question. The survey included 42 statements divided into six categories:

Coaching and Feedback, Student Mindset, Grit, Faculty and Growth Mindset, Educating All, and Teaching Efficacy Subscales. The first category, Coaching and Feedback, included five statements. For example, “How much feedback do you receive on your teaching”? Participants were asked to select a response ranging *from no feedback at all to a tremendous amount of feedback* using a Likert-type scale. The second category, Student Mindset, asked participants to rate how possible the participant thought it was for their students to change their mindset on six given items (e.g., effort, behavior, and talent). Participants rated each on a Likert-type scale ranging from, *not at all possible to change, to completely possible to change*. The third category, Grit, included five questions, for example, “If your students have a problem while working towards an important goal, how well can they keep working?” Participants were asked to select a response ranging from “not well at all,” to “extremely well,” using a Likert-type scale. The fourth category, Faculty and Growth Mindset, included eight questions, for example, “To what extent can teachers increase how much their most difficult students learn from them?” The participants were asked to select a response ranging from, *cannot increase at all to can increase a tremendous amount*, using a Likert-type scale. The fifth category, Educating All, included nine questions, for example, “How easy do you find interacting with students at your school that are from a different cultural background than your own?” The participants were asked to select a response ranging from, *not at all easy to extremely easy*. The sixth category, Teaching Efficacy, included nine questions, for example, “How confident are you that you can help your school’s most challenging students?” The participants were asked to select a response ranging from *not at all confident to extremely confident*. Total scores were calculated by Panorama, and a percentage was given for each level of responses. A higher percentage indicated a higher Panorama Learning and

Culture Survey score, while a lower percentage indicated a lower Panorama Learning and Culture Survey score. The building-level culture score used was the overall percentage calculated by Panorama. Panorama compared each topic score to the average score for schools or districts in Panorama's national database. Panorama reported Cronbach's alpha for the following categories of the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey: Student Mindset (.79); Grit (.82); Faculty Growth Mindset (.86); Educating All (.86); and Teaching Efficacy (.8). Panorama created the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey, and the data were obtained and used with the permission of a large school district in Missouri.

The Panorama Learning and Culture Survey is an established instrument that school districts use to measure school culture. Panorama's national dataset includes teacher and staff survey data from approximately 200 school districts, 2,000 schools, and 70,000 teachers and staff members. The Panorama Learning and Culture Survey possesses face validity, and items included in the scale are logically related to culture. Table 1 demonstrates how the subscales are related to the categories of culture as Schein (2010) defined them, and to the School Culture Triage that the researcher used in Study 2.

Table 1

Schein's Categories of Culture Compared to the Panorama Learning and Culture Subcategories and the School Culture Triage

Schein's Categories of Culture	Panorama Learning and Culture Subscales	The School Culture Triage Survey
Category 1 Behavioral Regularities and Category 11 Formal Rituals and Celebrations	Educating All (e.g. How easy do you find interacting with students at our school who are from a different background?)	Affiliative Collegiality (e.g. Teachers and staff tell stories of celebrations that support the school's values.)
Category 2 Group Norms and Category 4 Formal Philosophy	Student Mindset (e.g. How possible do you think it is to change how well students behave in class?)	Professional Collaboration (e.g. Teachers and staff discuss instructional strategies and curriculum issues.)
Category 3 Espoused Values and Category 10 Root Metaphors and Category 7 Embedded Skills	Faculty Growth Mindset (e.g. How possible is it for teachers to change how well they relate to their most difficult students?)	Self-Determination-Efficacy (e.g. Members of our school community seek to define the problem/issue rather than blame others).
Category 5 Rules of the Game and Category 6 Climate	Teaching Efficacy (e.g. How confident are you that you can help your school's most challenging students to learn?)	Self-Determination-Efficacy (e.g. Members of our school community seek to define the problem/issue rather than blame others).
Category 8 Habits of Thinking, Mental Models or Linguistic Paradigms	Grit (e.g. If your students fail to reach an important goal, how likely are they to try again?)	Affiliative Collegiality (e.g. Teachers and staff tell stories of celebrations that support the school's values.)
Category 9 Shared Meanings	Coaching and Feedback (e.g. How useful do you find the feedback you receive on your teaching?)	Professional Collaboration (e.g. Teachers and staff discuss instructional strategies and curriculum issues.)

In this quantitative study, the researcher examined the relationship between self-perceived levels of emotional intelligence of staff and the principal, and the culture of a school. The Panorama Learning and Culture Survey data were obtained from a large school district in Missouri to obtain a culture score for each elementary school. The Assessing Emotions Scale was emailed to elementary principals in the same large school district in Missouri to disseminate to certified staff, and participants were asked to answer

questions that included demographic information (see Appendix A). The demographic information was used to link data from each survey to the correct school and to determine the position held by the respondent.

The Assessing Emotions Scale recommends that respondents complete the 33 statement form. Technical issues occurred in Studies 1 and 2; therefore, respondents were asked to complete 31 of the 33 statements on the form by selecting the number on the 5-point, Likert-type scale that closely reflected the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statement provided. The participants were made aware that the Assessing Emotions Scale would take approximately 4–6 minutes to complete. The participants in Study 2 were also asked to complete the 17-statement School Culture Triage Survey form by selecting the number on the 5-point, Likert-type scale that closely reflected the extent to which they participated in the statement provided. The participants in Study 2 were made aware that the combined surveys would take 6–7 minutes to complete. The Panorama Learning and Culture Survey data were obtained from a large school district in Missouri to determine a culture score for each elementary school. All staff surveys were anonymous, but were tied to the elementary school in which each participant was employed. Although the principal's surveys were not anonymous, they are confidential and identifying information was not included in the data set.

Study 2

Participants

The participants in this study were not selected randomly. Study 2 used a purposive sample of participants. The researcher used a list of all elementary school superintendents in Missouri, and emailed superintendents requesting permission to contact elementary school principals within their school district. Once permission was

received from the superintendent of a school district, the researcher invited elementary school principals to complete the survey and send the survey to certified staff in their school. The researcher was limited to the principals' willingness to disseminate the survey. The participants were selected according to their certification and employment in a public elementary school in Missouri.

The participants were either a principal or a certified staff member who worked in an elementary school in Missouri. A certified staff member might have included teacher, counselor, instructional technologist, behavior interventionist, or other similar positions. In total there were 491 participants; of those participants, 35 men, 449 women completed the survey, and seven participants did not share their gender. A wide variety of roles and certifications were represented. Eighteen participants were principals, two participants were assistant principals, 396 participants were teachers, and 75 participants were in a support role (e.g., an instructional coach or a school counselor). Of the participants, 11% had been working in their current building less than 1 year, 21% of participants had been working in their current building for 1–3 years, 18% had been working in their current building for 4–6 years, 14% had been working in their current building for 7–9 years, 16% had been working in their current building between 10 and 15 years and 15% had been working in their current building for 15 or more years. The years in education ranged from less than a year to 15 or more years, with 29% of participants having worked for 1–6 years, 21% having worked for 7–12 years, and 48% having worked 15 or more years.

Survey recruitment used three incentives to encourage participation. The principals of all schools that participated received summary information on their schools. Specifically, each school that had 60% of its staff participate in the survey received its

building culture and emotional intelligence scores, as well as a copy of the research to aid in improving both scores. The principals whose buildings did reach the minimum requirement for participation received only overall study results to protect individual confidentiality. To ensure confidentiality, the principals did not receive identifying information of staff who participated. The second incentive used was a PDF form of “jeans day” coupons to print and give to staff for participation. The third incentive was for schools that reached 60% staff participation to be included in a drawing for \$200 to purchase a meal to recognize staff. Once all data were collected, the names of schools that participated with 60% staff participation were put into a drawing and the school that was drawn received \$200 electronically through PayPal.

Sampling Procedures

Study 2 used a purposive sample of participants. The researcher used a list of all elementary school superintendents in Missouri, and emailed superintendents, requesting permission to contact elementary school principals within their school district. Once permission was received from the superintendent of a school district, the researcher invited elementary school principals to complete the survey and to send the survey to certified staff in their school.

All participants were made aware that their responses would be tied to the school in which they were employed. However, their identity would remain undisclosed and confidential. The survey items were available on QuestionPro, an online software program. With alpha equal .05 beta β .20 and r equal .5, a sample of 24 provides sufficient power to detect an effect. The number of certified staff members in each elementary school was obtained from the Missouri DESE Web site and once a 60% response rate was reached from 29 elementary schools, those data were used as a part of

this study. Once data were obtained, school-level scores were calculated for both school culture and emotional intelligence.

Each participant was prompted to enter his or her school name. The school name tied participant responses to the school in which they were employed. The number of certified staff members in each elementary school was obtained through the Missouri DESE and, once a 60% response rate was reached, those data were used as a part of this study.

The research setting for this study included a purposive sample in Missouri. A survey, including two parts, emotional intelligence and culture, was emailed to principals and sent to certified staff within each elementary school. This sample provided a wide range of responses that offered an extensive view of the effects of the self-perceived levels of emotional intelligence of the principal and staff on the culture of an elementary school. Participant responses were tied to each school, and demographic information was obtained for each elementary school through the Missouri DESE. Once surveys were completed, the data were examined according to the research questions driving this study.

Research Setting

The research setting for this study included a sampling of elementary schools in Missouri. The Emotional Intelligence and School Culture Triage Surveys were emailed to principals and the building principals sent them to certified staff within each elementary school. This sample provided a wide range of responses, which offered an extensive view of the effects of the self-perceived levels of emotional intelligence of the principal and staff on the culture of an elementary school. Participant responses were tied to each school, and demographic information was obtained for each elementary school through

the Missouri DESE. Once surveys were completed, the data were examined according to the research questions driving this study.

Research Design

In accordance with the guidelines of Southwest Baptist University regarding the protection of human participants, a request for review was submitted to the Research Review Board. Approval was requested to survey principals and certified staff members in a purposive sampling of elementary schools in Missouri. Once permission was received, the surveys were emailed, completed, and returned, and the data were analyzed.

To explore one important element of the culture of an elementary school, the researcher focused on the emotional intelligence of certified staff members and the principal, and the culture of the school. Principals of elementary schools within the purposive sampling of schools in Missouri received an email containing a two-part survey administered through QuestionPro. Part 1 of the survey provided an emotional intelligence score for each participant, and Part 2 of the survey obtained a score for the culture of the elementary school in which the participant was employed. A school-level emotional intelligence score and a school-level culture score were calculated and then compared to identify any statistically significant relationship between the emotional intelligence of the staff and the principal, and the culture of the school. Surveys were anonymous, but were tied to the building in which the respondent was employed.

The survey was sent to the principals in January 2019, requesting that the principals share the survey with certified staff members within their elementary school. One week after the initial email, a reminder was generated and sent to all elementary principals through email, in an effort to obtain additional responses, which included an update on percentage of staff who had completed the survey. Two weeks after the initial

email was sent, a second email was sent to building principals, and phone calls were made, as necessary. Once a sufficient amount of responses was received, the results were put into SPSS and analyzed for statistical significance.

Instrumentation

Demographic information was collected for each participant, and two surveys were also used in this research (Appendix A). The Assessing Emotions Scale, as described in Study 1 (see Appendix B), was used to obtain the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence for certified staff members and the principal within each elementary school. The School Culture Triage Survey (see Appendix C) was used to obtain a school culture score for a purposive sample of elementary schools in Missouri that participated in the study.

The School Culture Triage Survey (see Appendix C) was used to obtain a school culture score for each elementary school that participated in the study. The School Culture Triage Survey asked the participants to score each statement using a Likert-type scale. The participants were given 17 statements. The participants responded to how frequently the items applied to their school, ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always or almost always*). The statements were divided into 3 categories: Professional Collaboration, Affiliative Collegiality, and Self-Determination–Efficacy. The first category, Professional Collaboration, included five statements, for example, “Teachers and staff discuss instructional strategies and curriculum issues.” The second category, Affiliative Collegiality, included six statements. For example, the first item read, “Teachers and staff tell stories of celebrations that support the school’s values.” The third category, Self-Determination–Efficacy, included six statements. For example, the first item read, “When something is not working in our school, the faculty and staff predict and prevent rather

than react and repair.” The participants were asked to score the second and third sections, using the same scale used in the first section, which described how often the staff did what was included in each statement.

The School Culture Triage Survey Tally Form (see Appendix D) was used to obtain a total culture score for each school. The participant scores were averaged for each item to create a mean score for each item. Those means were then added together to create a total scale score for each school. Scores could range from 17 (lowest score) to 85 (highest score), with higher scores indicating a positive, healthy, school culture. Scores of 17–40 indicated critical and immediate attention necessary and a full-scale assessment was recommended, followed by investment of resources to repair and heal the school culture. A score of 41–59 indicated that modifications and improvements were necessary and that building leaders should conduct a more intense assessment of the school’s culture to determine the area most in need of improvement. A score of 60–75 indicated that the school’s culture should be monitored and maintained to make positive adjustments. Finally, a score of 76–85 indicated an amazing school culture in which no improvement would be needed. In a like manner, subscores were created for Professional Collaboration, Affiliative Collegiality, and Self-Determination–Efficacy.

The School Culture Triage Survey was intended to assess quickly the current status of the culture of a school (Wagner, 2006). This survey was created by and used with the permission of Wagner (2006). The School Culture Triage Survey was included in *The Principal Leadership Magazine*, which includes hands-on activities for principals to use for school improvement. The School Culture Triage Survey has been used in schools across the United States and Canada, and in various research studies (Cunningham, 2003, MeltonShutt, 2004; Novak, 2008; Wagner, 2004; Wagner &

Masden-Copas, 2002). The studies mentioned support the survey instrument's validity and reliability. Specifically, Novak (2008) conducted a reliability analysis. According to Novak's (2008) reliability analysis, total question reliability (17) revealed a Cronbach's alpha of 0.925. Additional reliability analyses were completed for each of the three components of the survey: Professional Collaboration, Affiliative Collegiality, and Self-Determination–Efficacy. Survey items focusing on collaboration (five) had a Cronbach's alpha of .743. Affiliative Collegiality related survey items (six) showed a Cronbach's alpha of .887, while Self-Determination–Efficacy survey items (six) had a Cronbach's alpha of .879. An intercorrelation test for each of the subscales (27) was also computed. The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation test revealed that the correlation between Professional Collaboration and Affiliative Collegiality was significant ($r = 0.95$, $p = 0.001$). A significant correlation was found between Professional Collaboration and Self-Determination–Efficacy ($r = 0.97$, $p = 0.001$). In addition to these findings of significance, the correlation test between Affiliative Collegiality and Self-Determination–Efficacy was also significant ($r = 0.98$, $p = 0.001$). Each of these reliability results supports the presumption that the School Culture Triage Survey had high, internal consistency reliability in determining school culture (Novak, 2008).

Several researchers have used the School Culture Triage, including Phillips, who conducted over 3,100 assessments and found evidence that supports school culture that influences the day-to-day happenings in a school (Melton-Shutt, 2004). In 2002, Melton-Shutt used the School Culture Triage Survey in a study that included 66 elementary schools in Kentucky. Cunningham (2003) then conducted a study of 61 schools in Florida and found results consistent with those of Melton-Shutt (2004), indicating a positive correlation with student achievement. The wide use and consistency of results suggest the

validity of the School Culture Triage. Table 1 compares the School Culture Triage with Schein's Categories of School Culture, which indicates face validity of the School Culture Triage Survey.

Data Analysis

Upon return of survey results, individual emotional intelligence and culture scores were averaged to calculate a total emotional intelligence and culture score for each school. A total, emotional intelligence score and a culture score were entered into SPSS and analyzed according to research questions. Schools that had less than 60% of their staff participate were excluded from the final data set.

A Pearson correlation was used to calculate the degree of relationship between school-level emotional intelligence and school culture scores. The following assumptions were made when calculating the correlations: level of measurement, related pairs, absence of outliers, normality of variables, linearity, and homoscedasticity. Both Study 1 and Study 2 results were analyzed separately and then compared. In each study, correlations were calculated between school-level staff emotional intelligence, principal emotional intelligence, and school-level culture. School-level demographics (e.g., gender and age) correlation to building-level culture and emotional intelligence scores were also explored to determine whether a relationship existed. Culture and emotional intelligence subscores were analyzed for each study as well. After comparing culture and emotional intelligence scores and subscores for each building, all building results were compared to determine statistical significance. Finally, the results from Study 1 and Study 2 were compared to determine the consistency of results across samples.

For both Study 1 and Study 2, emotional intelligence scores were used to predict school culture scores in linear regression analyses. Once the researcher had the data, the

following assumptions were checked: linear relationship, multivariate normality, no or little multicollinearity, no autocorrection and homoscedasticity. Using partial correlations, demographic variables were explored as potential predictors of school culture above and beyond the variance attributable to emotional intelligence.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine whether a relationship existed between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the staff, the principal, and the culture of an elementary school. Chapter 3 defined the process and methodology for examining the relationship between the self-perceived levels of emotional intelligence of the staff and the principal, and the culture of an elementary school. In Part 1 of this study a survey was sent to a large school district in Missouri. In Part 2 of this study, a survey was sent to a purposive sampling of elementary schools in Missouri to obtain a building-level emotional intelligence score and a building-level culture score used for comparison. Once the researcher had the data, they were checked for the four principal functions of linear regression model. The data were collected, analyzed, and are presented in Chapter 4. In Chapter 5, the researcher summarizes the study and explains how the data obtained affect education and future studies.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine whether a relationship existed between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal, the staff, and the culture of an elementary school. Although several studies have been conducted on the effects of emotional intelligence, the emotional intelligence of staff as it relates to school culture has not been studied. Therefore, more research on the emotional intelligence of all staff in a building was needed to determine the effects of emotional intelligence on the culture of a school. This study could provide insight into the underlying components of staff interactions that happen on a daily basis, which enhance or damage the culture of the school. The researcher sought to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence of the staff and the principal on the culture of an elementary school.

The researcher hoped to contribute to the current research on emotional intelligence and to improve the culture of an elementary school by analyzing the relationship between the two. The researcher conducted this study in two parts. Study 1 was restricted to a large school district in Missouri. Study 2 was administered in a purposive sample of elementary schools from school districts in Missouri. Elementary schools in the State of Missouri are assigned to the Regional Professional Development Center (RPDC) in their respective region. There are nine RPDCs in the State of Missouri and five of the nine RPDCs were represented in the sample: two schools from the Heart of Missouri RPDC, one school from the Kansas City RPDC, two schools from the Northwest RPDC, one school from the South Central RPDC, one school from the Central RPDC, and the majority of the participants (16) were from the Southwest RPDC. For

both studies, the researcher used the Assessing Emotions Scale, which addresses the four factors of emotional intelligence that Mayor and Salovey (1990) identified. Separate but similar measures of school culture were used in Study 1 and Study 2, which are discussed in detail in the following paragraphs.

With Study 1, the researcher collected demographic information for each participant, and included two survey instruments. The large school district in Missouri was already administering the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey; therefore, that survey was used to measure culture for each school that participated. The Panorama Learning and Culture Survey included 42 statements that were divided into six categories. The second instrument used was the Assessing Emotions Scale, which consisted of 33 items; however, only 31 items were used because of technical issues that resulted in the failure to include two items. The Panorama Learning and Culture Survey data was obtained from the large school district in Missouri, for 36 elementary schools. The Assessing Emotions Scale was emailed to 36 elementary school principals in the large school district in Missouri.

In Study 2, the researcher also collected demographic data for each participant and included two survey instruments. The School Culture Triage Survey was used to obtain a school culture score for each elementary school that participated in the study and included 17 statements. The Assessing Emotions Scale, as described in Study 1, was also used in Study 2. After obtaining permission from each district superintendent, both survey instruments were sent by email to 108 elementary school principals in 64 school districts.

Study 1

Study Design

To explore the culture of an elementary school, analyses were conducted that required the calculation of a total, school culture score and total, emotional intelligence score for each elementary school that participated. Total-school scores for each subscale were also calculated for comparison. The results of total-school scores coupled with demographic data (included on the survey and obtained from the Missouri DESE open access data base) were critical when analyzing the relationship between emotional intelligence of staff and the culture of an elementary school. Two separate surveys of each school were administered, one for the Panorama Learning and School Culture Survey data and one for the Assessing Emotions Scale data. Reliability and correlation analyses were used to test the hypothesis that a positive relationship would exist between the emotional intelligence of the principal and the staff and the culture of an elementary school.

The Panorama Culture and Learning Survey produced the total, school culture score and the total-school score for each subscale of school culture. The individual-level data was obtained from the school district for each of the elementary schools. Each building's individual-level data was then averaged across participants to calculate a building-level culture score for each building. The Assessing Emotions Scale produced the total-school emotional intelligence score and the total-school score for each subscale. The individual-level data for each building was obtained, and all of the scores were averaged across participants to create a total-school emotional intelligence score and a total-school score for each subscale.

Demographic data was included on the survey, and additional data on schools were obtained through the Missouri DESE open access data base. The purpose of requesting the participants to share in which school they work was to tie each participant to the elementary school in which they worked so that demographic data could be used to obtain additional information about each school that participated. Correlations were performed to identify, through the Assessing Emotions Scale scores and the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey scores, evidence of relationships between the average number of years in education, the number of years in the current building, the percent of free and reduced-price lunch, and the age of staff. In this study, the researcher hypothesized that schools that had a high emotional intelligence score would also have a high culture score. .

Participants

In total, 481 individual participants (obtained from the school district) participated in the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey. Each participant was tied to an elementary school; however demographic information about each participant did not accompany this data. The researcher obtained the 518 individual participants in the Assessing Emotions Scale independently, by sending the Assessing Emotions Scale to certified staff in the same elementary schools included in the data obtained from the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey. The researcher received 47 more responses to the Assessing Emotions Scale than those that the school district provided from the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey. Of the 518 participants who completed the Assessing Emotions Scale, 41 men, 476 women completed the survey, and one participant did not share his or her gender. A wide variety of roles and certifications were represented. Of the participants, 23 were principals, three were assistant principals, 392 were teachers, and 100 were in a

support role (e.g., an instructional coach or school counselor). Of the participants, 17% had been working in their current building for less than 1 year, 25% had been working in their current building for 1–3 years, 25% had been working in their current building for 4–6 years, 11% had been working in their current building for 7–9 years, 12% had been working in their current building for 10–15 years and 11% had been working in their current building for 15 or more years. The years in education ranged from less than 1 year to 15 or more years, with 30% of participants having worked for 1–6 years, 21% having worked for 7–12 years, 10% having worked for 13–15 years, and 56% having worked for 15 or more years. (See Table 2 and Table 3).

To ensure the reliability and validity of the study, some disqualifications were required. If the participants failed to provide the name of the school in which they worked, preventing the comparison of independent and dependent variables, they were disqualified from the study. One school, in which the participants did not reach a 60% of certified staff participation rate, was disqualified from the study.

Table 2

Gender, Age, and Position of Assessing Emotions Scale Participants for Study 1

	Demographic	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	41	7.9
	Female	476	91.9
	Missing	1	.2
Age	22–26	50	10.4
	27–31	65	13.5
	32–36	79	16.4
	37–41	80	16.6
	42–46	67	13.9
	47–51	67	13.8
	52–67	74	15.4
Position	Principal	23	4.4
	Assistant principal	3	.6
	Teacher	392	75.7
	Other	100	19.3

Table 3

Years in Building and Years in Education for the Assessing Emotions Scale Participants for Study 1

	Years worked in current building		Years worked in education	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 1 Year	87	16.8	18	3.5
1–3 Years	129	24.9	129	10.9
4–6 Years	128	24.7	128	15.67
7–9 Years	61	11.8	61	10.9
10–12 Years	45	8.7	45	11.1
13–15 Years	23	4.4	23	10.5
15 or more years	40	7.7	40	37.3
Missing	5	1.0	6	1.2

Buildings and Schools

Twenty-five of 32 elementary schools, who serve any combination of students in Kindergarten through Grade 5, participated in Study 1. Although there are 36 total elementary schools in the large school district in southwestern Missouri, four of the 36 schools served students who were in grades higher than Kindergarten through Grade 5; therefore, those schools were not eligible for this study. These schools represented a range of sizes with a minimum of 175 students and maximum of 523 students, with a mean of 323. The 25 elementary schools also represented a range of populations of students on free and reduced-price lunch rate, with a minimum of 20% free and reduced-price lunch rate and a maximum of 94% free and reduced-price lunch rate, with a mean of 65%.

Scale Analysis

Panorama Learning and Culture Survey scale scores. Data was obtained from a large school district in Missouri in which 481 participants completed a survey instrument consisting of 42 items on the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey. The items from the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey were measured on a 5-point, Likert scale (Appendix D). Each participant indicated his or her opinions on all 42 items, after which all of the scores were added together, creating a total scale score for each participant. The individual participants' total scores were then averaged to create a mean total, school culture score for each school or building.

The individual-level scale scores were normally distributed with a mean of 167.34 ($SD = 17.06$). The scores ranged from 121 to 209. The survey's internal consistency (as measured by Cronbach's alpha) was .94, indicating a strong internal consistency. Total, school culture scores were normally distributed with a mean of 165.12 ($SD = 2.52$) and scores ranged from 161.63 to 170.08.

Panorama Learning and Culture Survey subscale scores. The scale items and their respective scores were categorized into six subscales. The scores from items that represented specific constructs were combined, creating subscale scores for each construct. The subscale items and the constructs that they measured follow:

1. Coaching and Feedback – Items 1–5
2. Student Mindset – Items 6–11
3. Grit – Items 12–16
4. Faculty Growth Mindset – Items 17–24
5. Educating All – Items 25–33
6. Teaching Efficacy – Items 34–42

The subscale scores were calculated for each participant who was represented in the sample. Then, the individual participant subscale scores were averaged to create subscale scores for each school. Each subscale had a different number of items; therefore, the subscale scores were averaged, instead of summed, to make them comparable.

Coaching and Feedback Subscale. The individual-level, Coaching and Feedback Subscale data revealed a normal distribution with a mean of 3.65 ($SD = .81$) on a 5-point, Likert scale. The individual scores ranged from 1.0 to 5.0. The Cronbach's alpha was .925, indicating a strong internal consistency. The mean of the total-school, Coaching and Feedback Subscale scores at the building level was 3.66 ($SD = .34$) on a 5-point, Likert scale. The scores ranged from 3.07 to 4.31.

Student Mindset Subscale. The individual-level, Student Mindset Subscale data revealed a normal distribution with a mean of 4.07 ($SD = .54$) on a 5-point, Likert scale. The individual scores ranged from 2.0 to 5.0. The Cronbach's alpha was .796, indicating an acceptable internal consistency of its scale items. The mean of the total-school, Student Mindset Subscale scores at the building level was 4.08 ($SD = .11$) on a 5-point, Likert scale, and scores ranged from 3.86 to 4.34.

Grit Subscale. The individual-level, Grit Subscale data revealed a normal distribution with a mean of 3.51 ($SD = .62$) on a 5-point, Likert scale. The individual scores ranged from 1.40 to 5.0. The subscale's Cronbach's alpha was .807, indicating a good internal consistency of subscale items. The mean of the total-school, Grit Subscale scores at the building level was 3.51 ($SD = .19$) on a 5-point, Likert scale, and the scores ranged from 3.08 to 3.85.

Faculty Growth Mindset Subscale. The individual-level, Faculty Growth Mindset Subscale data revealed a normal distribution with a mean of 4.04 ($SD = .54$) on a 5-point,

Likert scale. The individual scores ranged from 2.0 to 5.0. The subscale's Cronbach's alpha was .896, indicating a strong internal consistency of its subscale items. The mean of the total-school, Faculty Growth Mindset Subscale scores at the building level was 4.04 ($SD = .12$) on a 5-point, Likert scale, and scores ranged from 3.93 to 4.45.

Educating All Subscale. The individual-level, Educating All Subscale data revealed a normal distribution with a mean of 4.12 ($SD = .51$) on a 5-point, Likert scale. The individual scores ranged from 2.33 to 5.0. The subscale's Cronbach's alpha was .882, indicating a good internal consistency of its subscale items. The mean of the total-school, Educating All Subscale scores at the building level was 4.12 ($SD = .16$) on a 5-point, Likert scale, and scores ranged from 3.81 to 4.54.

Teaching Efficacy Subscale. The individual-level, Teaching Efficacy Subscale data revealed a normal distribution with a mean of 4.10 ($SD = .45$) on a 5-point, Likert scale. The individual-level scores ranged from 2.67 to 5.0. The subscale's Cronbach's alpha was .861, indicating a good internal consistency of its subscale items. The mean of the total-school, Teaching Efficacy Subscale scores at the building level was 4.11 ($SD = .15$) on a 5-point, Likert scale, and scores ranged from 3.93 to 4.45 (see Table 4).

Table 4

Individual-Level and Building-Level Scale and Subscale Scores for the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey

Panorama Survey Subscales	Individual level				Alpha	Building level	
	Min	Max	Mean	SD		Mean	SD
Total Panorama Survey scores	121.0	209.0	167.34	17.06	.94	165.12	2.52
Coaching and Feedback	1.0	5.0	3.65	.81	.92	3.66	.34
Student Mindset	2.0	5.0	4.07	.54	.79	4.08	.11
Grit	1.40	5.0	3.51	.62	.80	3.51	.19
Faculty Growth Mindset	2.0	5.0	4.04	.54	.89	4.04	.12
Educating All	2.33	5.0	4.12	.51	.88	4.12	.16
Teaching Efficacy	2.67	5.0	4.10	.45	.86	4.11	.15

Panorama Learning and Culture Survey overall scale. To further establish the internal consistency in the individual-level data, the researcher sought to measure the correlations between the overall scale and subscales, and among the subscales (see Table 5). The sample indicated a predominately positive correlation between the overall school culture scale score and the subscale scores of Coaching and Feedback, Student Mindset, Grit, Faculty Growth Mindset, Educating All, and Teaching Efficacy Subscales ($r(25) = .628$ to $.808$, all $p < .001$).

Table 5

Correlation With Total-Building Panorama Learning and Culture Survey Score

Subscale	Correlation	Sig.	N
Coaching and Feedback	-.149	.478	25
Student Mindset	.073	.729	25
Grit	.055	.792	25
Faculty Growth Mindset	.328	.110	25
Educating All	.140	.505	25
Teaching Efficacy	-.021	.921	25

In further analysis, the sample indicated a very small correlation between total, school culture scores and total, school culture subscale scores (Table 5). At the building level, neither the total scale score nor the subscale scores were significantly correlated; therefore, the total score does not seem to be related to the subscale scores at the building level. The small correlation between total school culture scores and total school culture subscale scores indicates that the survey (when averaging scores to determine a building level score) may not be a reliable measure of school culture.

To determine reliability of the survey, the researcher also examined the correlation between subscales of the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey. The Panorama Learning and Culture Survey obtains data that is specific to Schein’s 11 categories and three levels of culture. For example, “To what extent can teachers increase how much their most difficult students learn from them?” is the first question in the Faculty Growth Mindset Subscale. “How confident are you that you can help your school’s most challenging students to learn?” and “How easy do you find interacting with

students at your school who are from a different cultural background than your own?” are the first questions in the Teaching Efficacy Subscale and the Educating All Subscale. Analyzing responses to these questions can provide insight that is specific to the espoused beliefs, values, and the basic underlying assumptions of the staff who work together within the elementary school.

The Coaching and Feedback Subscale obtains data specific to shared meaning, which involves staff listening and respecting the views of others, while seeking to understand the point of view of others, which applies directly to coaching and feedback. The Student Mindset and Grit Subscales obtain data specific to habits of thinking or linguistic paradigms. The scores obtained in these two subscales provide information about staff perception of how often students can change items (e.g., talent, effort, intelligence and how students set and pursue goals). The data from the Student Mindset and Grit Subscales can provide insight into the shared cognitive frames that guide perceptions of staff.

In Table 6, the researcher analyzed how the subscales in Panorama Learning and Culture Survey correlated with each other. When analyzing the subscales of total school culture, a moderate positive correlation was found between most subscales, with the exception of the Student Mindset Subscale and Teaching Efficacy Subscale, and the Student Mindset Subscale and the Coaching Feedback Subscale. These subscales also had a positive correlation; however, it was smaller than the correlation between the other subscales. Strong significant positive correlations were found between the Teaching Efficacy, Coaching Feedback, and Educating All Subscales. The significance indicates that when the Teaching Efficacy Subscale score is high, the Coaching Feedback Subscale

score is high. The data also indicate that when the Teaching Efficacy Subscale score is high, the Educating All Subscale score is high.

Table 6

Correlation Between Total-Building Panorama Learning and Culture Survey Subscales

Scale and Subscale		Teaching Efficacy	Faculty Growth Mindset	Student Mindset	Grit	Coaching Feedback	Educating All
Teaching Efficacy	Corr.	1.0	.571	.211	.676	.759	.706
	Sig.		.003	.311	.000	.000	.000
	<i>N</i>		25	25	25	25	25
Faculty Growth Mindset	Corr.		1.0	.489	.604	.375	.647
	Sig.			.013	.001	.065	.000
	<i>N</i>			25	25	25	25
Student Mindset	Corr.			1.0	.604	.267	.479
	Sig.				.001	.197	.015
	<i>N</i>				25	25	25
Grit	Corr.				1.0	.600	.627
	Sig.					.002	.001
	<i>N</i>					25	25
Coaching Feedback	Corr.					1.0	.627
	Sig.						.001
	<i>N</i>						25
Educating All	Corr.						1.0
	Sig.						
	<i>N</i>						

Assessing Emotions Scale scores. The number of participants who completed the Assessing Emotions Scale was 518. The survey consisted of 31 items taken from the Assessing Emotions Scale (Schutte, 2009), and six demographic items. The items from the Assessing Emotions Scale were measured on a 5-point, Likert scale of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*; see Appendix B). As appropriate, some items were reverse scored. The items were summed to create a total scale score for each participant. All of the individual scale scores were then averaged to create a total-school Assessing Emotions Scale score for each school/building.

The sample indicated that individual-level scale scores had a normal distribution with a mean of 129.34 ($SD = 11.45$), and the scores ranged from 94 to 154. The scale's internal consistency (as measured by Cronbach's alpha) was .89, indicating a strong internal consistency of its scale items. This is a comparable and stronger internal consistency score than previous researchers had found, who reported .78 reliability for total scale scores (Schuette, 2001). The total-school scores had a mean of 125.21 ($SD = 1.79$) and scores ranged from 121.57 to 127.79.

Assessing Emotions Subscale scores. The subscale items and their respective scores were categorized into four subscales. The scores from items representing specific constructs were combined, creating subscale scores for each construct. The Perception of Emotions Subscale includes statements such as, "I find it hard to understand the nonverbal messages of other people." The Managing Own Emotions Subscale includes statements such as, "When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them." The Managing Others' Emotions Subscale includes statements such as, "I know when to speak about my personal problems to others." The Utilization of Emotion Subscale includes statements such as, "Some of the major events

of my life have led me to reevaluate what is important and not important. The Assessing Emotions Scale asks participants to respond to each statement using a Likert-type scale of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The participants selected 1 if they (*strongly disagreed*), 2 if they (*somewhat disagreed*), 3 if they (*neither agreed nor disagreed*), 4 if they (*somewhat agreed*), and 5 if they (*strongly agreed*).

The following are the scale items and the constructs that they measured:

- Perception of Emotions – Items 5, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22, 25, and 29.
- Managing Own Emotions – Items 2, 3, 10, 12, 14, 21, 23, 20, and 31.
- Managing Others’ Emotions – Items 1, 4, 11, 13, 16, 24, 26, and 30.
- Utilization of Emotion – Items 6, 7, 8, 17, 20, and 27.

The subscale scores were calculated for each participant represented in the sample and the individual participant subscale scores were averaged to create total-school subscale scores for each school. Each subscale had a different number of items; therefore, the subscale scores were averaged instead of totaled to make them comparable.

Perception of Emotions Subscale. The individual-level, Perception of Emotions Subscale data revealed a normal distribution with a mean of 4.14 ($SD = .49$) on a 5-point, Likert scale. The scores ranged from 2.25 to 5.0. The subscale’s Cronbach’s alpha was .782, indicating an acceptable internal consistency of its scale items. The mean of the total-school, Perception of Emotions subscale scores at the building level was 4.15 ($SD = .13$) on a 5-point, Likert scale, and the building scores ranged from 3.83 to 4.33.

Managing Own Emotions Subscale. The individual-level, Managing Own Emotions Subscale data revealed a normal distribution with a mean of 4.26 ($SD = .46$) on a 5-point, Likert scale. The scores ranged from 2.11 to 5.0. The scale’s Cronbach’s alpha

was .807, indicating a good internal consistency of its scale items. The mean of the total-school, Managing Own Emotions Subscale scores at the building level was 4.26 (SD = .10) on a 5-point, Likert scale, and the building scores ranged from 4.02 to 4.45.

Managing Others' Emotions Subscale. The individual-level, Managing Others' Emotions Subscale data revealed a normal distribution with a mean of 4.14 (SD = .45) on a 5-point, Likert scale. The scores ranged from 1.88 to 5. The scale's Cronbach's alpha was .70, indicating an acceptable internal consistency of its scale items. The mean of the total-school, Managing Others' Emotions Subscale scores at building level was 4.14 (SD = .12) on a 5-point, Likert scale, and the building scores ranged from 3.93 to 4.34.

Utilization of Emotions Subscale. The individual-level, Utilization of Emotions Subscale data revealed a normal distribution with a mean of 4.13 (SD = .44) on a 5-point, Likert scale. The scores ranged from 2.33 to 5. The scale's Cronbach's alpha was .65, nearing an internal consistency of its scale items. The mean of the total-school, Utilization of Emotions subscale scores at the building level was 4.13 (SD = .10) on a 5-point, Likert scale, and the building scores ranged from 3.94 to 4.31 (see Table 7).

In Table 8, the researcher analyzed total-building, Assessing Emotions Scale scores in correlation to total-building, Assessing Emotions Scale subscale scores. No significant correlations were found. The lack of significant correlation indicates that the survey, when averaging scores to determine a building level score, is not reliable.

Table 7

Individual-Level and Building-Level Scale and Subscale Scores for the Assessing Emotions Scale

Scale and Subscale	Individual level				Alpha	Building level	
	Min	Max	Mean	SD		Mean	SD
Total Assessing Emotions	94.0	154.0	129.34	11.45	.89	16.21	.22
Perception of Emotions	2.25	5.0	4.14	.49	.78	4.15	.13
Managing Own Emotions	2.11	5.0	4.26	.46	.80	4.26	.10
Managing Others' Emotions	1.88	5.0	4.14	.45	.70	4.14	.12
Utilization of Emotions	2.33	5.0	4.13	.44	.65	4.04	.12

Table 8

Correlation With Total, Assessing Emotions Scale Score

Subscale	Correlation	Sig.	N
Perception of Emotions Subscale	-.003	.988	25
Managing Own Emotions Subscale	-.006	.978	25
Managing Others' Emotions Subscale	-.021	.920	25
Utilization of Emotions Subscale	-.076	.717	25

Assessing Emotions Scale overall scale. To further establish the internal consistency in the individual-level data, the researcher also measured correlation among subscales. The sample indicated a predominately positive correlation between the overall scale score and Perceptions of Emotions, Managing Own Emotions, Managing Others' Emotions and Utilization of Emotions Subscales (see Table 9). In Table 10, correlations between the total, Assessing Emotions Scale subscale scores were analyzed. All of the subscales indicated at least a moderate positive intercorrelation.

Table 9

Correlation With Total, Assessing Emotions Scale Score at an Individual Level

Subscale	Correlation	Sig.	N
Perception of Emotions Subscale	.783	.000	481
Managing Own Emotions Subscale	.813	.000	481
Managing Others' Emotions Subscale	.825	.000	481
Utilization of Emotions Subscale	.731	.000	481

Table 10

Correlation Between Total Assessing Emotions Scale Subscale Scores

Subscale		Perception of Emotions	Managing Own Emotions	Managing Others' Emotions	Utilization of Emotions
Perception of Emotions	Corr.	1.0	.459	.775	.554
	Sig.		.021	.000	.004
	N		25	25	25
Managing Own Emotions	Corr.		1.0	.511	.464
	Sig.			.009	.019
	N			25	25
Managing Others' Emotions	Corr.			1.0	.627
	Sig.				.001
	N				25
Utilization of Emotions	Corr.				1.0
	Sig.				
	N				

Total-building, culture, and emotional intelligence scores. To address Hypothesis 1, a Pearson correlation was run to investigate whether total, school culture scores would be related to total-school emotional intelligence scores. The researcher conducted a Pearson correlation to investigate the relationship between the scores. To determine a building-level culture score, the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey data obtained from a large school district in Missouri was analyzed at an individual level, and then was averaged to determine a building-level culture score. Once building-level culture scores and the building-level emotional intelligence scores (from the Assessing Emotions Scale) were determined, the researcher then performed a correlation analysis.

Addressing the hypotheses. The research Hypothesis (H₀₁) was that there would be a statistically significant relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school, such that the schools that had higher levels of emotional intelligence would also have a more positive school culture. A Pearson correlation addressed the relationship between school-level emotional intelligence and school-level culture scores. In the correlation analysis, the researcher rejected the null hypothesis because of the statistically significant negative correlation between total, school culture score and total-school emotional intelligence score. The results indicated a moderate, negative correlation ($r(23) = -.529, p = .007$). As total, school culture scores increase, total-school emotional intelligence scores decrease.

The researcher also analyzed total, emotional intelligence scores and Panorama Learning and Culture Survey scores (see Table 10). The analysis revealed small, insignificant correlations between the total, emotional intelligence score and the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey subscale scores (see Table 11). Although a

significant, negative, moderate correlation was found between the total scale scores, emotional intelligence does not seem to relate to the culture subscale scores.

Most analyses revealed small insignificant or no correlation between total Panorama Learning and Culture Survey scores and emotional intelligence subscale scores (see Table 12). A moderate, negative correlation was identified between total culture score and Utilization of Emotions Subscale scores ($r(25) = -.501, p = .011$). The assumptions for the Pearson correlations were checked and met the requirements of linearity, sufficient sample size and homoscedasticity. This finding indicates that, as culture increases, the utilization of emotions decreases. Again, although a significant, negative, moderate correlation was found between the total scale scores, culture relates to only one of the four subscale scores of emotional intelligence.

Table 11

Correlation With Total, Emotional Intelligence Score and Panorama Learning and Culture Subscale Scores

Subscale	Correlation	Sig.	N
Coaching and Feedback Subscale	.245	.237	25
Student Mindset Subscale	.096	.648	25
Grit Subscale	-.070	.741	25
Faculty Growth Mindset Subscale	.073	.730	25
Educating All Subscale	.128	.542	25
Teaching Efficacy Subscale	.078	.712	25

Table 12

Correlation with Total Panorama Learning and Culture Score and Emotional Intelligence Subscale Scores

Subscale	Correlation	Sig.	N
Perception of Emotions Subscale	-.113	.589	25
Managing Own Emotions Subscale	-.011	.960	25
Managing Others' Emotions Subscale	-.127	.547	25
Utilization of Emotions Subscale	-.501	.011	25

Principal emotional intelligence versus building-level culture scores. In an effort to address the relationship between emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of a school a correlation analysis was implemented. The correlation analysis allowed the researcher to compare the emotional intelligence score of the principal for each elementary school with the school-level culture score. Evidence of significant relationship between the emotional intelligence of the principal and subscale emotional intelligence scores and the building-level culture score and subscale scores assisted in determining whether a relationship existed between the emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school.

The researcher measured correlations between the individual level of principal emotional intelligence and the total, school culture score to look for evidence of significant relationship between the emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school. The mean principal Assessing Emotions Scale score was 116.84 (SD = 36.90). The scores ranged from 101 to 146. The sample indicated an insignificant correlation ($r(23) = -.122, p = .560$) between the total, school culture scale score and the principal's Assessing Emotions Scale score. The assumptions for the Pearson correlations

were checked and met the requirements of linearity, sufficient sample size and homoscedasticity.

The null Hypothesis (H_0) stated that there would be no statistically significant relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school, such that those principals who have a higher level of emotional intelligence would not have a more positive school culture. In this study, the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal did not have a significant correlation with the total, building-level culture score. The researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis because of the minimal negative correlation ($r(23) = -.122$, $p = .560$) between the total, school culture scale score and the principal's Assessing Emotions Scale score. Evidence of significant relationship between the emotional intelligence of the principal and subscale emotional intelligence scores and the building-level culture score and subscale scores assisted in determining whether a relationship existed between the emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school.

The culture data was obtained at the building level from the school district; therefore, each emotional intelligence score was not tied to a specific culture score on the individual level. For this reason, the researcher was unable to separate the culture score of the principal from the total, school culture score. However, the culture data reported in Study 1 does include the culture score of the building principal. Although, with Study 1, the researcher was unable to provide a total culture score which excluded the individual culture score of the building principal, for a better comparison, the data in Study 2 was collected at the individual level and did report a culture score that does not include the individual culture score of the building principal.

Demographics, Emotional Intelligence, and School Culture

Demographic data was obtained within the survey instrument and from the Missouri DESE open access data base. In an effort to further address demographic items and their relationship to the emotional intelligence and culture of an elementary school, correlation analyses were used. Building size, free and reduced-price lunch rate, average age of participant, average years in education, and average years working in the building were selected for analysis. Total-school emotional intelligence scores indicated no correlation with any demographics included in the study. Total, school culture indicated a moderate negative correlation with average years in a building ($r(23) = -.497; p = .011$).

In Table 13, the researcher analyzed correlation between specific demographics; total, school culture; and emotional intelligence scores. The assumptions for the Pearson correlations were checked and met the requirements of linearity, sufficient sample size and homoscedasticity. A small positive correlation was indicated between total, school culture scores, and free and reduced-price lunch rate. Total culture scores had a negative correlation with all other demographic variables. Table 13 also includes correlations with building total, emotional intelligence scores and specific demographics. Total culture is moderately, positively related to free and reduced-price lunch rate, and moderately, negatively related to building size. Emotional intelligence is not related to any of the demographic variables.

In Table 13, the researcher analyzed the correlation between various demographics to explore relationship between variables. Correlation analysis indicated a moderate positive correlation between the average years in a building and building size ($r(23) = -.436, p = .029$), which indicates that larger buildings in this sample had staff who had been in the building for longer periods of time. Average years in education had a

moderately strong correlation with years in building ($r(23) = .750, p < .001$), and age ($r(23) = -.786, p < .001$), which indicates that staff who have been in education longer, tend to stay in the same building.

When analyzing the relationship between total emotional intelligence and culture, a moderate negative correlation was found between total, school culture and staff who had been in a building for longer periods of time ($r(23) = -.497, p = .011$). If staff members have been in a large building longer, their long tenure could affect their total, school culture score. Average years in education had a moderate to strong positive correlation with all other demographics, except free and reduced-price lunch rate ($r(23) = -.435, p = .030$), which indicates that staff who work in a building with a high free and reduced-price lunch rate have worked less years in education. Average age was not related to building size.

The percentage of free and reduced-price lunch had a negative correlation with all other demographic variables, and a strong negative correlation with building size. This data indicates that as the size of a building increases, the rate of free and reduced-price lunch decreases within this sample. Although building size and total, school culture were not related ($r(23) = -.027, p = .897$), free and reduced-price lunch rate did indicate a small positive correlation with school culture, meaning that larger buildings have a lower free and reduced-price lunch rate, which could affect total culture score. The data also indicates a similar correlation with the rate of free and reduced-price lunch and average years that staff have worked in a building ($r(23) = -.578, p = .002$), such that, as the free and reduced-price lunch rate increases, the number of staff who continue working in that building decrease, affecting the total, school culture score (Table 14).

Table 13

Correlation of Demographics on Total, School Culture and Emotional Intelligence Score

Demographic		Total culture	Total emotional intelligence
Building size	Corr.	.027	-.002
	Sig.	.897	.992
	<i>N</i>	25	25
Free and reduced-price lunch rate	Corr.	.407	.031
	Sig.	.043	.884
	<i>N</i>	25	25
Average age	Corr.	-.267	.261
	Sig.	.198	.207
	<i>N</i>	25	25
Average years in education	Corr.	-.337	.180
	Sig.	.099	.388
	<i>N</i>	25	25
Average years in building	Corr.	-.497	.236
	Sig.	.011	.257
	<i>N</i>	25	25

Table 14

Correlation of Demographics With Other Demographics

Demographic		Building size	Free and reduced-price lunch rate	Average age	Average years in education	Average years in building
	Corr.	1	-.606	.111	.434	.436
Building size	Sig.		.001	.596	.030	.029
	<i>N</i>		25	25	25	25
	Corr.		1	-.293	-.435	-.578
Free and reduced-priced lunch rate	Sig.			.155	.030	.002
	<i>N</i>			25	25	25
	Corr.			1	.786	.670
Average age	Sig.				.000	.000
	<i>N</i>				25	25
	Corr.				1	.750
Average years in education	Sig.					.000
	<i>N</i>					25
	Corr.					1
Average years in building	Sig.					
	<i>N</i>					

Summary of Study 1

In Study 1, the researcher explored the effects of the emotional intelligence of staff and the principal on the culture of an elementary school in a large school district in Missouri. The results of the data analysis, the demographics of participants and schools, the scale reliability analysis, and the correlations were discussed. The correlations were

examined among individual-level and total-building culture and emotional intelligence scores, subscale scores, and selected demographics. The results from a Pearson correlation indicated a moderate, negative correlation ($r(21) = -.529, p = .007$) between total, school culture and total-school, emotional intelligence scores. As total, school culture scores increase, total-school, emotional intelligence scores decrease. Total-school emotional intelligence scores were not correlated with any demographics included in the study. The results indicated that, if staff members have been in a large building longer, their long tenure could affect their total, school culture score. Although we had individual-level scores for total building culture and emotional intelligence, the scores were not tied to the same specific participants; therefore, the researcher could only look at building-level data. In Study 2, the researcher address this limitation by collecting individual level data for both constructs on the same individuals. Furthermore, this method of data collection allowed for a more in-depth investigation of the psychometrics of the scales, using the Principal Components Analysis in Study 2. In Study 1, the researcher looked at a single large school district in the Southwest RPDC. Study 2 allowed the researcher to analyze multiple districts that represented five different RPDCs. In Study 1 the researcher was unable to separate out the principal data, in Study 2, the data were collected in such a way that principal data could be analyzed separately.

Study 2

Study Design

To explore one important element of the culture of an elementary school, analyses were conducted that required the calculation of a total, school culture and total, emotional intelligence score for each elementary school that participated. Total-school scores for each subscale were also calculated for comparison. The results of total-school scores

coupled with demographic data (included on the survey and obtained from the Missouri DESE) were critical when analyzing the relationship between emotional intelligence of staff and the culture of an elementary school. The data were analyzed using reliability analyses and correlations. These analyses were ultimately used in rejecting or failing to reject the following null hypotheses:

1. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the emotional intelligence of staff and the culture of an elementary school.
2. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school.

The School Culture Triage Survey was used to determine the total, school culture score, and the total-school score for each subscale (Professional Collaboration, Affiliative Collegiality, and Self-Determination–Efficacy). Individual-level data was obtained from the school district for each of the elementary schools. Each building’s individual-level data was then averaged to calculate a building-level culture score for each building. The Assessing Emotions Scale was used to determine the total-school emotional intelligence score and a total-school score for each subscale (Professional Collaboration, Affiliative Collegiality, and Self-Determination–Efficacy). Individual-level data for each building was obtained, and all of the scores were averaged to create a total-school, emotional intelligence score and a total-school score for each subcategory.

Demographic data was included on the survey, and additional data was obtained through the Missouri DESE open access data base. The purpose of the demographic data was to tie each participant to the elementary school in which he or she worked and to obtain additional information about each school that participated. Correlations were performed to identify evidence of a relationship between the average number of years in

education, the number of years in the current building, the percent of free and reduced-price lunch, and the age of staff.

In this study, the researcher suspected schools that had a high emotional intelligence score, would also have a high culture score. Bivariate correlation allowed the researcher to measure the impact of the average number of years in education, the number of years in the current building, the percent of free and reduced-price lunch, and the age of staff on the culture and emotional intelligence score for each school.

Participants

Sixty-nine superintendents in the state of Missouri gave the researcher permission to email elementary principals within their school district. Out of 87 elementary schools contacted, in 69 school districts, 31 schools participated for a return rate of 36%. Of the 31 schools that participated, 23 schools had at least 60% of certified staff complete the survey, for an eligibility return rate of 25%. In total, 491 individuals participated in the School Culture Triage Survey and the Assessing Emotions Scale. Of those 491 participants, 35 men, 449 women completed the survey, and seven participants did not share their gender. A wide variety of roles and certifications were represented: 18 participants were principals, two participants were assistant principals, 396 participants were teachers, and 75 participants were in a support role (e.g., an instructional coach or school counselor). Of the 492 participants, 11% had been working in their current building for less than 1 year, 21% had been working in their current building for 1–3 years, 18% had been working in their current building for 4–6 years, 14% had been working in their current building for 7–9 years, 16% had been working in their current building for 10–15 years, and 15% had been working in their current building for 15 or more years. The years in education ranged from less 1 year to 15 or more years, with

25% of participants having worked for 1–6 years, 21% having worked for 7–12 years, 10% having worked for 13–15 years, and 38% having worked for 15 or more years (see Table 15 and Table 16).

Table 15

Gender, Age, and Position of Assessing Emotions Scale Participants for Study 2

	Demographic	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	35	7.1
	Female	449	91.3
	Missing	8	1.6
Age	21–26	45	9.15
	27–31	75	15.24
	32–36	57	11.59
	37–41	84	17.07
	42–46	73	14.84
	47–51	53	10.98
	52–67	66	13.21
	Missing	39	7.93
Position	Principal	18	3.7
	Assistant principal	2	.4
	Teacher	397	80.7
	Other	75	15.2

Table 16

Years in Building and Years in Education for the Assessing Emotions Scale Participants for Study 2

	Years worked in current building		Years worked in education	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 1 Year	54	11.0	11	2.2
1–3 Years	104	21.1	53	10.8
4–6 Years	90	18.3	66	13.4
7–9 Years	73	14.8	65	13.2
10–12 Years	49	10.0	44	8.9
13–15 Years	34	6.9	50	10.2
15 or more years	74	15.0	190	38.6
Missing	14	2.8	13	2.6

To ensure the reliability and validity of the study, some disqualifications were required. The participants who failed to provide the name of the school in which they worked, preventing the comparison of dependent and independent variables were disqualified from the study. One participant's data was eliminated because of failure to answer sufficient items to compute scale scores. Four schools that did not reach a 60% of certified staff participation rate were disqualified from the study.

Buildings and Schools

Twenty-three elementary schools that serve a combination of students in K–5 participated in Study 2. The 23 elementary schools represented a range of sizes with a minimum of 86 students and maximum of 659 students, with a mean of 367. The 23 elementary schools also represented a range of populations of students on free and

reduced-price lunch, with a minimum of 10% free and reduced-price lunch rate and a maximum of 82% free and reduced-price lunch rate, with a mean of 54%. Five of the nine RPDCs were represented in the sample. Two schools from the Heart of Missouri RPDC, one school from the Central RPDC, two schools from the Northwest RPDC, one school from the South Central RPDC, one school from the Central RPDC, and the majority of the participants (16) were from the Southwest RPDC.

Scale Analysis

School Culture Triage Survey. In Study 2, 491 participants completed a survey instrument consisting of 17 items called the School Culture Triage Survey. Face validity was addressed in Chapter 3 prior to the use of the scales in these studies. Items from the School Culture Triage Survey were measured on a Likert-type scale (Appendix C). Each participant indicated his or her opinions on all 17 of the items; all of the scores were then added together, creating a total scale score for each participant. Individual participants total scores were then averaged to create a mean total, school culture score for each school or building.

The individual-level scale scores were normally distributed with a mean of 64.51 ($SD = 10.35$). Scores ranged from 32 to 85. The scale's internal consistency (as measured by Cronbach's alpha) was .93, indicating a strong internal consistency of its scale items. The total, school culture scores were normally distributed with a mean of 64.18 ($SD = 4.31$) and the scores ranged from 57.10 to 73.08. To examine the structure of the School Culture Triage Scale, a principal component analysis with oblimin rotation was run. Oblimin rotation was used to obtain oblique rotations that are used to transform vectors that are associated with principal component analysis. When examining the scree plot and eigenvalues, two components emerged (see Appendix L). Component 1, with an

eigenvalue of 8.191, accounted for 48.185 of the variance. Component 2, with an eigenvalue of 1.196, accounted for 7.038 of the variance. When examining the pattern matrix, the items that loaded on Components 1 and 2, seemed to represent a general measure of culture. Although they loaded on two components, they did not seem to cluster together in any logical way and they appeared to represent a statistical anomaly.

School Culture Triage Survey subscale scores. The scale items and their respective scores were categorized into three subscales. The scores from items representing specific constructs were combined, creating subscale scores for each construct. The following are the scale items and the constructs that they measured:

- Professional Collaboration – Items 1–5.
- Affiliative Collegiality – Items 6–11.
- Self-Determination–Efficacy – Items 12–17.

The subscale scores were calculated for each participant represented in the sample. Then, individual, participant subscale scores were averaged to create subscale scores for each school. Each subscale had a different number of items; therefore, the subscale scores were averaged instead of totaled to make them more comparable.

Professional Collaboration Subscale. The individual-level, Professional Collaboration Subscale revealed a normal distribution with a mean of 3.80 ($SD = .70$). Individual scores ranged from 1.60 to 5.0. The Cronbach's alpha was .931, indicating a high internal consistency of its scale items. The mean of the total-school, Professional Collaboration Subscale scores at the building level was 3.76 ($SD = .32$), and the scores ranged from 3.18 to 4.18.

Affiliative Collegiality Subscale. The individual-level, Affiliative Collegiality Subscale revealed a normal distribution with a mean of 3.79 ($SD = .66$). Individual scores

ranged from 2.0 to 5.0. The Cronbach’s alpha was .860, indicating an internal consistency of its scale items. The mean of the total-school, Affiliative Collegiality Subscale scores at the building level was 3.77 ($SD = .28$) and the individual scores ranged from 3.18 to 4.46.

Self-Determination–Efficacy Subscale. The individual-level, Self-Determination–Efficacy Subscale revealed a normal distribution with a mean of 3.84 ($SD = .61$). Scores ranged from 1.83 to 5. The Cronbach’s alpha was .869, indicating an internal consistency of its scale items. The mean of the total-school, Self-Determination–Efficacy Subscale scores at building level was 3.8 ($SD = .23$) and the individual scores ranged from 3.18 to 4.46 (see Table 17).

Table 17

Individual-Level and Building-Level Scale and Subscale Scores for the School Culture Triage Survey

	Individual level				Building level		
	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Alpha	Mean	SD
School Culture Triage total	32.0	85.0	64.51	10.35	.93	64.18	4.31
Professional Collaboration	1.6	5.0	3.80	.70	.93	3.76	32
Affiliative Collegiality	2.0	5.0	3.79	.66	.86	3.77	28
Self-Determination–Efficacy	1.83	5.0	3.84	.61	.86	3.84	23

School Culture Triage Survey overall scale. To further establish the internal consistency, the researcher measured the correlations between the overall scale and the individual subscales, and among the subscales. The sample indicated a predominately positive correlation between the overall scale score and the Professional Collaboration ($r(23) = .869, p < .001$), Affiliative Collegiality ($r(23) = .944, p < .001$), and Self-Determination–Efficacy ($r(23) = .852, p < .001$) Subscales (see Table 18).

Table 18

Correlation With the Total School Culture Triage Survey Score

Subscale	Correlation	Sig.	N
Professional Collaboration Subscale	.869	.000	23
Affiliative Collegiality	.944	.000	23
Self-Determination–Efficacy	.852	.000	23

In further analysis, the sample indicated strong, positive correlations between total, school culture scores and total, school culture subscores (Table 18).

The researcher took a closer look at the correlation between subscales of the School Culture Triage Survey. In Table 19, the researcher analyzed how the subscales in the School Culture Triage Survey correlated with each other.

Table 19

Correlation Between Total-Building Culture and Culture Subscales on the School Culture Triage Survey

Subscale	Professional Collaboration	Affiliative Collegiality	Self-Determination–Efficacy
	Corr.	1	.709
Professional Collaboration	Sig.		.000
	N.	23	23
	Corr.	1	.864
Affiliative Collegiality	Sig.		.000
	N.		23
	Corr.		1
Self-Determination–Efficacy	Sig.		
	N.		

When analyzing the subcategories of total, school culture, a strong positive correlation was found between the Affiliative Collegiality, and Professional Collaboration, and Self-Determination–Efficacy Subscales. The intercorrelations of the subscales indicate that, when the Affiliative Collegiality Subscale is high, the Professional Collaboration and Self-Determination–Efficacy Subscales will also be high. Due to the high intercorrelations between subscales, omitting any of the subscales would only have a minimal impact on the results and response variance explained by one subscale, will still be explained by variables left in the survey. A moderate positive correlation was found between the Professional Collaboration and Self-Determination–Efficacy Subscales. The correlation indicates that when the Professional Collaboration Subscale is high, the Affiliative Collegiality Subscale will also be high.

Assessing Emotions Scale scores. Of the participants, 492 completed a survey consisting of 31 items taken from the Assessing Emotions Scale (Schutte, 2009) and six demographic items. The items from the Assessing Emotions Scale were measured on a 5-point, Likert scale with 1 (*strongly disagree*) and 5 (*strongly agree*; Appendix B). As appropriate, some items were reverse scored. The items were summed to create a total scale score for each participant. All individual scale scores were then averaged to create a total-school, emotional intelligence score for each school or building.

The sample indicated that the individual scale scores had a normal distribution with a mean of 127.61 ($SD = 11.54$). The individual-level scores ranged from 93 to 153. The scale's internal consistency (as measured by Cronbach's alpha) was .886, indicating a strong internal consistency of its scale items. Total-school emotional intelligence scores were normally distributed with a mean of 127.73 ($SD = 2.96$) and scores ranged from 122.24 to 133.43. To examine the structure of the Assessing Emotions Scale, a principal

component analysis with oblimin rotation was run (see Appendix L). The rotation failed to converge in 25 iterations. When examining the scree plot and eigenvalues, five components emerged. Component 1, with an eigenvalue of 7.653, accounted for 24.687 of the variance. When examining the scree plot and eigenvalues, there was a strong first component which seemed to represent general emotional intelligence. The other components that emerged represented a low percent of variance and did not seem to cluster in a logical way. Each of the components included items from multiple subscales.

Assessing Emotions Scale subscale scores. Subscale items and their respective scores were categorized into four subscales. Scores from items representing specific constructs were combined, creating subscale scores for each construct. The following are the scale items and the constructs they measured:

- Perception of Emotions – Items 5, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22, 25, and 29.
- Managing Own Emotions – Items 2, 3, 10, 12, 14, 21, 23, 20, and 31.
- Managing Others’ Emotions – Items 1, 4, 11, 13, 16, 24, 26, and 30.
- Utilization of Emotion – Items 6, 7, 8, 17, 20, and 27.

Subscale scores were calculated for each participant represented in the sample and individual participant subscale scores were averaged to create total-school subscale scores.

Perception of Emotions Subscale. The individual-level, Perception of Emotions Subscale revealed a normal distribution with a mean of 4.11 ($SD = .51$). The scores ranged from 1.88 to 5.0. The scale’s Cronbach’s alpha was .816, indicating a strong internal consistency of its scale items. The mean of the total-school, Perception of

Emotions Subscale scores at the building level was 4.11 ($SD = .13$), and the building scores ranged from 3.82 to 4.37.

Managing Own Emotions Subscale. The individual-level, Managing Own Emotions Subscale revealed a normal distribution with a mean 4.22 ($SD = .43$). The scores ranged from 2.67 to 5.0 and the Cronbach's alpha was .753, indicating a strong internal consistency of its scale items. The mean of the total-school, Perception of Emotions Subscale scores at the building level was 4.23 ($SD = .09$), and the building scores ranged from 4.03 to 4.40.

Managing Others' Emotions Subscale. The individual-level, Managing Others' Emotions Subscale revealed a normal distribution with a mean of 4.08 ($SD = .42$). The individual scores ranged from 2.5 to 5.0 and Cronbach's alpha was .649, indicating a near internal consistency of its scale items. The mean of the total-school, Managing Others' Emotions Subscale scores at the building level was 4.09 ($SD = .13$), and the building scores ranged from 3.84 to 4.34.

Utilization of Emotions Subscale. The individual-level, Utilization of Emotions Subscale revealed a normal distribution with a mean of 4.07 ($SD = .45$). The building scores ranged from 2.5 to 5.0. The Cronbach's alpha was .663, indicating a near internal consistency of its scale items. The mean of the total-school, Utilization of Emotions Subscale scores at the building level was 4.07 ($SD = .09$), and the building scores ranged from 3.91 to 4.34 (see Table 20).

Table 20

Individual-Level and Building-Level Scale and Subscale Scores on the Assessing Emotions Scale

	Individual level				Alpha	Building level	
	Min	Max	Mean	SD		Mean	SD
Total Assessing Emotions	93.0	153.0	127.61	11.54	.88	127.61	11.54
Perception of Emotions	1.88	5.0	4.11	.51	.81	4.11	.51
Managing Own Emotions	2.67	5.0	4.22	.43	.75	4.22	.43
Managing Others' Emotions	2.5	5.0	4.08	.42	.64	4.08	.42
Utilization of Emotions	2.5	5.0	4.07	.45	.66	4.07	.45

In Table 21, the researcher analyzed the total-building, emotional intelligence scores in correlation to total-building, emotional intelligence subscale scores. A moderate to strong correlation was found for all subscales. This indicates that, if the building emotional intelligence score increases, the Perception of Emotions, Managing Own Emotions, Managing Others Emotions and Utilization of Emotions Subscales will increase.

Table 21

Correlation With Total, Emotional Intelligence Score

Subscale	Correlation	Sig.	N
Perception of Emotions Subscale	.854	.000	23
Managing Own Emotions Subscale	.756	.000	23
Managing Others' Emotions Subscale	.861	.000	23
Utilization of Emotions Subscale	.697	.000	23

Assessing Emotions Scale overall scale. To further establish the internal consistency, the researcher sought to measure the correlations between the overall scale and individual subscales and among the subscales. The sample indicated a predominately positive correlation between the overall scale score and Perceptions of Emotions, Managing Own Emotions, Managing Others' Emotions and Utilization of Emotions Subscales (.697 to .861, all $p < .001$). The assumptions for the Pearson correlations were checked and met the requirements of linearity, sufficient sample size and homoscedasticity. In Table 22, the correlations between the total emotional intelligence subscale scores were analyzed. All of the subscales indicated at least moderate positive correlations. The positive correlations indicate the scale has internal consistency reliability. All of these subscales contribute to an overall emotional intelligence.

Table 22

Individual-Level and Building-Level Scale and Subscale Scores

Subscale		Perception of Emotions	Managing Own Emotions	Managing Other Emotions	Utilization of Emotions
Perception of Emotions	Corr.	1	.538	.559	.455
	Sig.		.008	.006	.029
	<i>N</i>		23	23	23
Managing Own Emotions	Corr.		1	.564	.405
	Sig.			.005	.05
	<i>N</i>			23	23
Managing Others Emotions	Corr.			1	.678
	Sig.				.000
	<i>N</i>				23
Utilization of Emotions	Corr.				1
	Sig.				
	<i>N</i>				

Total-building culture and emotional intelligence scores. To address Hypothesis 1, that school culture scores would be related to total-school, emotional intelligence scores, the researcher conducted a Pearson correlation to investigate the relationship between the scores.

To determine a building-level culture score, School Culture Triage Survey data was analyzed at an individual level, and then averaged to determine a building-level culture score. Once the building-level, culture scale scores and building-level, emotional intelligence scores were determined, the researcher then performed a correlation analysis.

Hypothesis and Research Questions

The research Hypothesis (H₀₁) stated that a statistically significant relationship would exist between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school, such that the schools that would have higher levels of emotional intelligence would not have a more positive school culture. Evidence of a significant relationship between overall and subscale, emotional intelligence scores and overall and subscale scores for culture assisted in determining whether a relationship existed between school-level emotional intelligence and school-level culture.

The results indicated that no statistically significant relationship existed between total, school culture scores and total, emotional intelligence scores ($r(21) = .322$, $p = .134$). In the correlation, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis because of the low, small, positive correlation between total, school culture score and total-school, emotional intelligence score ($r(21) = .322$, $p = .134$).

The researcher also analyzed the total, emotional intelligence scores and the culture subscales (see Table 23). Although there was no correlation between the total scale scores, emotional intelligence had a significant moderate positive relationship with the Self-Determination–Efficacy Subscale. As emotional intelligence increases, the Self-Determination–Efficacy Subscale also increases.

The analyses revealed no significant correlations between total culture scores and emotional intelligence subscale scores (see Table 24). The school culture does not seem to relate to the emotional intelligence subscale scores at a significant level.

Table 23

Correlation With Total, Emotional Intelligence Score and Culture Subscale Scores

Subscale	Correlation	Sig.	<i>N</i>
Professional Collaboration	.192	.380	23
Affiliative Collegiality	.392	.126	23
Self-Determination–Efficacy	.474	.022	23

Table 24

Correlation with Total Culture Score and Emotional Intelligence Subscale Scores

Subscale	Correlation	Sig.	<i>N</i>
Perception of Emotions Subscale	.310	.150	23
Managing Own Emotions Subscale	.164	.456	23
Managing Others' Emotions Subscale	.330	.124	23
Utilization of Emotions Subscale	.118	.593	23

Principal Emotional Intelligence Versus Building-Level Culture Scores

In an effort to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of a school, a correlation analysis was implemented. The correlation analysis allowed the researcher to compare the emotional intelligence score of the principal for each elementary school with the school-level culture score. The researcher obtained individual-level data; therefore, total culture and emotional intelligence score were calculated, which excluded the principal's scores. Evidence of a significant relationship between the emotional intelligence of the principal and building

emotional intelligence scores and the building-level culture scores assisted in addressing Hypothesis 2.

The researcher measured the correlations between the individual-level, principal emotional intelligence and the total, school culture score. Out of 23 principals, 16 completed the survey, and were included in the total principal, emotional intelligence scores. The mean principal Assessing Emotions Scale score was 130.87 ($SD = 7.70$). The scores ranged from 115 to 143. The sample indicated no correlation ($r(14) = .294$, $p = .269$) between the total, school culture scale score and the principal's Assessing Emotions Scale score.

The null Hypothesis (H_02) stated that no statistically significant relationship would exist between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school, such that the principals who had a higher level of emotional intelligence would not have a more positive school culture. In this study, the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal did not have a significant correlation with the total, building-level culture score. The researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis because of the minimal negative correlation ($r(14) = .294$, $p = .269$) between the total, school culture scale score and the principal's Assessing Emotions Scale score (see Table 25). The assumptions for the Pearson correlations were checked and met the requirements of linearity, sufficient sample size and homoscedasticity.

Evidence of a significant relationship between the emotional intelligence of the principal, the subscale emotional intelligence scores, and the building-level culture score and subscale scores assisted in determining whether a relationship existed between the emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school. In nine correlations, only the relationship between principal's emotional intelligence and the

Utilization of Emotions Subscale was statistically significant. This would mean that, as the principal’s emotional intelligence score increases, Utilization of Emotions Subscale score also increases.

Table 25

Correlation With Total Principal Emotional Intelligence Score

Subscale	Correlation	Sig.	N
Total Culture Score	.294	.269	16
Professional Collaboration Subscale	.431	.096	16
Affiliative Collegiality	.222	.410	16
Self-Determination–Efficacy	.213	.427	16
Total, emotional intelligence score	.350	.184	16
Perception of Emotions Subscale	.315	.234	16
Managing Own Emotions Subscale	.131	.630	16
Managing Others’ Emotions Subscale	.468	.068	16
Utilization of Emotions Subscale	.633	.009	16

Impact of Demographics on Emotional Intelligence and School Culture

Demographic data was obtained within the survey instrument and from the Missouri DESE open access data base. In an effort to further address demographic scale items and their relationship to the emotional intelligence and culture of an elementary school, correlation analyses were used. The building size, free and reduced-price lunch rate, average age of participant, average years in education, and average years working in the building were selected for analysis. Total-school, emotional intelligence scores indicated no significant correlation with any demographics included in the study. In

Table 26, the researcher analyzed the correlation between specific demographics, the total school culture, and the emotional intelligence scores. No significant correlations were found between the school total culture or the emotional intelligence scores and any demographic variable.

Table 26

Correlation of Demographics on Total, School Culture and Emotional Intelligence Score

Demographic		Total culture	Total emotional intelligence
Building size	Corr.	.125	-.048
	Sig.	.570	.829
	<i>N</i>	23	23
Free and reduced-price lunch rate	Corr.	-.243	-.367
	Sig.	.264	.085
	<i>N</i>	23	23
Average age	Corr.	-.069	-.090
	Sig.	.755	.684
	<i>N</i>	23	23
Average years in education	Corr.	.209	.147
	Sig.	.338	.502
	<i>N</i>	23	23
Average years in building	Corr.	-.073	-.100
	Sig.	.741	.650
	<i>N</i>	23	23

In Table 27, average years in education had a strong correlation with age and average years in building. This indicates that, as the age of the staff increases, the number

of years in education and years in building would also increase. A moderate negative correlation was found between building size and average age, indicating that, as building size increases, the average age of staff would decrease. The percentage of free and reduced-price lunch was not related to any other variable.

Table 27

Correlation of Demographics With Other Demographics

Demographic		Building size	Free and reduced-price lunch rate	Average age	Average years in education	Average years in building
	Corr.	1	-.176	-.525	-.278	-.376
Building size	Sig.		.422	.010	.198	.077
	<i>N</i>		23	23	23	23
	Corr.		1	.294	.137	.311
Free and reduced-price lunch rate	Sig.			.173	.534	.148
	<i>N</i>			23	23	23
	Corr.			1	.768	.737
Average age	Sig.				.000	.000
	<i>N</i>				23	23
	Corr.				1	.773
Average years in education	Sig.					.000
	<i>N</i>					23
	Corr.					1
Average years in building	Sig.					
	<i>N</i>					

Additional Analyses

In Study 2, the researcher had the ability to examine both emotional intelligence scores and culture triage scores at the individual level; therefore, a correlation analysis was used to further explore the relationship between the variables. Although no relationship existed between the total, emotional intelligence scores and total culture scores at the building level, a significant, moderate positive correlation was found when analyzing total culture scores and total, emotional intelligence scores at an individual level ($r(491) = .341, p = .001$). The assumptions for the Pearson correlations were checked and met the requirements of linearity, sufficient sample size and homoscedasticity. The positive correlation indicates that, as individual-level, emotional intelligence scores increase, school culture scores would also increase.

The researcher also found interesting relationships in the subscales. The total, school culture scores at an individual level had a positive correlation with all of the subscales of emotional intelligence (see Table 28). This data indicates that, as school culture scores increase, the Perception of Emotions, Managing Own Emotions, Managing Others' Emotions and Utilization of Emotions Subscale scores would also increase. The individual-level data would support a positive relationship between total, school culture and emotional intelligence subscales.

The researcher also analyzed the total, emotional intelligence score with school culture subscale scores at an individual level (Table 29). The total, emotional intelligence scores also indicated a significant, positive correlation with all of the culture subscales. This data indicates that as total-school, emotional intelligence increases, the Professional Collaboration, Affiliative Collegiality, and Self-Determination–Efficacy Subscale scores

would also increase. The individual-level data would support a positive relationship with total emotional intelligence and school culture subscales.

Table 28

Correlation With Total, School Culture Triage Score and Emotional Intelligence Subscale Scores at an Individual Level

Subscale	Correlation	Sig.	N
Perception of Emotions Subscale	.223	.000	491
Managing Own Emotions Subscale	.339	.000	491
Managing Others' Emotions Subscale	.299	.000	491
Utilization of Emotions Subscale	.206	.000	491

Table 29

Correlation With Total, Emotional Intelligence Score and School Culture Subscale Scores at an Individual Level

Subscale	Correlation	Sig.	N
Professional Collaboration Subscale	.262	.000	491
Affiliative Collegiality Subscale	.356	.000	491
Self-Determination–Efficacy Subscale	.295	.000	491

The researcher also analyzed the principal emotional intelligence scores with school culture scores at the individual level. No significant relationship was found ($r(14) = -.325, p = .219$). When analyzing the emotional intelligence of the principal and the emotional intelligence of staff, no significant relationship was found ($r(14) = -.395, p = .130$).

No significant relationship was revealed when analyzing total school culture and emotional intelligence on an individual level and individual-level demographics (Table

30). There was no relationship between school culture, emotional intelligence and the demographics of age, years in education, and years in the building. The data was limited to individuals who chose to answer each demographic question.

Table 30

Correlation of Demographics on Total, School Culture and Emotional Intelligence Score

Demographic		Total culture	Total emotional intelligence
Average age	Corr.	-.018	-.096
	Sig.	.707	.043
	<i>N</i>	446	446
Average years in education	Corr.	-.030	-.003
	Sig.	.508	.952
	<i>N</i>	479	479
Average years in building	Corr.	-.089	-.038
	Sig.	.053	.408
	<i>N</i>	478	478

The researcher analyzed the correlation between various demographics to explore relationship between variables. Expected age and longevity were positively correlated; therefore, the correlation analysis indicated a strong positive relationship between average age and average years in education ($r = .748, p = .001$), which indicates that, as age increases, so does the number of years that a participant has worked in education. The average age also indicated a moderate positive relationship with the average years in building, which indicated that, as the age of staff members increases, their time worked in a building would also increase. Finally, average years in education indicated a moderate

positive relationship with average years in a building, meaning that staff members who have been in education longer tend to stay in the same building. Correlation analysis indicated a strong positive relationship between average age and average years in building ($r = .545, p = .001$), which indicates that, as age increases, so does the number of years that a participant has worked in a building.

Summary of Study 2

In Study 2, the researcher explored the effects of the emotional intelligence of staff and the principal on the culture of an elementary school in a purposive sample of elementary schools in Missouri. The results of the data analysis, the demographics of the participants and schools, the scale reliability analysis, and the correlations were discussed. The correlations were examined among the individual-level and total-building culture and emotional intelligence scores, subscale scores, and selected demographics. The results indicated that no relationship was found between total, school culture scores and total, emotional intelligence scores at the building level ($r = .322, p = .134$). In the correlation analysis, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis because of the low positive correlation between total, school culture score and total-school, emotional intelligence score ($r = .322, p = .134$). No significant correlations were found between total school culture or emotional intelligence scores and any demographic variable. The sample also indicated that no correlation ($r = .294, p = .269$) existed between the total, school culture scale score and the principal's Assessing Emotions Scale score.

When examining both emotional intelligence scores and culture triage scores at the individual level, a significant, moderate positive correlation was found ($r = .341, p = .001$). The positive correlation indicates that, as individual-level school culture scores increase, individual emotional intelligence scores would also increase. Total culture and

emotional intelligence scores and subscale scores at the individual level were also analyzed using correlation analysis. Total culture scores and total, emotional intelligence scores both indicated a positive correlation with all subscales. The positive correlation between total culture and emotional intelligence scores with all subscale scores indicated that, as emotional intelligence increases, school culture would also increase. The researcher also analyzed the principal emotional intelligence scores with the school culture scores at the individual level. No significant relationship was found ($r = -.325$, $p = .219$). When analyzing the emotional intelligence of the principal and the emotional intelligence of staff, no significant relationship was found ($r = -.395$, $p = .130$).

Summary of Analyses

In this study, the researcher examined the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school. Data collection for this study was guided by the following research questions and hypotheses:

1. What is the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school?
2. What is the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school?

Statement of Null Hypothesis

H₀1. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school, such that those schools that have higher levels of emotional intelligence will not have a more positive school culture.

H₀2. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school, such that those principals who have a higher level of emotional intelligence will not have a more positive school culture. .

In this chapter, the researcher presented results from the analysis of the Panorama Culture and Learning data in Study 1, the School Culture Triage Survey data in Study 2, and the Assessing Emotions Scale data used in Study 1 and Study 2. The results from a Pearson correlation in Study 1 indicated a moderate, negative correlation ($r(25) = -.529$, $p = .007$) between total school level culture and emotional intelligence scores. As total school culture scores increase, total school emotional intelligence scores decrease. Study 2 indicated no correlation between total school level culture and emotional intelligence scores ($r(23) = .322$, $p = .134$) at the building level. When analyzing total school emotional intelligence scores and demographic variables, no correlation was found in Study 1; however, a correlation was found between total school culture and various demographics. The results of Study 1 indicated that, if large buildings have staff members who have been in the building longer, their total school culture score could be affected. The data in Study 1 also indicated that schools that have a high free and reduced-price lunch rate have staff who have worked fewer years in education, which could explain why the free and reduced-price lunch rate had a small positive correlation to total school culture. No significant correlations were found between school total culture or emotional intelligence scores and any demographic variable in Study 2.

In Study 1, the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal did not have a significant correlation with the total building culture score. The researcher failed to reject the research hypothesis because of the minimal negative correlation

between the total school culture scale score and the principal's emotional intelligence scale score. The culture data reported in Study 1 does include the culture score of the building principal. In Study 2, data was collected at an individual level and, for a better comparison, the researcher reported a culture score that does not include the individual culture score of the building principal. The data indicated that no correlation ($r(14) = .294, p = .269$) existed between the total school culture scale score and the principal's emotional intelligence scale score. The researcher also analyzed principal emotional intelligence scores with school culture scores at the individual level. No significant relationship was found ($r(14) = -.325, p = .219$). When analyzing the emotional intelligence of the principal and the emotional intelligence of staff, no significant relationship was found ($r(14) = -.395, p = .130$).

The data obtained in Study 2 allowed a comparison of culture triage and emotional intelligence scores at the individual level. When comparing total scores at an individual level, a significant moderate positive correlation was found ($r(491) = .341, p = .001$). Total culture and emotional intelligence scores and subscale scores at an individual level were also analyzed using correlation analysis and they indicated a positive correlation with all subscales. The significant moderate to strong positive correlations between total culture, and total emotional intelligence and subscale scores indicates a relationship between emotional intelligence and school culture, such that, as emotional intelligence of staff increases, school culture increases. As expected, average age and years in building along with average age and years in education had a positive correlation, and staff who have been in education longer tend to stay in the same building. This data supports the research hypothesis in which proposed that a relationship

would exist between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school.

The results for culture and the Assessing Emotions Scale scores and subscale scores were calculated and discussed. The correlations were examined for the individual-level and building-level, emotional intelligence and culture scale and subscale scores, along with relevant demographics. After the data analysis, the results were interpreted in light of the null hypotheses in relation to the research questions. Chapter 5 includes a summary of the purpose of the study, the research results, the implications of the findings, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine whether a relationship existed between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal, the staff, and the culture of an elementary school. The researcher conducted this study in two parts. Study 1 was restricted to a large school district in Missouri. Study 2 was administered in a purposive sampling of elementary schools in Missouri.

In both studies, the researcher used the Assessing Emotions Scale, which addresses the four factors of emotional intelligence Mayor and Salovey (1990) identified. Separate but similar measures of school culture were used in Study 1 and Study 2. The large school district in Missouri was already administering the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey; therefore, it became the measure of school culture, reducing the overall participant burden. In Study 2, the School Culture Triage Survey was administered to a purposive sample of certified staff in elementary schools in Missouri to measure school culture.

The researcher also obtained information from the Missouri DESE open access data base and included questions within the survey to obtain demographic data from each participant. Pearson correlation coefficients, descriptive statistics, and Cronbach's alphas were used to interpret the data. All of the demographic data was used to characterize the participants and the schools that were included in both studies.

In Study 1 and Study 2, a building-level, emotional intelligence score and a building-level culture score were calculated and compared to determine whether a correlation existed between the variables. The findings of this study were intended to

inform principals of the relationship between levels of emotional intelligence of staff and the culture of a school. In this chapter, the researcher will interpret the findings, and will present recommendations and practical implications.

The following research questions were asked to aid the researcher in examining the relationship between emotional intelligence and culture. In this study, the researcher examined the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school. Once the data was interpreted, the correlations were analyzed to determine the degree of relationship, and its significance.

The data collection for this study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What is the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school?
2. What is the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school?

Finally, with the Research Hypothesis 1, the researcher proposed that a relationship existed between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school. With the Research Hypothesis 2, the researcher proposed a relationship existed between the emotional intelligence of principals and the culture of an elementary school.

Summary of Findings

Building-level culture scores were determined in Study 1 by averaging the individual Panorama Culture and Learning Survey data, obtained from the school district. Building-level culture scores in Study 2 were determined using the School Culture Triage Survey, which was designed to provide a building-level culture score by averaging individual participant scores. The emotional intelligence scores were determined for both

Study 1 and Study 2, using the Assessing Emotions Scale and its subscales in which items were measured on a 5-point, Likert scale of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The scale and subscale scores were calculated in both studies and in all three instruments used in this research.

In Study 1, there was an overall, high internal consistency of Panorama Learning and Culture items (with a Cronbach's alpha of .94) and of the Assessing Emotions Scale items (with a Cronbach's alpha of .89). Unexpectedly, the total Panorama Learning and Culture Survey scores and the Assessing Emotions Scale scores did not demonstrate significant correlations with their own subscales. In Study 2, there was also an overall, high internal consistency with the School Culture Triage Survey (with a Cronbach's alpha of .93) and with the Assessing Emotions Scale items with a Cronbach's alpha of .88. In contrast to Study 1, the total Culture Triage Survey scores and the Assessing Emotions Scale scores both demonstrated a moderate to high positive correlation with the subscales. This is significant in providing credibility to Study 2.

In Study 1, the research hypothesis was supported, confirming a relationship between total, school culture and total, emotional intelligence scores. Through correlation analysis, data indicated a moderate, negative correlation between total, school culture and total-school emotional intelligence. The results indicated that as total, school culture score increases, total-school emotional intelligence score decreases. These results were unexpected and the interpretation is unclear. The researcher speculated that not all subscales included in the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey are good measures of culture. The Teaching Efficacy and Faculty Growth Mindset Subscales most closely aligned with school culture; however, when examining these subscales more closely, they did not seem to correlate with emotional intelligence. The Panorama Learning and

Culture Survey was used to reduce the participant burden, but might not be as strong of a measure as the researcher had initially anticipated that it would be. Another possibility might be that, when the individual-level data was averaged, the decrease in variability and sample size affected the reliability when comparing total culture and total emotional intelligence at the building level.

The researcher failed to support the research hypothesis that the total, principal emotional intelligence score and total, school culture score would be correlated. The culture data was obtained at the building level from the school district; therefore, each emotional intelligence score was not tied to a specific culture score on the individual level. For this reason, the researcher was unable to separate the culture score of the principal from the total, school culture score. The culture data reported in Study 1 does include the culture score of the building principal. Although, with Study 1, the researcher was unable to provide a total culture score that excluded the individual culture score of the building principal, the data in Study 2 was collected at the individual level and reported a culture score that did not include the individual culture score of the building principal, for a better comparison.

In Study 1, the correlation analysis on demographics and the relationship with school culture and emotional intelligence of staff and principal revealed only small correlations. Although total-school, emotional intelligence scores indicated no significant correlation with any demographics included in the study, more interesting results came from the analysis of the demographics with school culture. The results indicated that when staff members have been in the building longer, school culture scores decrease. These results indicate that although emotional intelligence and demographics do not seem to have an impact on each other, average years in building could have a small impact on

the culture of a building. When looking at only moderate correlations, as the percentage of free and reduced-price lunch increased, school culture also increased. As the number of years that a staff member had worked in a building increased, school culture decreased.

In Study 2, when analyzing building-level data, the researcher failed to support the research hypothesis because of the correlation analysis results that indicated that no significant relationship existed between total, school culture scores and total, emotional intelligence scores at the building level. The researcher failed to support the second research hypothesis because the analysis of the building-level data indicated that no statistically significant relationship existed between school culture and the emotional intelligence of the principal. In Study 2, no significant relationships were found when analyzing demographics and their relationship to the emotional intelligence of staff and the culture of a building, at a building level.

The researcher had access to individual-level data in Study 2; therefore, the individual-level analysis of a larger sample size and variability provided another opportunity to explore the relationship between these variables. The results of the building-level, data correlations were surprising because the researcher had hypothesized a relationship would exist. Several possibilities might explain why the building-level data indicated no correlation. One possibility is social desirability. The emotional intelligence scores were obtained from an instrument that obtains self-reported data. The participants could have given answers that were socially desirable, rather than accurate. It is common for people to report in ways that portray themselves in a more positive image to others (Krumpal, 2013). In addition, the participants might not have been sufficiently self-aware to respond accurately to the emotional intelligence questions. Another possibility might

be that, when the individual-level data was averaged, the decrease in variability and sample size affected the reliability when comparing total culture and total emotional intelligence at the building level.

Study 2 provided individual-level data that was not available in Study 1. The individual-level data allowed the comparison of total School Culture Triage scores and total, Assessing Emotions Scale scores and subscale scores at an individual level. As the researcher expected, this data supported the research hypothesis, in which the researcher proposed that a relationship would exist between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school. A moderate, but significant positive correlation was found between the total culture and total, emotional intelligence scores at an individual level. This data indicates that as the emotional intelligence of staff increases, school culture would also increase. The researcher also analyzed principal emotional intelligence scores with school culture scores at the individual level, but no significant relationship was found. When analyzing the emotional intelligence of the principal and the emotional intelligence of staff, no significant relationship was found.

In Study 2, the researcher also used the School Culture Triage Survey that was intended to assess quickly the current status of the culture of a school (Wagner, 2006). In previous studies, the reliability results supported the presumption that the School Culture Triage Survey had high, internal consistency and reliability in determining school culture (Novak, 2008). The Panorama Learning and Culture Survey, used in Study 1, included measures of culture, but also included measures of learning, not specific to culture. The greatest difference between the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey and the School Culture Triage Survey is that most questions on latter refer to teachers and staff. For

example, “Teachers and staff discuss instructional strategies and curriculum issues.” The questions on the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey are more specific to each teacher who is complete the survey. For example, “How often do you receive feedback on your teaching?” Schein (1992) defined culture as:

A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. (p. 12)

Although, the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey questions are important measures of culture, the questions on the School Culture Triage Survey obtained a better picture of how groups solve problems and work together, rather than how individual teachers do their work, which supported Schein’s definition of school culture. The researcher presumes the School Culture Triage Survey is a better measure of culture, which might be why the results of individual-level data in Study 2 supported the research surrounding school culture and emotional intelligence, as the researcher discussed.

Connections to Literature

The culture of any organization can be felt all day, any day. School culture can determine success or failure for an organization, and leaders should not take it lightly (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Deal & Peterson, 2009; Fullan, 2001; Schein, 2010). School culture has an effect on the way people behave on a daily basis and how they respond to challenges and change. People who have well-developed emotional intelligence can identify and control their own emotions and those of others; therefore, they are not as likely to be disabled by fear, taken over by emotions that are negative, and suppressed by anxiety, all of which can negatively affect the performance of an individual and the team

with which they work (Seipp, 1991). A lack of emotional intelligence could prohibit a person from successfully managing the stress and pressure that is related to the education field, contributing to a toxic school culture.

A toxic school culture is not a healthy situation for an organization entrusted with educating future generations. Cook (2006) analyzed the effects of emotional intelligence on a principal's leadership performance. Although Cook's study was not related to school culture, Cook concluded that emotional intelligence has a significant effect on principals' leadership performance. Cook's study does support the importance of emotional intelligence. Ruestow (2008) concluded that the emotional intelligence of the leader appears to have an effect on teacher satisfaction when analyzing the effect of a leader's emotional intelligence on follower job satisfaction and organizational commitments. Ruestow supported the importance of emotional intelligence in an organization. Although, monitoring school culture is included in the role of a school principal, Ruestow did not indicate that the emotional intelligence of the principal had an impact on the culture of a school.

Sadasa (2013) concluded that culture has a direct influence on teacher satisfaction and job performance, which supports the research on school culture. Sadasa did not focus on emotional intelligence; however, Saldasa suggested that emotional intelligence could influence teacher job performance, which is measured by analyzing school culture or the way people within an organization work together. Condren (2002) researched emotional intelligence, focusing on leadership effectiveness, which includes building culture within a school. Condren noted that the evidence suggested that some relationship did exist, but that it was not statistically significant. Similar to Condren, the researcher did not find a statistically significant relationship. Therefore, the current researcher's study supports the

importance of emotional intelligence when analyzing school culture. Building on the work of Condren, culture is a measure of leadership effectiveness; however, the level of emotional intelligence of the principal did not appear to affect school culture.

Noe (2012) studied the relationship between a principal's emotional intelligence quotient, school culture, and student achievement. Noe's study most closely aligned with this researcher's study, and reported no significant correlation when analyzing the relationship between a principal's overall emotional intelligence quotient and the teacher-perceived culture. This researcher's study went further to examine not only the relationship between a principal's emotional intelligence and school culture, but also the emotional intelligence of staff and school culture. The research in this study supports the research of Noe (2012), indicating that no relationship exists between a principal's emotional intelligence score and school culture.

Again, the research regarding the effect of emotional intelligence of staff on school culture is limited. Although research specific to emotional intelligence in schools exists, and supports the importance of furthering research, researchers have not determined whether the level of emotional intelligence of staff has an impact on the culture of a school. For this reason, more research on the emotional intelligence of all staff in a building is needed to determine the effects of emotional intelligence on the culture of a school.

Mayor and Salovey (1990) introduced emotional intelligence as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 189). Culture is not exactly inside the heads of individuals within the organization, but between individuals and expressed publicly through symbols, meanings, and interactions with groups of people

(Sabanci et al., 2016). When analyzing building-level data, a moderate negative correlation between culture and emotional intelligence was found in Study 1 and no significant relationship was found in Study 2. However, a positive relationship was found between school culture and the relationship with emotional intelligence of staff when analyzing individual-level data. Individual-level data analysis supports the researchers idea that, if culture is between individuals and expressed publicly through interactions with groups of people (Sabanci et al., 2016), and if emotional intelligence is the ability to monitor one's own and others feelings to guide one's thinking and actions (Mayor & Salovey, 1990, p.189), then emotional intelligence of staff is likely to have an effect on the culture of a school. It is unclear whether people who have high emotional intelligence are more adept at navigating the social and emotional environment in which they find themselves, or whether they merely perceive their social environment as more positive.

Limitations, Delimitations, and Strengths

A limitation in Study 1 was that the culture data was obtained at the building level from the school district; therefore, each emotional intelligence score was not tied to a specific culture score on the individual level. For this reason, the researcher was unable to separate the culture score of the principal from the total, school culture score. The culture data reported in Study 1 does include the culture score of the building principal, which limits accuracy of results.

A limitation in Study 1 and Study 2 was the manner in which the data was aggregated. Calculating building-level scores by averaging across individuals reduces the variability inherent in individual-level data. The reduction in variability produced by this averaging, is a potential threat to statistical power.

Also a limitation in Study 1 and Study 2 was that all scores obtained from the Assessing Emotions Scale were self-reported and dependent on the individuals self-perceived level of culture and emotional intelligence. The participants could have given answers that were socially desirable, rather than accurate. It is common for people to report in ways that portray themselves in a more positive image to others (Krumpal, 2013). Also, the participants might not have been self-aware enough to respond accurately to the emotional intelligence questions.

The delimitations included only certified staff members and principals in elementary schools (any combination of K–5). The researcher believed that this would be the best comparison when examining school culture; however, it limited useable data, for several schools who participated included K–8 data was not useable. The researcher hoped to obtain useable data for 29 schools, but was disappointed by the return rate of schools in Study 2. The sample included in both studies was adequate for analysis, although small.

A strength of this study was that all of the survey instruments used indicated an internal consistency (as measured by Cronbach's alpha). The Cronbach's alpha was .94 on the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey and the sample indicated a predominately positive correlation between the overall, school culture scale score and the subscale scores of Coaching and Feedback, Student Mindset, Grit, Faculty Growth Mindset, Educating All and Teaching Efficacy Subscales ($r = .628$ to $.808$, all $p < .001$). The Cronbach's alpha on the Assessing Emotions Scale was .89 in Study 1 and .88 in Study 2, which also indicated an internal consistency, and was a strength in this research. In Study 2, the Cronbach's alpha on the School Culture Triage Survey was .93, indicating a strong internal consistency of scale items. The total culture score and total, emotional

intelligence score also depicted moderate to strong positive correlation with all subscales, and among themselves. Study 2 included individual-level data; therefore, additional analyses were available, which was a strength for this study.

An additional strength was the ability to look at individual-level data in Study 2. Individual-level data made the study comparable to other studies in the literature and provided a larger sample size, with more variability. Study 1 looked in depth at one school district and Study 2 provided the ability to look more widely at schools in Missouri. The ability to compare the two studies was a strength because the study then had both breadth and depth. There is no reason to think that the constructs themselves are dependent on what happens in schools in Missouri, but the constructs also ought to apply to schools across the Nation.

Conclusions

Building-level data analysis in Study 1 showed a moderate negative correlation between total, school culture and emotional intelligence scores. As total, school culture scores increase, total-school emotional intelligence decrease. The data indicated no significant relationship between the emotional intelligence of the principal and the total culture of a school. The researcher speculated that not all subscales included in the Panorama are a good measure of culture. The Panorama Learning and Culture Survey was already in use in the large school district in Missouri, and was used to reduce the participant burden. The researcher also suspects that, when the individual-level data was averaged, the decrease in variability and sample size affected reliability when comparing total culture and total emotional intelligence at the building level. The researcher concluded that the Panorama Learning and Culture Survey was not a good measure of

culture because of the inclusion of subscales that measured aspects of school culture, but not school culture in its entirety.

In Study 2, building-level data indicated that no significant relationship existed between the culture and emotional intelligence of staff or the principal. The researcher concluded that averaging individual-level scores to create total-school emotional intelligence scores and total, school culture scores limited the reliability and variability of the study. In addition, in Study 2, the researcher had the ability to analyze individual-level data, which increased the variability and reliability because of the larger sample size. Individual-level data supported the research hypothesis, that a significant relationship exists between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school, such that those schools that have higher levels of emotional intelligence will also have a more positive school culture. When analyzing principal's emotional intelligence scores and the individual-level culture scores, no significant correlation was found. The researcher concluded that sample size (16 principals) could have affected this result. However, the lack of relationship between the principals' emotional intelligence scores and school culture is consistent with the research of Noe (2012).

The researcher believed that the individual-level data analysis in Study 2 was the best measure of relationship between emotional intelligence of staff and the culture of an elementary school because of larger sample size that increased validity. This data analysis led the researcher to the conclusion that a positive relationship exists between the emotional intelligence of staff and the culture of an elementary school. The researcher also concluded that there were no surprising correlations with demographics, or

indications that demographics had a significant relationship with school culture or emotional intelligence.

Recommendations for Further Research

The most reliable and significant relationship established in this study was the positive correlation between the emotional intelligence of staff and the culture of an elementary school when analyzing individual-level data (Study 2). The analysis indicated that, as the emotional intelligence of staff increases, perceptions of school culture also increase. Furthermore, purposeful research on the relationship of the emotional intelligence of staff on the culture of an elementary school is warranted.

The design of Study 2 was more effective and used a better measure of school culture. Repeating Study 2, and analyzing individual-level data with a larger sample size, is recommended to investigate further the relationship between emotional intelligence and school culture in an effort to improve school culture. The researcher also suggests that within Missouri, the sample could be expanded to address middle school and high school. Future researchers could also expand the sample to include elementary schools or schools at all levels from Kindergarten through Grade 12 outside of Missouri.

The researcher also suggests using the School Culture Triage Survey as a good, efficient measure of school culture. The researcher further suggests using the Assessing Emotions Scale as a good measure of emotional intelligence. Both surveys possess well-established reliability and validity.

An additional recommendation would be to analyze school culture and emotional intelligence in a school in which professional learning on improving emotional intelligence was implemented. The data obtained might provide information on increasing school culture through improving the emotional intelligence of staff.

Professional Implications

The purpose of this study was to measure the relationship between emotional intelligence of staff and the principal, and the culture of an elementary school. Additional analysis in Study 2, using individual-level data, indicated a moderate positive relationship between emotional intelligence of staff and the culture of an elementary school. The moderate positive correlation supports the importance of emotional intelligence of staff in having a positive school culture.

At an organizational level, emotional intelligence could be used when hiring staff. Hiring staff is one of the most important jobs of a school leader. Asking each candidate questions that provide insight into the emotional intelligence level of the applicant, could ensure that one is hiring a candidate who has high emotional intelligence, and would contribute positively to one's school culture. Additionally, the question, "How do you contribute to positive school culture?" could be used when attempting to hire the best candidate. The findings of this study indicate that gaining knowledge of the emotional intelligence of staff and being proactive in teaching staff members the strategies to improve their own emotional intelligence could improve school culture.

Staff desire to work in a school that has a positive school culture. Working with colleagues who have high emotional intelligence, may improve the school culture in which staff work each day. It may also improve relationships with students, parents and members of the community, which further contribute to the school culture. Most often, lack of communication or a poor quality of communication is a source of conflict among school staff. Understanding other people plays a large role in communication and is also a facet of emotional intelligence.

Today, school staff members work with students who exhibit severe behaviors or have a mental illness. Members of the staff must address the students' extreme behaviors or mental illness of students, which has a large impact on the culture of a school. Embedding social emotional curriculum into classrooms could improve the emotional intelligence of students, which in turn would have a positive impact on the culture of a school. Although, in this study, the researcher did not analyze the emotional intelligence of students, teaching strategies to students could affect school culture and provide tools that students could use to be successful throughout life. Teachers who are teaching social emotional learning and learning strategies could model appropriate interactions for students on a daily basis.

The results of the individual-level data in Study 2 support the theoretical framework of this study. Culture is known to affect many aspects of a school (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015). Shifting school culture is not an easy task for any school leader, but an important one. Schein (2010) referred to culture as very complex, requiring deep study of the underlying issues with a school or organization. Emotional intelligence and aspects of school culture go hand-in-hand and often overlap when analyzing day-to-day interactions and the deeper meanings behind those interactions. If "culture forms the superglue that bonds and organization, unites people and helps an enterprise accomplish desired ends" (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 253), and emotional intelligence has a positive effect on school culture, an awareness of the emotional intelligence of staff and knowledge of strategies to improve emotional intelligence of staff would benefit any elementary school.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine whether a relationship existed between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal, the staff, and

the culture of an elementary school. The researcher conducted this study in two parts. Study 1 was restricted to a large school district in Missouri. Study 2 was administered in a purposive sample of elementary schools from school districts in Missouri. Both studies used the Assessing Emotions Scale, which addresses the four factors of emotional intelligence that Mayor and Salovey (1990) identified. Separate but similar measures of school culture were used in Study 1 and Study 2. Both studies collected demographic information for each participant, and the relationship was analyzed between emotional intelligence, culture, and specific demographic variables. Through Study 1 and Study 2, the researcher hoped to contribute to the current knowledge of school culture and the relationship between culture and the emotional intelligence of the principal and staff.

The analysis of individual-level data in Study 2 indicated that, as emotional intelligence of staff increases, school culture increases. The School Culture Triage Survey and the Assessing Emotions Scale are effective self-report measures of culture and emotional intelligence. The demographic variables analyzed within this study did not seem to have a strong impact on school culture or emotional intelligence of staff.

This research was guided by Schein's (1992) theory of organizational culture. Schein not only defined, but also dissected and harnessed the importance of an organization's culture, linking organizational culture to schools and leadership. Culture is an invisible phenomenon that happens around people and encompasses all parts of the daily work in a school. In any interaction, positive or negative, insight can be obtained that tells about the culture of the school. For example, if a veteran teacher is contemptuous toward a parent complaint, and the principal does not intervene, the school culture will become one that devalues the concerns of parents and averts parental input (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015). Schein (2010) explained that understanding the forces of

culture is important to unravel complicated interactions that occur within a school and to enable people to better understand themselves.

Additionally, Salovey and Mayer's (1990) framework of emotional intelligence assisted in guiding this study. Salovey and Mayer stated, "Emotionally intelligent individuals accurately perceive their emotions and use integrated, sophisticated approaches to regulate them as they proceed toward important goals" (p. 200). Salovey and Mayer further indicated that the lack of emotional intelligence in a staff member could impact his or her ability to work with others. Although the researcher was guided in this study by the research of Schein (1992), and Salovey and Mayer (1990), no other study has combined the two concepts, and applied and measured them in the way this researcher has done in this study. This researcher contributes to previous research on the importance of culture and how emotional intelligence affects the way that people work together.

Every school has a culture, which is that feeling one gets upon entering a school that helps one to determine whether one wants to be there. School culture has an effect on the way that people behave on a daily basis and the way they respond to challenges and change. Emotional intelligence is directly related to people's behavior or responses to their environment. A lack of emotional intelligence could prohibit a person from successfully managing the stress and pressure that are related to the education field, which would then contribute to a toxic school culture.

The results of the individual-level data in Study 2 led the researcher to conclude that a positive relationship exists between the emotional intelligence of staff and the culture of an elementary school. Currently, in education, staff members within elementary schools are facing students who possess extreme behaviors. This study

confirms the need to educate staff and students regarding emotional intelligence, to teach strategies to improve emotional intelligence. In this study, the researcher addresses the emotional intelligence of staff in comparison with the culture of an elementary school. In this study, the researcher provided valuable information for current educators, which will also inspire other researchers to continue the the study of the effects of emotional intelligence on the culture of an elementary school.

The researcher understands the importance of establishing and maintaining a positive culture within an elementary school. The researcher also understands the importance of emotional intelligence and understanding how it affects day-to-day interactions between staff. This research was driven by the researcher's passion for creating a positive school culture for every educator, student, and stakeholder in an elementary school. It is hoped that educators and administrators will seek to understand better their own and others emotional intelligence to improve relationships and ultimately to improve the happiness and fulfillment that comes from working in a positive school culture.

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APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Q1: What is your gender: _____ Male _____ Female

Q2: What is your age: _____

Q3: What school do you work in: _____

Q4: What position do you hold: Principal _____ Assistant Principal _____

Teacher _____ Other _____

Q5: How many years have you served in education: less than a year _____ 1-3 _____ 4-

6 _____ 7-9 _____ 10-12 _____ 13-15 _____ 15 or more

Q6: How many years have you worked in your current building? less than a year _____ 1-

3 _____ 4-6 _____ 7-9 _____ 10-12 _____ 13-15 _____ 15 or more

APPENDIX B

THE ASSESSING EMOTIONS SCALE SURVEY

Directions: 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 choose 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

Q1: I know when to speak about my personal problems to others.

Q2: When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them.

Q3: I expect that I will do well on most things I try.

Q4: Other people find it easy to confide in me.

Q5: I find it hard to understand the nonverbal messages of other people.

Q6: Some of the major events of my life have led me to reevaluate what is important and not important.

Q7: When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.

Q8: Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living.

Q9: I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.

- Q10: I expect good things to happen.
- Q11: I like to share my emotions with others.
- Q12: When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.
- Q13: I arrange events others enjoy.
- Q14: I seek out activities that make me happy.
- Q15: I am aware of the nonverbal messages I send to others.
- Q16: I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.
- Q17: When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me.
- Q18: By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing.
- Q19: I know why my emotions change.
- Q20: When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas.
- Q21: I have control over my emotions.
- Q22: I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.
- Q23: I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on.
- Q24: I compliment others when they have done something well.
- Q25: I am aware of the nonverbal messages other people send.
- Q26: When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I experienced this event myself.
- Q27: When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas.
- Q28: When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail.
- Q29: I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them.
- Q30: I help other people feel better when they are down.
- Q31: I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles.

Q32: I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice.

Q33: It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do.

APPENDIX C

SCHOOL CULTURE TRIAGE SURVEY

Directions: Please circle a number to the right of each statement that most closely characterizes the practice in your school.

Rating: 1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Often, 5 = Always or Almost Always

Professional Collaboration

1. Teachers and staff discuss instructional strategies and curriculum issues.

1 2 3 4 5

2. Teachers and staff work together to develop the school schedule.

1 2 3 4 5

3. Teachers and staff are involved in the decision-making process with regard to materials and resources.

1 2 3 4 5

4. The student behavior code is a result of collaboration and consensus among staff.

1 2 3 4 5

5. The planning and organizational time allotted to teachers and staff is used to plan as collective units/teams rather than as separate individuals.

1 2 3 4 5

Affiliative Collegiality

1. Teachers and staff tell stories of celebrations that support the school's values.

1 2 3 4 5

2. Teachers and staff visit/talk/meet outside of the school to enjoy each others' company.

1 2 3 4 5

3. Our school reflects a true "sense" of community. 1 2 3 4 5

4. Our school schedule reflects frequent communication opportunities for teachers and staff. 1 2 3 4 5
5. Our school supports and appreciates the sharing of new ideas by members of our school. 1 2 3 4 5
6. There is a rich and robust tradition of rituals and celebrations including holidays, special events, and recognition of goal attainment. 1 2 3 4 5

Self-Determination–Efficacy

1. When something is not working in our school, the faculty and staff predict and prevent rather than react and repair. 1 2 3 4 5
2. School members are interdependent and value each other. 1 2 3 4 5
3. Members of our school community seek alternatives to problems/issues rather than repeating what we have always done. 1 2 3 4 5
4. Members of our school community seek to define the problem/issue rather than blame others. 1 2 3 4 5
5. The school staff is empowered to make instructional decisions rather than waiting for supervisors to tell them what to do. 1 2 3 4 5
6. People work here because they enjoy and choose to be here. 1 2 3 4 5

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Scoring the Triage Survey

The lowest triage score is 17 and the highest score is 85. After using the triage questions in several program evaluations, our data suggests the following:

17 – 40 = Critical and immediate attention necessary. Conduct a full-scale assessment of your school's culture and invest all available resources in repairing and healing the culture.

41 – 59 = Modifications and improvements are necessary. Begin with a more intense assessment of your school's culture to determine which area is in most need of improvement.

60 – 75 = Monitor and maintain making positive adjustments.

76 – 85 = Amazing! A score of 75 was the highest ever recorded.

School culture is of such importance that it requires constant monitoring. Yet before engaging in an elaborate and extensive analysis of the school culture, this quick assessment of current status can assist in determining the wise allocation of time and resources.

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APPENDIX D

PANORAMA LEARNING AND CULTURE SURVEY

Coaching and Feedback					
1. How much feedback do you receive on your teaching?	No feedback at all	A little bit of feedback	Some feedback	Quite a bit of feedback	A tremendous amount of feedback
2. How much do you learn from the teacher evaluation processes at your school?	Learn almost nothing	Learn a little bit	Learn some	Learn quite a bit	Learn a tremendous amount
3. How useful do you find the feedback you receive on your teaching?	Not at all useful	Slightly useful	Somewhat useful	Quite useful	Extremely useful
4. At your school, how thorough is the feedback you receive in covering all aspects of your role as a teacher?	Not at all thorough	Slightly thorough	Somewhat thorough	Quite thorough	Extremely thorough
5. How often do you receive feedback on your teaching?	Almost never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost always

Student Mindset					
<i>Whether your students do well or poorly in your class may depend on many different factors. Some of these factors might be easier for your students to change than others. How possible do you think it is for your students to change:</i>					
6. How much talent they have	Not at all possible to change	A little possible to change	Somewhat possible to change	Quite possible to change	Completely possible to change
7. How much effort they put forth	Not at all possible to change	A little possible to change	Somewhat possible to change	Quite possible to change	Completely possible to change
8. How well they behave in class	Not at all possible to change	A little possible to change	Somewhat possible to change	Quite possible to change	Completely possible to change
9. How much they like the content in your class	Not at all possible to change	A little possible to change	Somewhat possible to change	Quite possible to change	Completely possible to change
10. How easily they give up	Not at all possible to change	A little possible to change	Somewhat possible to change	Quite possible to change	Completely possible to change
11. Their intelligence	Not at all possible to change	A little possible to change	Somewhat possible to change	Quite possible to change	Completely possible to change

Grit					
12. If your students have a problem while working towards an important goal, how well can they keep working?	Not well at all	Slightly well	Somewhat well	Quite well	Extremely well
13. How often do your students stay focused on the same goal for several months at a time?	Almost never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost always
14. Some people pursue some of their goals for a long time, and others change their goals frequently. Over the next several years, how likely are your students to continue to pursue one of their current goals?	Not at all likely	Slightly likely	Somewhat likely	Quite likely	Extremely likely
15. When your students are working on a project that matters a lot to them, how focused can they stay when there are a lot of distractions?	Not at all focused	Slightly focused	Somewhat focused	Quite focused	Extremely focused
16. If your students fail to reach an important goal, how likely are they to try again?	Not at all likely	Slightly likely	Somewhat likely	Quite likely	Extremely likely

Faculty Growth Mindset					
17. To what extent can teachers increase how much their most difficult students learn from them?	Cannot increase at all	Can increase a little	Can increase somewhat	Can increase quite a bit	Can increase a tremendous amount
18. How easily can teachers change their teaching style to match the needs of a particular class?	Not at all easily	Slightly easily	Somewhat easily	Quite easily	Extremely easily
19. To what extent can teachers improve their implementation of different teaching strategies?	Cannot improve at all	Can improve a little	Can improve somewhat	Can improve quite a bit	Can improve a tremendous amount
20. How possible is it for teachers to change their ability to work with dissatisfied parents?	Not at all possible to change	A little possible to change	Somewhat possible to change	Quite possible to change	Completely possible to change
21. How much can teachers improve their classroom management approaches?	Cannot improve at all	Can improve slightly	Can improve somewhat	Can improve quite a bit	Can improve a tremendous amount
22. To what extent can teachers change their intelligence about the subjects that they teach?	Cannot change at all	Can change a little bit	Can change somewhat	Can change quite a bit	Can change a tremendous amount
23. Over the course of a school year, to what extent can teachers improve the clarity of their explanations of challenging concepts?	Cannot improve at all	Can improve slightly	Can improve somewhat	Can improve quite a bit	Can improve a tremendous amount
24. How possible is it for teachers to change how well they relate to their most difficult students?	Not at all possible to change	A little possible to change	Somewhat possible to change	Quite possible to change	Completely possible to change

Educating All					
25. How easy do you find interacting with students at your school who are from a different cultural background than your own?	Not at all easy	Slightly easy	Somewhat easy	Quite easy	Extremely easy
26. How comfortable would you be incorporating new material about people from different backgrounds into your curriculum?	Not at all comfortable	Slightly comfortable	Somewhat comfortable	Quite comfortable	Extremely comfortable
27. How knowledgeable are you regarding where to find resources for working with students who have unique learning needs?	Not knowledgeable at all	Slightly knowledgeable	Somewhat knowledgeable	Quite knowledgeable	Extremely knowledgeable
28. If students from different backgrounds struggled to get along in your class, how comfortable would you be intervening?	Not at all comfortable	Slightly comfortable	Somewhat comfortable	Quite comfortable	Extremely comfortable
29. How easy would it be for you to teach a class with groups of students from very different religions from each other?	Not at all easy	Slightly easy	Somewhat easy	Quite easy	Extremely easy
30. In response to events that might be occurring in the world, how comfortable would you be having conversations about race with your students?	Not at all comfortable	Slightly comfortable	Somewhat comfortable	Quite comfortable	Extremely comfortable
31. How easily do you think you could make a particularly overweight student feel like a part of class?	Not at all easily	Slightly easily	Somewhat easily	Quite easily	Extremely easily
32. How comfortable would you be having a student who could not communicate well with anyone in class because his/her home language was unique?	Not at all comfortable	Slightly comfortable	Somewhat comfortable	Quite comfortable	Extremely comfortable
33. When a sensitive issue of diversity arises in class, how easily can you think of strategies to address the situation?	Not at all easily	Slightly easily	Somewhat easily	Quite easily	Extremely easily

Teaching Efficacy					
34. How confident are you that you can help your school's most challenging students to learn?	Not at all confident	Slightly confident	Somewhat confident	Quite confident	Extremely confident
35. How thoroughly do you feel that you know all the content you need to teach?	Not thoroughly at all	Slightly thoroughly	Somewhat thoroughly	Quite thoroughly	Extremely thoroughly
36. How confident are you that you can move through material at a pace that works well for each of your students?	Not at all confident	Slightly confident	Somewhat confident	Quite confident	Extremely confident
37. When one of your teaching strategies fails to work for a group of students, how easily can you think of another approach to try?	Not at all easily	Slightly easily	Somewhat easily	Quite easily	Extremely easily
38. If a parent were upset about something in your class, how confident are you that you could have a productive conversation with this parent?	Not at all confident	Slightly confident	Somewhat confident	Quite confident	Extremely confident
39. How effective do you think you are at managing particularly disruptive classes?	Not at all effective	Slightly effective	Somewhat effective	Quite effective	Extremely effective
40. How confident are you that you can engage students who typically are not motivated?	Not at all confident	Slightly confident	Somewhat confident	Quite confident	Extremely confident
41. How clearly can you explain the most complicated content to your students?	Not at all clearly	Slightly clearly	Somewhat clearly	Quite clearly	Extremely clearly
42. How confident are you that you can meet the learning needs of your most advanced students?	Not at all confident	Slightly confident	Somewhat confident	Quite confident	Extremely confident

APPENDIX E

EMAIL INQUIRY TO SUPERINTENDENTS

Dear Superintendent,

I am requesting your support of a doctoral dissertation study I am conducting as a student at Southwest Baptist University. The purpose of this quantitative study is to examine the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school, and the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school.

To complete this study, elementary principals in your district will be asked to participate by completing the online two part emotional intelligence and school culture triage assessment, about 10 minutes in length, and also sending an email requesting all certified staff in their building to participate.

This study focuses on how the emotional intelligence of staff affects the culture of an elementary school. Elementary principals in your district will be provided building results and a copy of research to aid in improving both scores. Principals will not receive identifying information of staff who participated in the study, to ensure confidentiality. Principals will also receive a PDF of a jeans day coupon to use as an incentive for staff participation. Finally, schools who reach at least 60% participation will be included in a drawing for \$200 to provide a meal to recognize staff.

Confidentiality will be maintained throughout the process. Sample copies of the survey to be used are attached for your review. I am willing to discuss this further if you have any questions or concerns and would appreciate any assistance you can provide.

Please respond to the email expressing approval to conduct this research with your elementary schools. Thank you for your help with this doctoral study.

Sincerely,

Crystal Magers
Doctoral Candidate
Southwest Baptist University

APPENDIX F

EMAIL INQUIRY TO ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS

Dear Principal,

I would like to invite you to participate in a doctoral dissertation research study I am conducting as a student at Southwest Baptist University. The purpose of this quantitative study is to examine the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school, and the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school.

Your participation in this survey is voluntary, however, your assistance is needed to provide information which can help educational leaders have a greater impact on improving the culture of an elementary school. This research can provide valuable information about the culture of your building and the emotional intelligence of certified staff, which can be beneficial in leading and planning professional learning in your building. There is no known risk for your participation. Any information related to you or your school will be completely confidential. All responses are tied to the elementary school in which each participant works, but are anonymous.

If you obtain 60% participation within your elementary school, you will receive summary results from the survey, as well as a copy of research to aid in improving both building scores. You will not receive identifying information of staff who participated in the study to ensure confidentiality. Additionally, you will receive a PDF copy of a jeans day coupon to use as an incentive for staff participation. Finally, schools who reach at least 60% participation will be included in a drawing for \$200 to provide a meal to recognize staff. If your school is drawn, you will receive the \$200 electronically through PayPal.

I know your schedules are busy and I value your time, thus, I am requesting that you take approximately 10 minutes to complete the survey linked below. The Assessing Emotions Scale Survey will calculate an emotional intelligence score, and each individual score will be averaged to find the building emotional intelligence score. The results will be shared with you along with suggestions of activities to use with staff to improve emotional intelligence and the culture of an elementary school. To participate in this study, please complete the survey below and send the email below to staff along with the same link for staff to complete:

<https://www.questionpro.com/a/PreviewSurvey>

Your cooperation is very much appreciated.

Thank you,

Crystal Magers
Doctoral Candidate
Southwest Baptist University

If you are uncertain about any part of the process, please do not hesitate to contact me at: _____.

APPENDIX G

EMAIL INQUIRY FOR ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS TO FORWARD TO TEACHERS

Dear Teacher,

I would like to invite you to participate in a doctoral dissertation research study I am conducting as a student at Southwest Baptist University. The purpose of this quantitative study is to examine the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of staff members and the culture of an elementary school, and the relationship between the self-perceived level of emotional intelligence of the principal and the culture of an elementary school.

Your participation in this survey is voluntary, however, your assistance is needed to provide information which can help educational leaders have a greater impact on improving the culture of an elementary school. This research can provide valuable information about the culture of your building and the emotional intelligence of certified staff, which can be beneficial in planning professional learning in your building. Your perception of your school's culture and emotional intelligence is an important part of this study.

The survey will take 10 minutes or less to complete. Your responses are completely anonymous and cannot be linked to you in any way. Your principal, school administration, I, nor any other entity will know your responses. There is no known risk for your participation. All responses are tied to the elementary school in which you work, but are anonymous.

Thank you for participating in this study; if you have questions or concerns about completing the survey or participating, please feel free to contact me at clmagers@spsmail.org. Please begin the survey by clicking the link below:

<https://www.questionpro.com/a/PreviewSurvey>

Your cooperation is very much appreciated.

Thank you,

Crystal Magers
Doctoral Candidate
Southwest Baptist University

APPENDIX H

PERMISSION TO USE THE SCHOOL CULTURE TRIAGE

From: Christopher R. Wagner
Sent: Monday, April 03, 2017 5:41 PM
To: Crystal L. Magers
Subject: Dissertation Use of the SCS

Center for Improving School Culture
International School Culture Research College
CREATING BETTER PLACES TO LEARN
Box 737
Cloquet, MN 55720
cwriders63@gmail.com
Cell: 270 791 3088

Greetings Crystal,

Thank you for your inquiry regarding the SCTS. So pleased you are adding to the research associated with school culture. Yes, of course, you may use the SCTS.

Attached to this email please find the following:

- A clean copy of the SCTS
- A tally form to collect scoring data
- An example of the process we use to score the survey
- Suggestions for the survey's administration
- A permission to use form - please read, sign and return to me via email or USPS.

Let me know if I can be of assistance in any way. Email is best.

Kindest regards,

Christopher

Christopher R. Wagner, Ph.D. Founder and President, CISC

APPENDIX I

PERMISSION TO USE THE ASSESSING EMOTIONS SCALE SURVEY

From: Nicola Schutte
Sent: December, 11, 2016 11:10 PM
To: Crystal L. Magers
Subject: No Subject Listed

Thank you for your message. You are welcome to use the scale. Please find attached the manuscript version of a published chapter that contains the scale and background information, including regarding scoring, reliability and validity.

Kind regards, Nicola Schutte

APPENDIX J

INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT FOR STUDY 1

The Relationship Between Principal and Staff Emotional Intelligence and the Culture of an Elementary School (Study 1)

I freely and voluntarily consent to be a participant in the research project “The Relationship Between Principal and Staff Emotional Intelligence and the Culture of an Elementary School” being conducted in the Winter of 2019 at Southwest Baptist University with the Principle Investigator being Crystal Magers. The purpose of this study is to discover if emotional intelligence has an impact on the culture of an elementary school.

I have been informed it will take approximately 4-6 minutes to complete the online survey. I understand that in this study I will fill out questionnaires about myself, my emotions or reactions to emotions and practices within my school. I understand this study will be anonymous, in order for the researchers to protect my identity while still obtaining necessary data, but tied to the elementary school I work at. Principals will not receive identifying information of staff who participate in the study, to ensure confidentiality. I understand that, although I will try to answer all questions, I am free to skip items I do not choose to answer. I understand that the researchers will destroy anything I have answered if I request this. I understand that I may leave the study at any point with no negative consequences. No individual’s data will be shared with other staff, or administration not directly involved in the study. In appreciation for your time and consideration, schools that reach 60% participation will be entered into a drawing for a \$200 Visa gift card.

If at any time during this study or at the conclusion of this study you feel that your rights have been violated in any way, you may contact the Acting Chair of the Research Review Board at the following address and telephone number:

Dr. Duke Jones, Acting Chair, Research Review Board
Jim Mellers Center
Southwest Baptist University
Bolivar, MO 65613
(314) 402-3799; RRB@SBUniv.edu

If you wish further information about the study, please feel free to contact Mrs. Crystal Magers at (417) 576-8310 or clmagers@spsmail.org

I have read and understood the above information and hereby consent to participate in this study. My agreement is not a waiver of any legal rights.

THIS PROJECT HAS BEEN REVIEWED BY THE SOUTHWEST BAPTIST UNIVERSITY RESEARCH REVIEW BOARD FOR RESEARCH AND RESEARCH RELATED ACTIVITIES INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS.

I agree to participate in this research study

Yes

No

APPENDIX K

INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT FOR STUDY 2

Emotional Intelligence and the Culture of an Elementary School (Study 2)

I freely and voluntarily consent to be a participant in the research project “The Relationship Between Principal and Staff Emotional Intelligence and the Culture of an Elementary School” being conducted in the Winter of 2019 at Southwest Baptist University with the Principle Investigator being Crystal Magers. The purpose of this study is to discover if emotional intelligence has an impact on the culture of an elementary school.

I have been informed it will take approximately 6-7 minutes to complete the online survey. I understand that in this study I will fill out questionnaires about myself, my emotions or reactions to emotions and practices within my school. I understand this study will be anonymous, in order for the researchers to protect my identity while still obtaining necessary data, but tied to the elementary school I work at. Principals will not receive identifying information of staff who participate in the study, to ensure confidentiality. I understand that, although I will try to answer all questions, I am free to skip items I do not choose to answer. I understand that the researchers will destroy anything I have answered if I request this. I understand that I may leave the study at any point with no negative consequences. No individual’s data will be shared with other staff, or administration not directly involved in the study. In appreciation for your time and consideration, schools that reach 60% participation will be entered into a drawing for a \$200 Visa gift card.

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I agree to participate in this research study

Yes

No

APPENDIX L

PRINCIPAL COMPONENTS ANALYSIS FOR THE ASSESSING EMOTIONS
SCALE AND CULTURE TRIAGE SURVEY

Figure 1: Scree Plot of Components loaded from the Culture Triage Survey

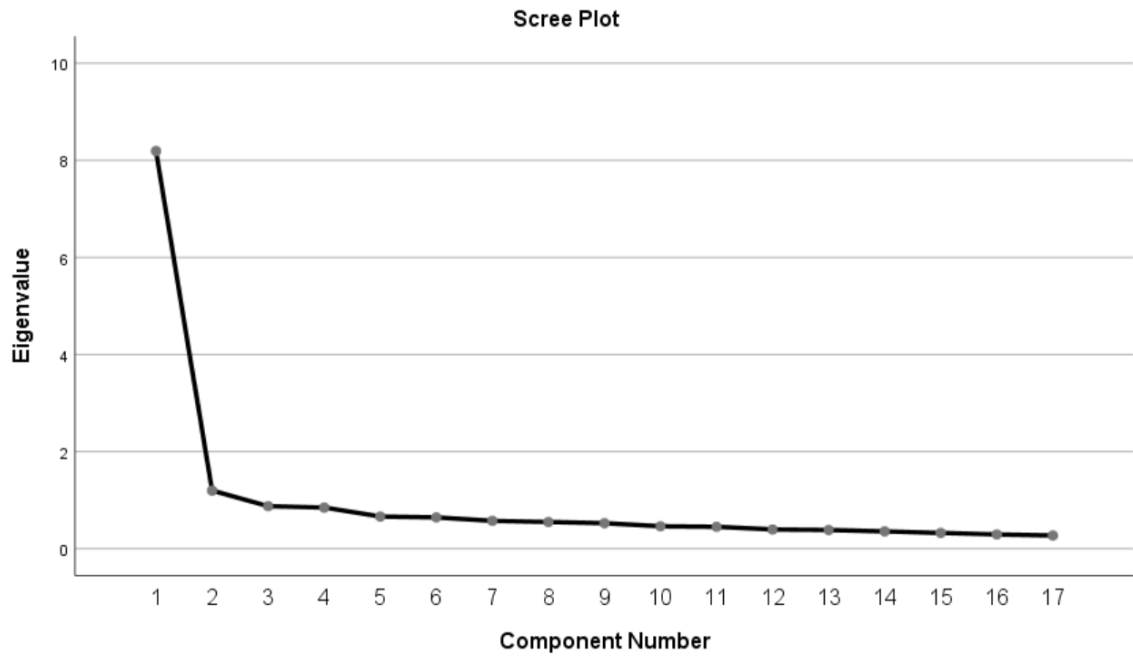


Figure 2: Pattern Matrix of Components Extracted from the Culture Triage Survey

Pattern Matrix^a

	Component	
	1	2
defineblameothers	.911	
enjoychoose	.837	
interdependent	.816	
alternatives	.766	
community	.641	
predictprevent	.599	
newideas	.590	
instrucdecisions	.554	
ritualcelebrations	.479	.317
schoolschedule		.849
materialsresources		.723
behaviorcode		.721
collectiveteams		.697
instructionalstrat		.646
communication		.562
outsideofschool		.533
storiescelebration		.514

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.^a

a. Rotation converged in 10 iterations.

Figure 1: Scree Plot of Components loaded from the Assessing Emotions Scale

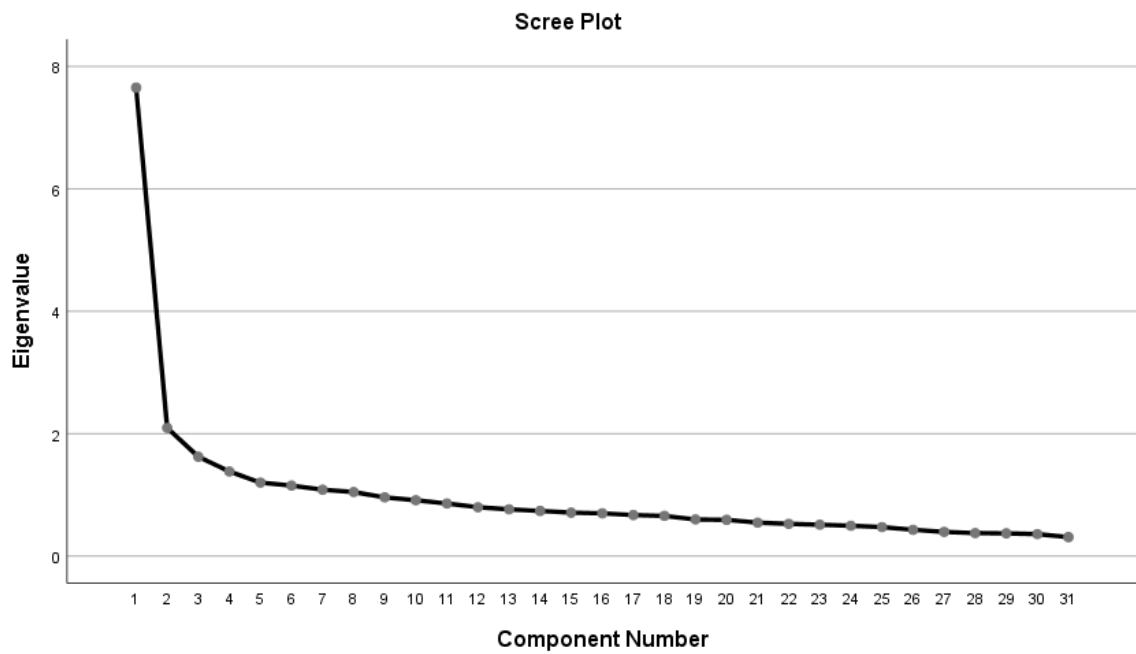


Figure 2: Pattern Matrix of Components Extracted from the Assessing Emotions Scale

Component Matrix^a

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
recognizeemotions	.634				
positiveemotionlast	.610				
whymyemotions	.605				
goodimpression	.604			-.380	
nonverbalofothers	.596	-.460			
awaremynonverbals	.584	-.375			
facialexpressions	.580				
posmoodnewideas	.575	.323			
goodoutcome	.551				
expectgood	.550				-.329
emotionsnewideas	.539			.353	
othersfeelbetter	.537			-.360	
awareofemotions	.534				
goodmoodobstacles	.516	.368			
activitieshappy	.515				
positivesolveprob	.494	.303			-.340
complimentothers	.488			-.363	
othersfeeling	.454	-.310	.446		
othereventexperienced	.450		.331		
expectwell	.447		-.328		
moodnewpossibilites	.445	.338		.329	
othersconfide	.444			-.406	
obstaclesovercame	.440		-.317		.344
arrangeevents	.439				
shareemotions	.358		.332		-.318
emotionsliving	.351				
speakpersonalprob	.349			.309	
understandnonverbals	-.414	.545			
challengefail	-.315		.482		
controlemotions	.441		-.459		
eventsreevaluate		.359			.446

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 5 components extracted.