

AN ANALYSIS OF THE EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND PERSONALITY OF  
PRINCIPALS LEADING PROFESSIONAL LEARNING COMMUNITIES

Christopher W. Jackson, B.S., M.S.

Dissertation Prepared for the Degree of  
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH TEXAS

May 2008

APPROVED:

Jane B. Huffman, Major Professor  
Russell K. Elleven, Minor Professor  
Doug W. Shouse, Committee Member  
William R. Fossey, Program Coordinator  
Leslie A. Patterson, Department Chair of Teacher  
Education and Administration  
M. Jean Keller, Dean of the College of Education  
Sandra L. Terrell, Dean of the Robert B. Toulouse  
School of Graduate Studies

Jackson, Christopher W. An Analysis of the Emotional Intelligence and Personality of Principals Leading Professional Learning Communities. Doctor of Education (Educational Administration), May 2008, 99 pp., 9 tables, 3 figures, reference list, 151 titles.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between a principal's emotional intelligence and personality and his or her ability to implement and develop professional learning communities within the school. The Professional Learning Community Assessment (PLCA) was administered to principals and teachers in 13 schools in Texas ranging from elementary to high school. Based on the strength of the PLCA scores, two elementary schools were selected to participate in case study research. The principals of these two campuses were administered an emotional intelligence instrument (MSCEIT), a personality instrument (DiSC), and were interviewed along with three of their teachers. The findings indicate that both of these principals scored high in the Influential and Conscientiousness subscales and low in the Dominance subscale. The principals also possessed either near-average or above-average emotional intelligence with both principals scoring particularly strong in the Strategic subscale.

Copyright 2008

by

Christopher W. Jackson

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this doctoral program has been a journey that would not have been possible without the support of several key people. First and foremost, I thank my wife, Jennifer, for all the encouragement you have given me along the way. Your belief in me kept me going. I thank my children, Mara, Joshua, Josiah, and Meghan, for all the “hug breaks” while writing my dissertation. I encourage you to pursue your dreams just as I have.

I am grateful to Dr. Jane Huffman for the all the guidance along the way. I cannot say enough about your commitment to your students. You truly exemplify qualities of a great teacher! I also thank my committee members, Dr. William Fossey, Dr. Doug Shouse and Dr. Russell Elleven. Your mentorship and assistance throughout this process have been invaluable.

I thank my mom for being an inspiration to me. Your words of encouragement throughout the years have been a source of motivation. Finally, I thank my grandparents, Silas and Robbie Jackson. You have always said I could do anything I put my mind to. There has been nothing in my life as constant and solid as your support.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	iii
LIST OF TABLES.....	vi
LIST OF FIGURES.....	vii
Chapter	
1. INTRODUCTION .....	1
Purpose of Study.....	5
Statement of the Problem .....	7
Research Questions.....	7
Theoretical Framework .....	8
Definition of Terms.....	13
Limitations .....	14
Delimitations .....	14
Significance of the Study.....	15
Organization of the Study.....	15
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE .....	17
Introduction .....	17
Context of the Problem .....	17
Current Research on Emotional Intelligence .....	20
Emotional Intelligence and Leadership .....	26
Current Understanding of Personality .....	29
Personality and Educational Leadership .....	32
Personality and Emotional Intelligence .....	34
Professional Learning Communities.....	35
Need for Current Study .....	44
Summary.....	44

3.	METHODOLOGY .....	47
	Introduction .....	47
	Problem and Purpose of Study .....	47
	Design of Study.....	48
	Instruments .....	50
	Data Analysis .....	56
	Summary.....	58
4.	RESULTS .....	60
	Introduction .....	60
	Participant Selection .....	60
	Instrument and Interview Data .....	63
	Summary of Results.....	72
5.	CONCLUSIONS .....	74
	Introduction .....	74
	Summary of Purpose and Findings.....	74
	Comparative Discussion .....	77
	Implications for Professional Learning Communities.....	81
	Recommendations for Future Research .....	83
	Conclusions .....	84
	APPENDIX.....	86
	REFERENCES.....	88

## LIST OF TABLES

	Page
1. Reliability of MSCEIT.....	52
2. MSCEIT Intercorrelations Among Branch and Area Scores .....	52
3. DiSC Reliability Coefficients and Intercorrelations Among Most and Least Scores .....	54
4. Question Set for Principal Interview.....	56
5. 2006 AEIS Information on Respondent Schools.....	61
6. PLCA Results from Respondent Schools .....	62
7. Principal A MSCEIT Scores.....	68
8. Principal B MSCEIT Scores.....	68
9. Scatter and Positive-Negative Bias Scores .....	69

## LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
1. Phases of Professional Learning Community Development.....	38
2. DiSC personality dimensional scores for Principal A and B.....	64
3. Descriptions of DiSC Personality Dimensions .....	65

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

Schools are dynamic, especially when one considers the many factors that affect school achievement. Arguably, the most important factor in the school success equation is the principal's ability to establish goals and mobilize a school-wide effort to achieve them (Schmoker, 1999). Much research has been done on what effective principals *do* (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2006). Such actions include, but are not limited to, setting high expectations, hiring great teachers, and communicating effectively with parents and the community (Whitaker, 2003). These practices are normally found in the curriculum for principal preparation programs based on the Standards for the Principal Certificate in the Texas Administrative Code (Rule §241.15).

In *School Leadership that Works*, Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) analyze 69 research studies since 1970 in addition to their own survey of 650 principals. Their findings lead them to 21 central leadership behaviors and responsibilities that are critical to school success. These 21 principal responsibilities are affirmation, change agent, contingent rewards, communication, culture, discipline, flexibility, focus, ideals/beliefs, input, intellectual stimulation, involvement in curriculum/instruction/assessment, knowledge of curriculum/instruction/assessment, monitoring/evaluating, optimizer, order, outreach, relationships, resources, situational awareness, and visibility. However, their meta-analysis of these 69 studies did not allow them to make generalizations on how or why a principal makes the right decisions regarding the school's focus but agree "the school leader's ability to select the right work is a critical aspect of effective leadership" (p. 97).

Are such practices able to be learned and performed consistently among all principals without regard to any predisposed leadership ability? Are some principals naturally better at leading than others based on their personality or level of emotional intelligence? In his groundbreaking book, *Emotional Intelligence*, Goleman (1995) argues that the emotional connectedness, the level of interpersonal rapport, of an organization's leader is the single most important factor in determining employee motivation and productivity.

Whitaker (2003) also suggests that all principals should look at great principals and replicate those practices on all campuses. His assumption is that a school's effectiveness is dependent on the outward practices of the principal and those practices can be adapted by any other principal. He does not consider, or at least mention, natural ability, if such a thing even exists. The belief that effective leadership is a primary result of natural ability may be too limited. On the contrary, the notion that effective leadership is independent of one's own personality and emotional intelligence may also be too restrictive. Bennis and Nanus (2003) believe that although many leadership qualities may be inherent, most qualities are learned through experience.

Stephen Covey (1989) suggests interpersonal skills and positive thinking, referred to as the Personality Ethic, alone cannot make a successful leader. Instead, he claims that leaders should base their decisions and actions on principles:

As we look around us and within us and recognize the problems created as we live and interact with the Personality Ethic, we begin to realize that these are deep, fundamental problems that cannot be solved on the superficial level on which they were created. We need a new level, deeper-level of thinking – a paradigm based on the principles that

accurately describe the territory of effective human being and interacting – to solve these deep concerns (p. 42).

However, some contemporary authors suggest that a key factor in effective leadership is the development of one's own natural gifts (Bolman & Deal, 2001). Could an individual's personality traits or level of emotional intelligence be considered a natural gift in which one could depend on to be an effective leader? Even within the context of being a principle-centered leader, building positive emotional connections could feasibly enhance the skill of getting others to follow. In Elaine McEwan's (2003) book, *10 Traits of Highly Effective Principals*, outlined are ten traits of effective principals. These traits (communicator, educator, envisioner, facilitator, change master, culture builder, activator, producer, character builder, and contributor) are closely aligned with emotional intelligence competencies discussed in Chapter 2, which further suggests that emotional intelligence may be closely related to principal performance.

In *Breaking Ranks II*, published by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (2004), the authors maintain that an effective principal will be able to recognize his own strengths and weakness while assessing the strengths and weakness of his or her team. Furthermore, the report suggests that all leadership styles are flawed, and principals should understand the shortcomings of their predominant leadership style. The particular leadership styles mentioned that are inherently flawed are, surprisingly, visionary leadership, technocratic leadership, and sympathetic leadership. Instead, *Breaking Ranks II* recommends that principals use a combination of styles in order to be effective.

The principalship is a broad leadership role. In the context of a single school, a principal must lead personnel, manage school facilities, be an instructional leader, and communicate clearly with the entire school community. In the larger realm of a school district or state, each principal has varying responsibilities that require different abilities and skills dependent on the individual needs of each school. Developing good leadership skills has become much more important in recent years because of the increase in federal and state accountability. Reforms such as the No Child Left Behind Act have put pressure on schools and the principals who lead them to perform at high levels in all student demographic areas, or risk federal sanctions.

In the State of Texas, principals desire to see their campuses rated in Texas Education Agency's (TEA) highest categories. The four rating categories are Exemplary, Recognized, Acceptable, and Low-Performing. The rating a school receives is primarily dependent on the school's performance on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS). The definition of an effective school, at least in the public's eye, is often driven by the TEA rating a school receives. Therefore, leading an effective school requires a principal to, among other responsibilities, employ strategies to increase the TAKS passing rate.

Although a school's TEA rating may help categorize effective schools, the rating alone does little to define an effective school. Much of the research in the last decade has focused on professional learning communities as the cornerstone of effective school practices. Dufour (2005) maintains that the essence of schools functioning as professional learning communities is based on the premises of ensuring that all students learn, building a culture of collaboration, and focusing on results. Principals

implementing professional learning communities must “shape a school or school system’s structure and culture in ways that promote learning, collaboration, and environments in which all members of the community feel cared for and respected” (Sparks, 2005, p. 157). In addition, emotional intelligence writer Goleman (1995) states organizations are effective “when people come together to work as a group, each brings certain talents – say, a high verbal fluency, creativity, empathy, or technical expertise” (p. 160). Due to the high level of interaction required in schools functioning as professional learning communities, one may suggest that principals need to possess a strong set of interpersonal skills and social abilities in order to be an effective leader.

### Purpose of the Study

Although some attention has been given to researching the relationship between personality and emotional intelligence of principals in general, there has been little research relating personality and emotional intelligence of principals to school effectiveness. If there is such a connection, a superintendent might be able to place principals with certain social competencies in schools that need vast improvement.

The purpose of this study was to evaluate how principals relate to the school community environment around them to create a successful school. Two social relatedness dimensions of the principal were studied. First, I examined the relationship between principals’ personality traits to determine if there are any significant relationships with building strong professional learning communities. The personality dimension was based on the Marston’s model of personality (Marston, 1928; Inscape Publishing, 1996b). The use of personality studies have increased recently in

educational human resource development. The reasoning behind this increase is that principals and teachers want to improve school culture and need a framework for working with those around them. Personality inventories can provide the needed framework (Cox, 2002). Teachers have also used personality inventories to discover their own personality in order to bring out their strengths with students (DiRusso, Carney, & Byran, 1995). Most recent studies have examined the relationship between principals' personality and school effectiveness focused on how people respond attitudinally to their environment and the modes of information processing they use. In this study, personality was in terms of how principals respond emotionally to their environment as measured by the DiSC Classic (Inscape Publishing, 1996a). This instrument is described in greater detail in Chapters 2 and 3.

Second, the principal's level of emotional intelligence was measured. Although emotional intelligence, with its impact on organizational climate and leadership, has been heavily researched in the past decade, there has been little connection made to educational administration and school reform (Allen, 2003). McDowelle and Buckner (2002) assert that emotional intelligence may be a neglected piece of effective school leadership. Lees and Barnard (1999) suggest that effective school leadership is directly tied to emotional intelligence. Their findings indicate higher student achievement and greater teacher job satisfaction were positively correlated with a high level of headmaster emotional intelligence.

## Statement of the Problem

There are many conflicting views of how personality traits, emotional intelligence, or both affect successful school leadership. Some studies reveal school leadership effectiveness can be correlated to certain personality types (Penny, 1996; Sencibaugh, 1996). Other studies claim emotional intelligence has a strong relationship with effective school leadership (Allen, 2003; Barent, 2005; Reed, 2005; Cook, 2006). This research study examined the relationship between two dimensions of a principal's social relatedness, personality and emotional intelligence, and his/her ability to facilitate strong professional learning communities on the respective campuses.

## Research Questions

Through the process of comparing personality type and emotional intelligence to effective implementation of professional learning communities by principals, this study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What can be revealed about the personalities of principals who effectively implement professional learning communities?
2. What role does a principal's emotional intelligence level play in successful implementation of professional learning communities?
3. Do certain personality types and/or levels of emotional intelligence predispose principals to be more successful at implementing professional learning communities?

## Theoretical Framework

This section introduces a framework for effective school leadership related to personality and emotional intelligence. Although the purpose of this study was to examine the role personality and emotional intelligence plays in effective leadership, one must understand the historical and current theories of leadership. First, a distinction between leadership, management, and administration must be made. Matthews (1994) explains that leadership is “giving purpose and direction for individual and group processes” (p. 11). Management focuses on the efficient use of time, financial resources, facilities, and personnel; administration is responsible for both effective leadership and proper management (Bennis & Nanus, 2003).

### *Theories of Leadership*

Principals need to be good leaders and managers if they are to be successful. Since this study is primarily focused on the principal as a leader, seminal and recent leadership theories should frame the research questions. Leadership qualities are universal and can transcend the disciplines of education, business, health, government, or any other field. Early theories of leadership focused on what is commonly thought of management today. Frederick Taylor was concerned with how efficiently organizations could operate. His theory of scientific management view people as part of the machine, or bureaucracy (Taylor, 1947). Although his work has shaped how many organizations operate, it does not provide an adequate explanation of leadership.

Mary Follett (1924) criticized Taylor’s views and suggested that human factors should be considered in organizational theory. She believed an individual’s traits played

an important part in how leaders should manage an organization. Conflicts caused by individual personalities are a “normal process by which socially valuable differences register themselves for the enrichment of all concerned” (p. 300). Her theories of human relations spawned many of the contemporary leadership theories today.

One of the first theorists to claim leaders are subjected to particular styles was Douglas McGregor. His Theory X and Theory Y (autocratic and democratic style, respectively) were dependent on how a leader viewed his or her employees (McGregor, 1960). Simply, his theories merged the thinking of Taylor and Follett. However, a leader’s style may actually shape a follower’s behavior in such a way that supports the leader’s continued use of that style. In other words, an autocratic style could cause people in an organization to become accustomed to their opinions and beliefs being undervalued, and thus causing them to become passive. This creates the need for further autocratic leadership.

Transactional and transformational leadership styles were defined by Burns (1978) to describe how a leader interacts with the people in an organization. Transactional leadership is based on defining needs and tasks while rewarding compliant behavior. People in such an organization are willing to trust a leader who will make decisions for them. Transformational leaders develop followers’ decision-making skills instead of directing them in everyday tasks. Transformational leadership, according to Burns, increases the collective capacity of the organization.

None of the above-mentioned theories, however, consider a leader’s natural tendencies. Fred Fielder (1967) suggested that the effectiveness of a leader depends on any given situation. The maturity level of the follower and the style of leadership are

the two major factors in his theory. Immature followers need autocratic leaders while mature followers thrive under democratic leadership. He also suggested that leadership style is personality-driven, one of the key research questions in this study. Because leadership is directly related to one's personality, leadership style cannot be changed. Good administrators find correct matches between leaders and followers in order to run an effective organization. Hersey and Blanchard (2000) agree leadership is situational, but does not believe a person is predisposed to a particular style. On the other hand, they assert good leadership is the result of a leader adapting the techniques he or she uses dependent on the competency level and motivation of the follower.

### *Theories of Personality*

If style is the outward practices of a leader, then personality is the inward emotions of a leader. Personality theory is rooted deep in psychology. Two theorists in the areas of personality traits are Carl Jung and William Marston. Jung (1957) sought to explain why people differ from one another by identifying fundamental personality traits. His work led to the development of the popular personality inventory, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). The MBTI and Jung's personality theories are used to help individuals understand and recognize underdeveloped behavioral strategies. The assumption is made that people can modify their personality to become more effective in their relations with others. Some research studies have used the MBTI to investigate the possible link between personality traits and leadership style. These studies are discussed in more detail in Chapter 2.

I am less interested in underdeveloped behavior techniques than investigating the natural emotional responses of a leader in the context of his or her environment. Marston's theory of personality is more suited for the purpose of framing this study's research questions. He sought to explain how people adjust to their environment based on their emotions and to find practical explanations which would help people understand their response to real-world situations (Marston, 1928).

Marston's theory is based on two principles. First, he suggested that individuals interact with their environment in terms of favorability. He defined favorability as how a person feels supported by his or her environment. People can choose to react positively or negatively in response to the level of favorability. Secondly, an individual's behavioral response to a situation is dependent on how much power the person has in relation to the supportiveness of the environment. These two factors create four possible emotional responses:

1. The "dominant" response will act on an environment perceived as unfavorable (high power, low favorability).
2. The "influential" response will act on an environment perceived as favorable (high power, high favorability).
3. The "steadiness" response will accommodate an environment perceived as favorable (low power, high favorability).
4. The "conscientious" response will accommodate an environment perceived as unfavorable (low power, low favorability) (Marston, 1928).

His work, like Jung's, led to the development of a personality inventory called the DiSC Classic. The DiSC instrument assesses the four primary emotions previously described

to determine one's personality profile. More information on this instrument can be found in Chapters 2 and 3.

### *Theories of Emotional Intelligence*

Emotional intelligence was a term that was made popular in the mid-1990s by Daniel Goleman. Although emotional intelligence theory has a sound scientific foundation, it has been adopted by popular, mainstream psychology, frequently misunderstood, and poorly defined. Other than its popular definition, emotional intelligence theory is often viewed in one of two frameworks – as personality or as mental ability (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000a).

There is some debate on how to distinguish personality from emotional intelligence. Goleman (1995) leaves little distinction between the two and uses emotional intelligence to describe motivation, self-awareness, recognizing emotions, and behavior. Another definition of emotional intelligence given by Bar-On (1997) is the “capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures” (p. 14). Both of these definitions exhibit components that are generally agreed to be in the broader realm of personality and not entirely focused on mental ability (Mayer, 1995; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000b). Such personality-based definitions of emotional intelligence “may be more of a distraction than a clarification” (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000a, p. 105).

An ability-based model of emotional intelligence is one that will be adopted for this study. Developed by Mayer & Salovey (1990), this model defines emotional intelligence as a set of abilities that perceives and expresses emotion, assimilates

emotion into thought, reasons with emotion, and regulates emotions in self and in others. The key distinction between the Mayer and Salovey model and that of Bar-On and Goleman is the elimination of personality dispositions and traits. By using an ability-based definition of emotional intelligence and separating it from personality, the research questions have a greater likelihood of showing what connection, if any, exists between the individual concepts of personality and emotional intelligence, and their relationship to leadership effectiveness in the facilitation of professional learning communities.

#### Definition of Terms

In order to provide a common understanding of the terms used in this study, it is necessary to define the following:

- Effective school – a campus demonstrating the seven effective school correlates developed by Lezotte (2002) through continuous learning and improvement. The seven correlates are 1) instructional leadership, 2) clear and focused mission, 3) safe and orderly environment, 4) climate of high expectations, 5) frequent monitoring of student progress, 6) positive home-school relations, and 7) opportunity to learn and time on task.
- Emotional intelligence – the ability to process emotional information, particularly as it involves the perception, assimilation, understanding, and management of emotion (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).
- Leadership style – the outward expression of practices and techniques a leader uses in order to achieve the goals of his or her organization.

- Personality type – the inward emotional response to the environment one has evidenced by his or her behavior.
- Professional learning community – a group of educators who, through the process of collaboration and focusing on results, ensure all students learn. Educators functioning as a professional learning community commonly define what students should learn, how it will be measured, and what will be done to improve on the current level of achievement (DuFour, DuFour, Eaker, & Many, 2006).

#### Limitations

There were a few limitations in this study which may have affected my ability to reach more generalized conclusions. First, because of the definition chosen for effective schools, this study was limited to schools who have established strong professional learning communities. Many school administrators, though having professional learning communities on their campuses, may not have felt they were strong enough to be included in a research study. This led to a low participation rate for principals. Lastly, the surveys and instruments used are copyrighted and placed a financial limitation on sampling a large number of principals.

#### Delimitations

This study was delimited in length, location, and participant selection. Specifically, the study occurred during the summer and fall of 2007 and only included schools in Texas. There were two rounds of participant selection. In the first round, I

administered the Professional Learning Community Assessment (PLCA) to 13 schools. The selection of these schools was opened to recommendation. Based on the PLCA scores, two schools were selected from the original participants for further study of principal personality and emotional intelligence. In addition to high PLCA scores, the principals of these schools were required to have worked in their current position for a minimum of three years, and the selected schools were equivalent in grade levels.

### Significance of the Study

This study has the potential to contribute new information to the practice of educational administration. If such no connection exists, then a generalization could be reached that personality types and emotional intelligence are unrelated to a principal's ability to form strong professional learning communities. That could mean that anyone who has been given the proper training and experience, notwithstanding other factors, may be an effective principal. However, if there is a correlation, one may conclude that person who has a certain personality type or level of emotional intelligence may be predisposed to be an effective or ineffective principal in building a campus around strong professional learning communities.

### Organization of the Study

This study followed the traditional dissertation formation. Chapter 2 outlines research conducted in the area of personality types and emotional intelligence and its relation to effective schools and leadership. Chapter 3 describes the methodology employed to study the possible predominance of certain personality types and levels of

emotional intelligence among principals of effective schools. Chapter 4 illustrates the results and analysis of the data collected. Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the results, draws possible generalizations, and makes recommendations for further study.

## CHAPTER 2

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### Introduction

Although the field of research on emotional intelligence has broadened over the last decade, the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership ability is yet to be fully discovered. Furthermore, personality theories and models have been around for quite sometime in mainstream psychology but have been poorly understood or defined until recently. Very few studies have been conducted on the connections between principal leadership effectiveness and the level of his or her emotional intelligence and/or personality type. This review of literature includes (1) a framework for the context of the problem, (2) current understanding and research in the field of emotional intelligence as related to the workplace and demographics, (3) connections between emotional intelligence and leadership ability, (4) current understanding and research on personality, (5) the connections between personality and leadership, (6) the relationship between personality and emotional intelligence, (7) school effectiveness as defined by a campus functioning as a strong professional learning community, and (8) the value of this research.

#### Context of the Problem

Despite the recent popularity of emotional intelligence and personality, there has yet to be a standard and universally-accepted definition. Many models and theories of emotional intelligence and personality are plentiful. It is helpful to imagine personality

and emotional intelligence as two independent spheres. Some theories significantly overlap the personality and emotional intelligence spheres to a point that emotional intelligence and personality are nearly a function of one another (Goleman, 1995; Bar-On, 2000). However, there is not a full overlap between personality and emotional intelligence, and the Goleman and Bar-On emotional intelligence models describe other mental-abilities that are not associated with moods, dispositions, or emotional expression. These theories include both mental skills (adaptability, self-awareness, and problem solving) and personality traits (happiness, optimism, and assertiveness). The emotional intelligence models of Goleman and Bar-On are often referred to as mixed models.

Salovey and Mayer (1993) are credited with the development of a model of emotional intelligence that is separated from personality traits and focuses strictly on mental abilities. Such mental abilities include perception and expression of emotion, assimilation of emotion, analyzing emotions, and emotional regulation (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000b). They argue that separating personality dispositions from emotional abilities would allow them to analyze emotional intelligence to the degree it independently contributed to a person's behavior overall life competence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The adoption of this definition of emotional intelligence allows it to be viewed as a true intelligence that meets three empirical criteria. First, an ability-based model allows for right and wrong answers to emotional challenges. Second, mental abilities are measurable and can be correlated to other mental abilities. Third, absolute mental ability level tends to increase with age (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000b).

The Mayer and Salovey model is built around four levels of emotional intelligence, and each level contains a number of discrete emotional abilities. These levels are:

1. Perception and expression of emotion. This level is the most basic and involves the identification and expression of emotions in one's physical states, feelings, and thought in addition to recognizing emotional expression in other people.
2. Assimilating emotion in thought. The ability allows people to weigh emotions against one another and allows emotion to direct and prioritize attention. At this level, emotions also aid in memorization by tying specific emotions with specific events.
3. Understanding and analyzing emotion. This level addresses how people are able to label emotions, recognize why they occur, and how to reason with the complexity of emotions and simultaneous feelings. In addition, there is an ability to understand relationships associated with shifts of emotion.
4. Reflective regulation of emotion. The highest level of emotional intelligence, this level deals with the ability to stay open to feelings and reflectively monitor and regulate emotions that promote emotional and intellectual growth. (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 11)

Largely due to the competing models of emotional intelligence (mixed models developed by Goleman & Bar-On and the ability-based model developed by Mayer & Salovey), the key issue quickly becomes what part, if any, does personality play in predicting outcomes? For instance, Goleman (1995) referred to a study of Bell Laboratory engineers in which the top performers had a greater emotional intelligence

despite have the same IQ as lower performing engineers. This seems to be a great claim in support of emotional intelligence being a predictor of success. Goleman also states that if IQ predicts 20% of personal success, then emotional intelligence can fill the 80% gap. However, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000b) argue such extravagant claims “appear to fly in the face of our existing research base” (p. 104). Due to a large overlap between personality types and emotional intelligence in Goleman and Bar-On’s model, it is necessary to differentiate between the two in order to determine which factor has a greater influence in predicting success. In this case, success is defined by the principal’s ability to effectively implement and lead professional learning communities within his or her campus.

### Current Research on Emotional Intelligence

Since the inception of emotional intelligence, the field has been applied to almost every imaginable situation that deals with human relationships and social situations. The purpose of this section is to review those current studies that have yielded significant findings and have application to this study. Despite the popular nature of emotional intelligence in mainstream psychology, there is sound evidence for its inclusion as an actual intelligence. However, some researchers claim that there can be no correct answers to emotional intelligence tests, such tests only measure the conformity of a person to a social group, and emotional intelligence does not qualify to be a real intelligence (Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001). Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, and Sitarenios (2001) strongly argue against this claim and states that they were incorrect in their analysis. Viewing emotional intelligence as a standard intelligence that

is positively correlated to positive outcomes at school, home, and work is found in many other studies (Brackett, 2001; Formica, 1998; Rubin, 1999).

One recent study suggested the level of emotional intelligence, even after controlling for personality types and traits, played a significant role in predicting everyday behavior. Lopes, Mayer, and Warner (2003) found males with low levels of emotional intelligence were more likely to exhibit harmful behaviors such as using illegal drugs, drinking alcohol excessively, and engaging in deviant behavior. Furthermore, the male subjects also had trouble establishing meaningful relationships and positive social interactions. People with high emotional intelligence generally solve problems with less effort compared to those with lower emotional intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000b). Emotional intelligence and verbal intelligence also seem to have a positive correlation (Barent, 2005).

To completely understand the current research on emotional intelligence, one should have knowledge of the models and instruments used to assess it. There are three commonly used instruments that assess emotional intelligence based on the two predominate theories on emotional intelligence. Bar-On developed the EQ-i which is intended to measure his mixed-model of emotional intelligence. The EQ-i is divided in five sections measuring intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, stress management, adaptability, and general mood. It is important to again note that this assessment measures both mental abilities and personality dispositions (Bar-On, 1997). Goleman has also developed a similar assessment based on his mixed-model known as the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Hay McBer, 1999).

Another assessment used to measure emotional intelligence is the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). This assessment, like their model, measures mental abilities, not personality, and is based on the four components of the aforementioned model. The most recent edition, the MSCEIT Version 5.0, measures the four emotional intelligence abilities designing questions that are either right or wrong. The authors of the MSCEIT assert that the instrument is objective, ability-based, correlates with existing intelligences, and scores increase with age (Mayer & Geher, 1996). By keeping emotional intelligence limited to an ability-based definition, it is possible to analyze the degree to which an individual's emotional intelligence level contributes to his or her behavior. Research using the MSCEIT further suggests there is a notable difference between it and the EQ-i in that each instrument accurately reflects and measures their respectable models (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). More detailed information on the MSCEIT will be given in Chapter 3.

### *Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace*

Linking emotional intelligence to workplace performance is a leading area of research in worker productivity and effectiveness. One of the most extensive studies on performance involved the effectiveness of 1,171 United State Air Force recruiters. These recruiters were divided into high-performing groups (those who met or exceeded 100% of their recruiting goals) and low-performing groups (those who met less than 80% of their recruiting goals). An EQ-i was administered to the recruiters, and the results indicated the EQ-i instrument predicted 28% of the variance in the performance between the two groups. The EQ-i correctly classified 81% of the recruiters in the high-

performing and low-performing groups. Furthermore, recruiters with high levels of emotional intelligence had a greater ability to place recruits in positions that closely matched their knowledge and skills (Bar-On, Handley, & Fund, 2006).

Emotional intelligence, however, affects more than the individual's performance and can be correlated to group productivity. Group emotional intelligence can be analyzed in two ways – by examining each individual's contribution to the team and the interaction within the team as a whole. By doing so, one can understand both the emotional resources available for teamwork and how teams manage the collective dynamics of the group's members (Elfenbein, 2006). Teams whose members collectively have a higher-than-average level of emotional intelligence score higher on tests of team psychological safety, collaborative decision making, team training and improvement, and lower on levels of group conflict. In contrast, teams that have a high level of variability in emotional intelligence suffer negative consequences such as conflict and member attrition (Elfenbein & Ambady, 2002).

Some scholars' models on group performance seem to be in conflict with Elfenbein's framework and suggest that focusing solely on emotional intelligence within a team is detrimental to performance. For instance Michel and Jehn (2006) claim that social intelligence, as defined as effective adaptation to the social context, is a better predictor of team effectiveness. Their study of two banks' employees revealed very different personal attributes in regards to social relations. Employees of the less-effective, first bank could elaborate extensively on their personal emotional abilities while employees of the highly-effective second bank had great difficulty at verbalizing their self-concept. However, the employees at the second bank were much more

situational in their responses to the researcher's questions. They rarely used the term "I" or spoke of their strengths and weaknesses, unlike the employees of the first bank. Michel and Jehn claim that emotional intelligence is only one part of a larger social intelligence model. Their model combines self-awareness with self-regulation in a concrete situation.

The development of a group-level emotional intelligence model helps combine and compliment the findings Elfenbien's research with that of Michel and Behn. This model, proposed by Druskat and Wolff (2001) is based on the assumption that teams are greater than the sum of its individuals, and member emotional intelligence alone cannot manage group dynamics. They argue that the group as a whole must be aware of and effectively manage emotion within the established social norms. The team norms, nine of which are defined, provide an emotional structure for the group's interaction with one another (Wolff, Druskat, Koman, & Messer, 2006). In other words, a team's effectiveness and sustainability depends on the strength of the social norms developed by the emotional intelligence contribution each member makes.

### *Emotional Intelligence, Gender, and Age*

Bar-On (1997) suggests that there are "no significant differences between males and females in overall emotional intelligence" (p. 93) based on a correlational study between age and gender and scores on the EQ-i. In a similar study, older groups scored significantly higher than younger groups, suggesting emotional intelligence can increase with age (Bar-On & Handley, 1997). However, Allen (2003) indicates female

principals tend to slightly outscore male principals on the EQ-i by one-half of a standard deviation, but there is no significant difference between principals' age and EQ-i scores.

Other studies also suggest females score higher than males on tests of emotional intelligence (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Mayer & Geher, 1996). Women have been found to display more complexity and articulate their emotional experience more than men, even after controlling for verbal intelligence (Barrett, Lane, Sechrest, & Schwartz, 2000). Lopes, Salovey, and Straus (2003) confirm this finding and suggest higher emotional intelligence in women may be linked to mother-child interactions where female children tend to receive greater emotional expression from their mothers than male children. The part of the brain designated for emotional processing may also be larger in women (Gur, Gunning-Dixon, Bilker, & Gur, 2002). However, women are more likely to be perceived negatively in the leadership role when compared to men when women do not use their emotional abilities and act as autocratic leaders, typically a male stereotype, rather than as democratic leaders (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992). More interestingly, women more often underestimate their emotional intelligence, whereas men overestimate (Petrides & Furnham, 2000).

### *Emotional Intelligence and Education*

Educational administrators and policymakers have shown much excitement over the potential impact that the understanding and development of emotional intelligence in students can have on academic achievement. For instance, a group of curriculum leaders proclaim that emotional intelligence is the integrative concept underlying successful learning (Elias, Zins, Weissberg, Frey, Greenberg, Haynes, Kessler,

Schwab-Stone, & Shiver, 1997). Pool (1997) states that, “emotional intelligence predicts about 80% of a person’s success in life” (p. 12). Stufft (1996) implies that low emotional intelligence is directly related to disciplinary problems, and educators should target students with poor discipline in order to strengthen their emotional intelligence.

However, Mayer and Cobb (2000) caution educators on making the link between emotional intelligence and educational success too quickly. They point out that much of the research conducted on education and emotional intelligence was based more on personality traits, or a broad mixed-model of emotional intelligence, than on the ability-based model. Mayer and Cobb maintain the importance of viewing learners as both cognitive and emotional beings, but much research is yet to be done on education and emotional intelligence.

### Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

The emergence of emotional intelligence has helped reshape and redefine effective leadership. Before the concept of emotional intelligence came about in the 1990s, definitions of effective leadership often included many of the characteristics found in the emotional intelligence models of Goleman, Bar-On, and Mayer-Salovey (Maudling, 2002; Hartley, 2004). When speaking of leadership and its relation to emotional intelligence, a distinction between leadership and management must be made. Management is focused on specific tasks or functions; leadership is influencing of other to achieve common goal (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2000; Yukl, Wall, & Lepsinger, 1990). Although leaders need more than emotional intelligence to be successful, it can help facilitate the process by which effective leaders influence others

(Caruso, Salovey, & Mayer, 2003). Based on their emotional intelligence model, Mayer and Salovey (1997) identify four areas in which leaders need to be proficient. Effective leaders are able to identify emotions in others, use emotions to motivate others, understand the source and reason of others' emotions, and manage emotions within themselves.

Using these four dimensions as a framework, evidence can be found in the literature to support each of these claims from Mayer and Salovey. Church (1997) found that high-performing managers had greater levels of self-awareness than average-performing managers. The leader's ability to spread emotions within a group, known as emotional contagion, can improve group collaboration and reduce conflict (Barasade & Gibson, 1998). Hersey and Blanchard (1988) claim that the ability to "get along with people" (p. 4) is more important than "intelligence, decisiveness, knowledge, or job skills" (p. 4). Furthermore, the regulation of the leader's emotion so that positive emotions are primarily displayed perpetuates positive employee moods and increased productivity (George, 1995; Friedman, Riggio, & Casella, 1988).

According to Barach and Eckhardt (1996): "Leadership, which embraces the emotional side of directing organizations, pumps life and meaning into management structures, bringing them to life" (p. 4). Due to the social complexity of today's organizations, Dearborn (2002) suggests managers with high emotional intelligence may be more capable of getting more output from less people and recognizing the nuances of dynamic situations while creating positive outcomes. Elias, Arnold, and Hussey (2003) claim effective leadership is a combination of traditional intelligence (IQ) and emotional intelligence (EQ). They compare IQ to the raw material of knowledge and

EQ to the ability to turn knowledge into action. Those leaders who possess a strong set of interpersonal skills and can distinguish what approach is best to use for any given situation are most likely to be successful in their positions (Dyer, 2001). Such skills needed for effective leadership include empathy, heightened awareness, insight, and the ability to give feedback (Bass, 1985).

Although not addressing emotional intelligence specifically, Bennis (1999) claims that, “exemplary leaders will be distinguished by the mastery of the softer side: people skills, taste, judgment, and, above all, character” (p. 3). There is a widespread belief among many researchers that there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. Leaders with high levels of emotional intelligence positively apply social skills to influence others, create strong relationships with clients and employees, and are effective motivators by controlling their emotions and understanding their weaknesses (Feldman, 1999; Noyes, 2001; Chastukhina, 2002). Barling, Slater, and Kelloway (2000) found that emotional intelligence is associated with transformational leadership while controlling for personal attributes. In a statistically significant study with 98 managers, Malek (2002) discovered that conflict resolution skills among leaders increase with emotional intelligence levels.

Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) strongly assert there is a connection between emotional intelligence and leadership. They proposed six leadership styles that are dependent on the person’s emotional intelligence profile. These six styles (coercive, visionary, affiliative, democratic, pacesetter, and coaching) are determined by the “mix” of emotional intelligence competencies one possesses. Coercive and pacesetter leadership styles tend to be negative influences on organizational climate while

visionary, affiliative, democratic, and coaching style are positive leadership styles. While they believe that maximum development in every dimension of emotional intelligence is not necessary for effective leadership, it is necessary for leaders to have the ability to draw specific competences from each dimension.

### Current Understanding of Personality

The concept of personality is very broad and many theorists have attempted to quantify it and apply various forms of taxonomy (Engler, 2006). It is important to note again that personality is integrated into the emotional intelligence mixed-models of Goleman and Bar-On. Due to this, I have chosen to separate emotional intelligence and personality and adopt the emotional intelligence framework of Mayer and Salovey. Doing so may make it possible to form better questions and clearer definitions that drive this study.

Most models of personality usually employ four or five broad dimensions. Although many researchers and personality theorists use different names for these dimensions, the language descriptions of these dimensions tend to hold constant which allows for a general taxonomy of personality to be applied (John & Srivastava, 2001). The most common taxonomy of personality is known as the Big Five. The Big Five is not a model developed by one theorist, but derived out of an overall collection of personality research. The foundational work of the five trait theory of personalities primarily comes from the work of Allport and Odbert (1936), Norman (1963), and Cattell (1945). Saucier and Goldberg (1998) claim that nearly all models of personality can be classified among the five major dimensions. These dimensions are as follows:

1. Openness – appreciation for art, adventure, new ideas, and imagination
2. Conscientiousness – tendency to show self-discipline and aim for achievement
3. Extraversion – social energy and the desire to seek the company of others
4. Agreeableness – tendency to be compassionate and cooperative toward others
5. Neuroticism – tendency to easily experience negative feelings such as anger, anxiety, or depression (Digman, 1997).

Although closely related to the Big Five, other personality theorists have developed four-dimensional models. Two of these models, as discussed earlier in Chapter 1, were developed by Jung (1957) and Marston (1928). Jung's work laid the foundation for the development of the Myer-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) in 1944. McRae and Costa (1989) correlated the MBTI to the Big Five model and found a high level of correlation with the exception of the Neuroticism factor which is absent from the MBTI. Similarly, the DiSC instrument used in this study is based on Marston's work and has a strong connection to the Big Five model with the absence of the Openness and Neuroticism factors (Inscape Publishing, 1996b). Twenty-seven of the 112 (23%) description words in the DiSC are found in the core list used in the Big Five model (John, 1990).

DiSC is an acronym for four dimensions of Marston's personality theory - dominance, influence, steadiness, and conscientiousness (The small "i" in DiSC is a trademark symbol of Inscape Publishing). These four dimensions are determined by the possible combinations of perceived power and favorability in the environment as

discussed in Chapter 1 (Inscape Publishing, 1996b). The following paragraphs are a description of each dimension.

Dominance reflects how one shapes the environment by overcoming opposition to accomplish results in an organization. The tendencies of person strong in this dimension include getting immediate results, causing action, accepting challenges, making quick decisions, questioning the status quo, and taking authority. There is a strong correlation between this dimension and the Extraversion factor of the Big Five. Influence is also correlated with the Extraversion factor, but is separated in Marston's theory. This dimension emphasizes a person's tendency to shape the environment by influencing or persuading others through making favorable impressions, being articulate, motivating others, generating enthusiasm, entertaining people, and seeking participation in the decision-making process (Inscape Publishing, 1996b & 2001).

Steadiness reflects the level at which a person cooperates with others within the current environment to carry out a task. People that score high in this dimension perform tasks in a predictable manner, demonstrate patience, develop specialized skills, help others, show loyalty, calm excited people, and create a stable work environment. This dimension is nearly directly correlated to Agreeableness in the Big Five. Finally, Conscientiousness emphasizes a person's ability to work carefully within existing circumstances to ensure quality and accuracy. These people adhere to standards and policies, concentrate on details, think analytically, are diplomatic with other people, use an indirect approach to conflict, check for accuracy, and are systematic in their approach. There is a correlation to the Conscientiousness factor of the Big Five (Inscape Publishing, 1996b & 2001).

The DiSC personality profile does not measure the Openness and Neuroticism factors of the Big Five. Openness represents a person's willingness to learn. Although some of the Openness descriptors appear in other areas of DiSC, there is no broad assumption in this area in Marston's theory (Marston, 1928). Furthermore, DiSC does not include Neuroticism, the mental stability of a person. However, there are two descriptors – calm and contented – that appear in the Steadiness dimension of DiSC (Inscape Publishing, 1996b & 2001).

### Personality and Educational Leadership

The research data in the literature addressing the connection between personality and leadership effectiveness offers mixed conclusions. Many studies do not mention personality directly, but instead use leadership behavior as a research variable. These studies are considered valuable due to the related nature of the behaviors and the model of personality discussed previously. Many of the descriptors of leadership behaviors (such as using a democratic style or communicating a clear vision) found in the literature are directly correlated to one of the personality factors of the Big Five.

Yeager (2005) conducted a study with 351 high school principals in Texas investigating the relationship between leadership behaviors and school effectiveness as defined by AEIS accountability ratings. The principals' behaviors were assessed using the Effective Urban School Principal Survey, and no significant relationship was shown to exist. Furthermore, there is no apparent relationship between principal personality type and the beliefs about curriculum and instruction (Cline, 1995). Bogler (1999) found that a principal's decision-making style does not contribute to teachers' job satisfaction

but the leadership behavior does. Principal personality has also been found to not be significantly related to teacher, student, or parent trust in the principal or school (Martin, 2004).

Other studies suggest that leadership behavior can have a positive impact on school effectiveness and the implementation of professional learning communities (Coleman, 2005; Maciel, 2005). Personality types based on the MBTI have been shown to have a relationship on the likelihood of elementary school principals engaging in shared-decision making, an effective school correlate (Matthewson, 1995; Marzano, 2003). Schultz (2005) found that teachers perceive principals with higher levels of emotional connectedness, as defined by Goleman's Emotional Competency Inventory, to be more effective. The most desired traits teachers have of their principals are optimism, empathy, developing others, service orientation, and inspirational leadership. Weisenbach (2004) conducted a statically significant study demonstrating the positive and negative relationship personality types can have on school climate. Although the model of personality used in her study was different than the one used here, it suggests that principals with highly dominant traits can create poor campus climate. Likewise, principals with open personalities can increase the overall positive climate. Loos (2001) suggests that it is important for principals to engage in meta-cognition and understand their personality type and the personalities of their teachers. Doing so will allow the principal to motivate, connect with, and place faculty more effectively within the organization.

## Personality and Emotional Intelligence

McCrae (2000) emphasizes the importance of emotional intelligence by suggesting, “if emotional intelligence consists of a particular combination of familiar personality traits, then it is possible to say a great deal about it from decades of research on personality” (p. 266). As previously noted, the personality and emotional intelligence models adopted for this study are independent from one another (Mayer, 1998; McCrae & Costa, 1999). However, even with the ability-based model of Mayer and Salovey, there exists some correlation between MSCEIT scores and the Big Five personality factors. The Managing Emotions dimension of the Mayer and Salovey model is, “correlated positively with Agreeableness and Conscientiousness, and negatively with Openness” (Lopes, Salovey, & Straus, 2003, p. 647). However, this correlation was modest and no other branch of the Mayer and Salovey model correlated to personality. This is further evidence of Ciarrochi, Chan, and Caputi’s (2000) discovery that emotional intelligence, as measured by the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Test (a precursor to the MSCEIT), exhibits little correlation with the personality factors. Rubin (1999) found that people with high emotional intelligence do exhibit stronger social behavior indicating a possible overlap with some personality descriptors.

Lopes, Salovey, and Straus (2003) indicate personality dispositions may be a reflection of a person’s ability to regulate emotions. This connection between emotional intelligence and personality is minimized when emotional intelligence is assessed through an ability test and personality is a survey of self-reflection. However, some critics question the validity of emotional intelligence measures, particularly the Bar-On EQ-i, claiming they have common characteristics with personality factors (Davies,

Stankov, & Roberts, 1998; Dawda & Lucas, 2000). McRae (2000) argues personality psychologists would expect a strong relation between the emotional intelligence and the five-factor model. There are empirical data that give evidence of this substantial overlap in the mixed-models of Goleman and Bar-On (Bar-On, 1997; Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, & Dornheim, 1998). Some researchers believe that the factor of Openness lends itself to intellectual development. One might hypothesize that people scoring high in Openness may have a greater ability to develop and improve their emotional intelligence (McCrae, 2000). Using the DiSC personality profile, which does not assess Openness, may help further decrease any possible correlation between emotional intelligence and personality by eliminating any advantage a high Openness dimensional score may have on one's emotional intelligence score.

### Professional Learning Communities

In this study, the level of principal emotional intelligence and personality type is being compared to school effectiveness. How then is school effectiveness defined? One way would be to look at the rating received from state agencies or student standardized test scores; however, this method is based on the assumption that school ratings and student test scores capture the entirety of student achievement and development. While a school's state rating or student test scores are great indicators of effectiveness, many would argue that they are the byproduct of a systematic structure known as a professional learning community. Hord (2004) characterizes professional learning communities as a process by which communication among teachers is common and their actions are shared and governed by norms focused on student achievement.

### *Impact on School Structure and Organization*

Lezotte (2005) claims that effective schools occur when all educators within the school are both involved and collaborate in the decision-making process. He advocates professional learning communities provide the framework for the research-based seven correlates of effective schools discussed in Chapter 1 (Lezotte, 2002). Newman, King, and Youngs (2000) suggest effective schools develop the capacity to develop teachers' skills, improve instructional quality, achieve a coherent focus, mobilize resources, and develop school leadership. DuFour (2005) defines this process as a professional learning community contributing to high performance by 1) ensuring all students learn, 2) fostering a culture of collaboration, and 3) focusing on results. Defining school effectiveness in terms of professional learning communities requires a way to accurately measure their implementation and utilization in a school. DuFour, DuFour, Eaker, and Many (2006) assert that members of a professional learning community engage in collective inquiry into best practices and current reality, commit to continuous improvement, and assess their efforts by the results, not by intentions. "Working together to build shared knowledge on the best way to achieve goals and meet the needs of clients is exactly what professionals in any field are expected to do" (p. 4).

Huffman (2003) differentiates the level of professional learning community maturity within a school by the degree which values and vision are commonly shared. She states:

Mature schools refer to communities that have purposefully developed a school culture over time based on clear goals, instructional strategies, student achievement, and outcomes. Less mature schools refer to

organizations that are beginning to develop the infrastructures and relationships to support school improvement. (p. 23)

This distinction in professional learning community development provides a framework from which school effectiveness for the purposes of this study may be defined.

Furthermore, Huffman suggests the principal's ability to engage all school stakeholders in the collaborative process is critical in professional learning community development.

Huffman and Hipp (2003) outline five critical dimensions of high-functioning professional learning communities. These five dimensions, modified from Hord (1997), are supportive and shared leadership, shared values and mission, collective learning and application, shared personal practice, and supportive conditions. Although these dimensions are independent of each other, there is a considerable interrelationship between them. Huffman and Hipp (2003) seem to validate the research questions in this study when they assert, speaking on the attribute of supportive conditions, that schools functioning as professional learning communities are "diligent in their efforts to increase trust and respect" and "provide emotional and tangible support among staff" (p. 57-58). They developed a model that characterizes the level at which schools are functioning as professional learning communities based on the five critical attributes. These stages are summarized in Figure 1.

<b>Administrator and Teacher Actions</b>	<b>School Phases of Development</b>		
	<b><i>Initiation</i></b>	<b><i>Implementation</i></b>	<b><i>Institutionalization</i></b>
Shared and Supportive Leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Nurturing leadership</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Shared power, authority and responsibility</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Broad-based decision making for commitment and accountability</li> </ul>
Shared Values and Vision	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Espoused values and norms</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Focus on students</li> <li>• High expectations</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Shared vision guides teaching and learning</li> </ul>
Collective Learning and Application	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Share information</li> <li>• Dialogue</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Collaboration</li> <li>• Problem solving</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Application of knowledge, skills, and strategies</li> </ul>
Shared Personal Practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Observation and encouragement</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Share outcomes of new practice</li> <li>• Provide feedback</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Analysis of student work</li> <li>• Coaching and mentoring</li> </ul>
Supportive Conditions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Caring relationships</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Trust and respect</li> <li>• Recognition and celebration</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Risk taking</li> <li>• Unified effort to embed change</li> </ul>

*Figure 1.* Phases of Professional Learning Community Development test. Adapted from Huffman and Hipp (2003, p. 25).

Similar to Huffman and Hipp, DuFour, DuFour, Eaker, and Many (2006) use a four-level continuum to describe the maturity of professional learning communities within a school. Brief descriptions of these levels are:

1. Pre-Initiation – The school has not yet begun to function as a professional learning community.
2. Initiation – An effort has been made to begin functioning as a professional learning community, but the majority of the school staff has not yet been impacted.
3. Developing – The majority of the school staff is now functioning as a professional learning community and measurable student learning begins to drive curricular and organizational decisions.

4. Sustaining – Professional learning communities are deeply embedded in the culture of the school and is the driving force of daily operation.

The authors argue school leaders must diagnose their current level of professional learning community strength and devise a plan of action to improve based on their mission, vision, values, and goals. This action plan must include the involvement of teachers, and it is the principal's responsibility to mentor these teachers to become leaders themselves throughout the campus. DuFour et al. (2006) state that a solid foundation for a professional learning community has been built "when teachers and administrators have worked together to consider those questions [of mission, vision, values, and goals] and reach consensus regarding their collective positions" (p. 23).

#### *Impact on Student Achievement*

Research indicates a connection between high-achieving schools and the implementation of professional learning communities. Through a comprehensive, four-year study involving 1500 schools of all levels, Newman and Wehlage (1995) generalized schools participating in shared decision-making, teacher teaming, and professional learning communities lead to improved student learning. Phillips (2003) discovered state achievement test scores significantly increased an urban middle school where professional learning communities were created as part of a reform effort. Hollins, McIntyre, DeBose, Hollins, and Towner (2004) also found greater success on achievement tests among elementary students whose teachers engaged in collaborative efforts to increase literacy acquisition and development for urban African-

American children. Strahan (2003) reported the number of elementary students performing at or above grade level in math and science increased in three, low-socioeconomic schools where teachers participated in professional learning communities. Reform efforts implementing collaborative teacher teams in the Cincinnati public schools suggest that only when teachers focused on instructional practices was there measurable gains in student learning (Supovitz, 2002).

Not all studies imply high student achievement is always a function of strong professional learning communities. Meehan and Crowley (2003) presented a study conducted by the Appalachia Research Laboratory where teacher perceptions from high and low-performing schools were evaluated with regards to the teachers' overall commitment continuous learning and improvement within the school. Using a questionnaire measuring teacher effectiveness, shared leadership, purposeful student assessment, shared goals, school community connections, and learning culture, they found high-performing schools with regard to student test scores cannot always be classified as high-performing professional learning communities. Meehan and Crowley found 13 cases in their study of 47 high-performing schools in Kentucky that consistently scored below the median on the Continuous School Improvement Questionnaire. However, schools with strong professional learning communities did consistently score higher on the faculty's commitment to continuous learning and improvement.

### *Principal Leadership in Professional Learning Communities*

The principal must be able to lead at every level within the school community – students, teachers, and community – in order to produce a high-achieving school (Marzano, 2003). Effective principals have been found to be the most important factor in determining school success (McCown, Arnold, Miles, & Haragadine, 2000). Sebring and Bryk (2000) reported that the Chicago Public School's gradual increase in student test scores over an eight-year period in the 1990s was strongly related to the principal's leadership. Schools whose principal was identified as engaging in effective practices had higher gains in standardized test scores than those who had ineffective leaders. They also identified the effective principals were easily accessible and willing to listen, demonstrated integrity, provided resources for teachers, and took a personal interest in his/her teachers. The nature of these principal leadership behaviors may suggest emotional intelligence can be an important factor.

Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) conducted a study in conjunction with the Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning (McREL) that identified 21 leadership behaviors, skills, and strategies that positively impact student achievement. Their findings, based on a quantitative analysis of 70 solid and significant studies on effective practices over a 30 year period, suggest the principal's competency in these 21 areas have a high correlation to overall school effectiveness when all other factors such as teacher ability and student socioeconomic background are controlled and normalized. Of these 21 leadership responsibilities, nearly half of them (fostering culture, situational awareness, communication, outreach, affirmation, collaborative input, change agent, ideals, flexibility, and intellectual stimulation) can be descriptors of

at least one of the four dimensions of the Mayer and Salovey (1997) emotional intelligence model.

The key factor building professional learning communities within a school is the principal's ability to foster their implementation and growth. Transforming a school into a professional learning community is accomplished when the principal interacts with teachers as a professional learning community (Hord, 1997). Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) state that one of the first steps in effective school leadership is the creation of a campus leadership team that includes representatives from all areas of the school community. Andrews and Lewis (2002) found teachers reported a greater level of legitimacy within a professional learning community when administrators were engaged in its facilitation. Wise (2004) also reminds educational leaders they should focus on teacher mentoring and ensure that all administrators and teachers are able to work together to accomplish goals.

Principals utilizing professional learning communities understand that "effective teamwork is fundamental to success" (Schmoker, 2006, p. 157). In a study of 81 principals and 81 assistant principals, Coleman (2005) discovered administrative teams utilizing both transactional and transformational leadership styles with the school environment is ideal for the development of professional learning communities, but points out empirical research on leadership style on professional learning community development is quite limited. Wagner (2001) proposes emotional intelligence can enhance an educational leader's ability to work collaboratively and establish professional learning communities. DuFour, as cited in Schmoker (2006), also suggests a relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership ability in a professional

learning community when he states (referring to Goleman's work): "sometimes it simply comes down to using the power of one's position to get people to act" (p. 145). Fleming and Thompson (2004) suggest the power of the principal's position in building a professional learning community is centered on his or her ability to recognize opportunities to build trust with the school staff.

Mitchell and Sackney (2006) agree the principal's skills play a key role in the development of professional learning communities. They found principals who led effective professional learning communities had an ability to "blend personal, interpersonal, and organizational insights into a deep understanding of existing levels of capacity for teaching and learning" (p. 632). Although their study did not identify a common leadership style among effective principals, they noted it is imperative that the principal maintains a high-level of engagement in the construction of a professional learning community. Fleming (2004) further builds the case for the importance of the principal's role in developing a professional learning community. In her study of three principals of high-achieving professional learning communities, she found they took on the responsibility of setting the context and had the ability to recognize situations in which the school staff could engage themselves in collegial problem solving. Establishing a strong personal connection with teachers and developing those relationships are key to successful components in professional learning communities (Morrissey & Cowan, 2004).

## Need for Current Study

This study has the potential to contribute to a new and growing body of knowledge surrounding professional learning communities. DuFour, Eaker, and Many (2006) have indicated the importance that professional learning communities play in effective schools, but there is much still to be discovered about how to best implement them. If it is the principal's responsibility to ensure that they are established and maintained, it would then be valuable to know which principals, based on their emotional intelligence and personality tendencies, have a greater likelihood of implementing them successfully. Schmoker (2006) and Wagner (2001) suggest that emotional intelligence may have a significant role to play. If such a relationship exists, human resources directors and superintendents may be able to select and place principals on campuses that have the greatest need for professional learning community implementation. Likewise, if there is no emotional intelligence or personality predisposition for effective school leadership, one can expect that a principal's knowledge of effective practices is sufficient enough to implement professional learning communities.

## Summary

This chapter has presented current theory and research in the areas of emotional intelligence, personality, and professional learning communities. This research frames the current problem of what relationship exists, if any, between the emotional intelligence and personality tendencies in principals and their ability to implement professional learning

communities. There has been little research conducted to study this possible relationship.

A key issue at the heart of this study is the difference between personality and emotional intelligence. The emotional intelligence models of Bar-On (2000) and Goleman (1995) integrate personality factors into their respective frameworks. However, the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model, considered an ability-based model, separates personality descriptors from its construct. By using the Mayer and Salovey model, it may be possible to determine the independent relationships between personality and emotional intelligence and a principal's ability to implement and maintain professional learning communities. People scoring high in emotional intelligence been shown to have greater productivity and stronger workplace relationships.

The predominate personality taxonomy, known as the Big Five, is reflected in many personality models such Jung (1957) and Marston (1928). The five factors are Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism. Marston's personality theory addresses three of the five factors (Conscientiousness, Extraversion, and Agreeableness) through the DiSC personality profile. The other two factors, Openness and Neuroticism, have been shown to have a slight correlation to the Mayer and Salovey emotional intelligence model. The relationship between personality types and leadership effectiveness is mixed and suggests the need for further research in this area.

Effective school leadership can arguably be defined as the principal's ability to implement and maintain professional learning communities (DuFour, 2005; Schmoker, 2006). A professional learning community is defined by DuFour as being a team of

educators that ensure all students learn, foster a culture of collaboration, and focus on results. Coleman (2005) and Hord (1997) suggest that the principal's role in the success of a professional learning community is important, but the most effective leadership style used by the principal to develop and maintain a professional learning community is unknown. Therefore, it is valuable to know what tendencies a principal may have, as defined by emotional intelligence levels and personality types, that can predict the possible success of professional learning communities within a school.

The next chapter, Chapter 3, introduces the research methods used in this study. Using this review of literature as a foundation, the research questions guided the means by which the relationship between a principal's emotional intelligence and personality and his or her ability to implement and develop professional learning communities were investigated. Chapter 3 also includes the design of the study, participants, instruments, and plan for data analysis.

## CHAPTER 3

### METHODOLOGY

#### Introduction

This chapter introduces the methods used to investigate the relationship between a principal's emotional intelligence and personality and his or her ability to implement and develop professional learning communities within the school. Discussed are: (1) the problem and purpose of the study, (2) design of the study, including participant selection and identification of variables, (3) instruments, (4) plan for data analysis, and (5) summary of methodology.

#### Problem and Purpose of Study

This research study examined the relationship between two dimensions of a principal's social relatedness, personality and emotional intelligence, and his/her ability to develop strong professional learning communities on the respective campuses. Through this investigation of comparing personality type and emotional intelligence to effective implementation of professional learning communities, this study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What can be revealed about the personalities of principals who effectively implement professional learning communities?
2. What role does a principal's emotional intelligence level play in successful implementation professional learning communities?

3. Do certain personality types and/or levels of emotional intelligence predispose principals to be more successful at implementing professional learning communities?

### Design of the Study

This study employed a qualitative research approach. Corbin and Strauss (2007) maintain that qualitative research allows a researcher to focus on the reasons behind behavior. Therefore, there is a need for small, focus samples rather than large, randomized samples. The qualitative method was selected for two key reasons. First, this approach allowed me to extensively investigate each participating principals' social relatedness, as defined by personality and emotional intelligence, within his or her school. Secondly, the number of schools that have solidly implemented professional learning communities was believed to be relatively low. It is unlikely that enough schools could have been found in order to apply inferential statistics to the population sample.

#### *Participant Selection*

Participants for this study were selected from north Texas area schools and included elementary, middle, and high schools. I selected two schools based on scores from the Professional Learning Community Assessment (PLCA) that indicated strong professional learning communities had been implemented (The PLCA is discussed later in this chapter).

To begin, the PLCA was mailed to multiple schools believed to have attributes of strong professional learning communities. This initial set of schools was identified by

accepting recommendations from colleagues, professors, and other educators within my professional network. The PLCA was accompanied by an informed consent form and a letter requesting the instrument be completed by the principal and three teachers on the campus (See Appendix A). Once returned, the scores on the instrument were combined and averaged for each campus in order to select the most qualified schools for this study. It was also required that each principal and teacher participating in the study have at least three consecutive years of experience on his or her current campus. It was not known at this time which level of schools would be selected for the study as it would primarily depend on the results of the PLCA.

Once the two principals were selected for the case studies, I administered the personality profile (DiSC) and emotional intelligence assessment (MSCEIT) to each principal. These assessments were conducted in person. I also used a question set to interview each participating principal and campus teachers to gain greater insight on how the principal has implemented and sustained professional learning communities in relation to the principal's behavior. The question set is discussed later in this chapter.

### *Variables*

The independent variable in this study was the level of professional learning community implementation as measured by the PLCA. The dependent variables were the emotional intelligence level and personality type of the principal as measured by the MSCEIT and DiSC, respectively. I attempted to control for school size, grade level, location, student demographics, and socioeconomic background by selecting sample schools with matching characteristics. Participant schools selected for this study had

populations of 467 and 640 students. Student demographics and socioeconomic background were controlled by employing a similar process the Texas Education Agency uses in determining campus groupings for the AEIS reports (Texas Education Agency, 2006). This process matches schools based on their percentage of students in selected special populations. For this study, the selected participant schools varied by no more than 20 percentage points in both total minority student population and socioeconomic student population according to the most recent AEIS report.

There are, however, many other variables that can affect professional learning community development either directly or indirectly. They include, but not limited to, the level of teacher leadership and efficacy, organizational values and beliefs, district and state accountability measures, professional development efforts, and the collective capacity of the school's faculty (Lezotte, 2005; Saphier, 2005; Sparks, 2005). DuFour, Eaker, and DuFour (2005) suggest that many of the above mentioned variables are functions of effective principal leadership. They state that principals in professional learning communities operate "from the premise that leadership should be widely dispersed throughout the school, and thus developing the leadership potential of all staff members is imperative" (p. 23).

## Instruments

### *Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)*

The MSCEIT measures four discrete levels of emotional intelligence. The four levels are (1) Perceiving Emotion, (2) Facilitating Thought, (3) Understanding Emotion, and (4) Managing Emotions. This instrument was selected because it, unlike other

emotional intelligence assessments, is based on mental abilities and does not correlate heavily with personality factors (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000b). The MSCEIT was administered in person. The two principals answered a set of 141 items and recorded his or her responses on an answer document. I then inputted the item responses into the MSCEIT V5.0 software for scoring.

The MSCEIT directs the respondent to select the appropriate emotion being displayed, solve situational problems within the context of a specific emotion, identify the causes of various emotions and moods, and establish ways to use emotion positively through personal interactions. The scores generated by the MSCEIT are similar to traditional intelligence scales. The mean MSCEIT score is 100 with a standard deviation of 15. A score of 115 is one standard deviation above the mean and is placed at the 84<sup>th</sup> percentile. A score of 85 is one standard deviation below the mean and is placed at the 16<sup>th</sup> percentile. The MSCEIT takes about 50 minutes to complete, is rated at a fourth-grade readability level, and scores are given in 90% confidence intervals to account for test variability. (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). According to Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, and Sitarenios (2003), the MSCEIT exhibits a strong reliability score for the full test ( $r = .93$ ). The MSCEIT also demonstrates discriminant validity with low correlations to the WAIS-III intelligence test ( $r = .15$ ) and Bar-On's EQ-i ( $r = .13$ ) (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso & Sitarenios, 2001). Pusey (2000) found that the MSCEIT has good construct validity and reported interrater reliability at  $r = .83$ , but raised some minor concerns about bias toward respondents who speak English as a second language.

Table 1 presents the reliabilities for the each of the MSCEIT branch scores based on expert scoring of the instrument and general population scoring. Table 2 presents the MSCEIT intercorrelation between branch and area scores.

Table 1

*Reliability of MSCEIT*

Branch Score	General Scoring Reliability	Expert Scoring Reliability
Total MSCEIT	.93	.91
1. Perceiving Emotions	.91	.90
2. Facilitating Emotions	.79	.76
3. Understanding Emotions	.80	.77
4. Managing Emotions	.83	.81

Note. From *MSCEIT User's Manual* (p. 35) by J. Mayer, P. Salovey, and D. Caruso, 2002, North Tonawanda, NY: Multi-Health Systems, Inc.

Table 2

*MSCEIT Intercorrelations among Branch and Area Scores*

	Branch 1	Branch 2	Branch 3	Branch 4	Strategic
Branch 1	<b>1.0</b>				
Branch 2	.54	<b>1.0</b>			
Branch 3	.30	.43	<b>1.0</b>		
Branch 4	.35	.50	.51	<b>1.0</b>	
Experimental					.51

Note. From *MSCEIT User's Manual* (p. 36) by J. Mayer, P. Salovey, and D. Caruso, 2002, North Tonawanda, NY: Multi-Health Systems, Inc.

A total of seven different scores are given in each individual score report: total emotional intelligence score, two area scores (Experimental and Strategic), and four branch scores (Perceiving Emotion, Facilitating Thought, Understanding Emotion, and Managing Emotions). Each area score is a combination of two branch scores.

Perceiving Emotion and Facilitating Thought branch scores are combined to create the Experimental area score. The Experimental area score can be used to explain the

capacity one has to feel and process emotion. Understanding Emotion and Managing Emotions branch scores are combined to create the Strategic area score. The Strategic area score involves the ability of one to act on and manage emotions productively (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2001).

### *DiSC Classic Personality Profile*

The DiSC Classic is based on Marston's two-axis, four-dimensional personality model. His model divides behavior into four dimensions: Dominance, Influence, Steadiness, and Conscientiousness. The DiSC consists of 24 sets of four words that describe possible emotional responses. The respondent identifies the words that *most* and *least* describe him or her out of each word set. The responses for all 24 sets are then compiled to create a rating between one and seven for each of the four personality dimensions (Inscape Publishing, 1996). Inscape Publishing (1996 & 2001) reports the DiSC instrument demonstrates strong validity and reliability. In a study of 816 respondents representing a broad demographic base, the following reliability coefficients were calculated for the four categories: Dominance ( $r = .92$ ), Influence ( $r = .87$ ), Steadiness ( $r = .88$ ), and Conscientiousness ( $r = .85$ ). The same study also investigated the scale intercorrelation and reported strong construct validity. Table 3 reflects the reliability coefficients and inter-scale correlations among each dimension's *most* and *least* scores.

Table 3

*DiSC Reliability Coefficients and Intercorrelations among Most and Least Scores*

	D-Most	i-Most	S-Most	C-Most	D-Least	i-Least	S-Least	C-Least
D-Most	<b>.85</b>							
i-Most	-.07	<b>.79</b>						
S-Most	-.73	-.21	<b>.77</b>					
C-Most	-.18	-.63	.11	<b>.72</b>				
D-Least	-.79	-.04	.73	.26	<b>.84</b>			
i-Least	.10	-.67	.13	.56	-.07	<b>.74</b>		
S-Least	.73	.18	-.74	-.20	-.78	-.15	<b>.78</b>	
C-Least	.33	.60	-.33	-.64	-.46	-.56	.33	<b>.74</b>

Note. From "The *DiSC Classic* Research Report" (p. 6) by Inscape Publishing, 1996.

I administered the DiSC to the two principals in person and self-scored the instrument. Unlike the MSCEIT, the DiSC uses no normative scale scores since there are no correct or incorrect answers. The score report ranks the respondent's strength in each of the four categories. The pattern created by this ranking places the respondent in one of fifteen profile patterns. These profile patterns are achiever, agent, appraiser, counselor, creative, developer, inspirational, investigator, objective-thinker, perfectionist, persuader, practitioner, promoter, results-oriented, and specialist. These patterns and the accompanying personality descriptions provided useful information to this study. However, for the purpose of comparison among the principals and to MSCEIT results, this study primarily examined the principals' strengths and weakness in the main DiSC dimensions.

*Professional Learning Community Assessment (PLCA)*

The PLCA, developed by Olivier, Hipp, and Huffman (2003), is used to assess the perceptions of school community members based on a five dimension model of

professional learning communities. These five dimensions, as discussed in Chapter 2, are shared and supportive leadership, shared values and vision, collective learning and application, shared personal practice, and supportive conditions in both organizational structures and relationships. The respondent answers 45 questions using a Likert scale with the following values: (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) agree, and (4) strongly agree.

According to Huffman and Hipp (2003), the PLCA demonstrates good reliability and construct validity. An expert panel of 76 educators examined the assessment and rated each item on its relevance (High, Medium, or Low). The panel found 98% of the items to be High in importance. One item was rated Medium by the expert panel. The intercorrelation coefficients for the five PLCA dimensions ranged from a low of  $r = .83$  to a high of  $r = .93$ , indicating strong internal reliability.

#### *Question Set for Principal and Teacher Interviews*

In addition to the DiSC and MSCEIT assessments administered to the campus principal, I also conducted one-on-one interviews with the principals and the three teachers who completed the PLCA to gain greater insight on how the principal uses his or her emotions and personality to lead the faculty in implementing and sustaining professional learning communities. Within a qualitative study, interviews allow me to validate the findings of other instruments and gain a greater understanding of dynamics that are difficult to quantifiably measure (Corbin & Strauss, 2007). The principals' and teachers' responses were recorded and transcribed for later analysis and comparison. The questions in Table 4 were directed specifically to the campus principal. However,

when interviewing the teachers from each campus, the questions were modified to reflect their principal's leadership behaviors. For example, question two would read, "Please describe your principal's leadership style." Similar to the principal selection, teachers participating in the interview have taught in the school for a minimum of three years. This is necessary to ensure feedback from teachers who had personally witnessed the principal's leadership in the development of a professional learning community. All interview questions directly address one or more of the research questions.

Table 4

*Question Set for Principal Interview*

- 
1. Briefly describe the process of how professional learning communities were implemented or sustained on this campus.
  2. Please describe your strengths and weaknesses as a principal.
  3. How do these strengths or weaknesses affect you in implementing professional learning communities on your campus?
  4. How does your personality play a role in your position as principal?
  5. Do you feel your personality helps or hinders your ability to implement professional learning communities?
  6. How do you display emotion when leading your faculty?
  7. In general terms, can you describe a situation where you had to control your emotions in order to make a good decision?
  8. Using a scale of one to five (one being no skill and five being a high degree of skill), how would you rate your skills in interpreting your teachers' emotions?
  9. In general terms, can you describe a situation where you sensed a potential emotional conflict between teachers working together on a team?
  10. How did you respond to that situation? Did your response help solve the problem?
- 

### Data Analysis

A combination of case study and constant comparative methods for data analysis were employed for this study. Key to case study methodology is the use of various and

comprehensive data collection techniques (Stake, 1995). As mentioned earlier, this study utilized three instruments and two interview question-sets for the principal and teachers on a campus. The information gathered from these sources were sorted and categorized, as described below, in an attempt to triangulate data to support and strengthen any findings (Corbin & Strauss, 2007). The constant comparative approach provided the framework for the case study discussion.

The constant comparative method is a unique interplay between data as the researcher searches for patterns. Under this qualitative method, every piece of relevant data is compared with every other piece (Morse & Field, 1998). Boeije (2002) agrees with this in principle, but suggests that a defined method is necessary to support the study's validity. By adapting Boeije's approach, this study utilized the following comparisons which are address in Chapter 5. The terms *internal* and *external* are used to help distinguish comparisons occurring within a particular school or between schools, respectively.

- Internal comparison of each principal's MSCEIT and DiSC scores and interview.
- Internal comparison between the teachers' interviews and their principal's MSCEIT and DiSC scores and interview.
- Internal comparison between the five PLCA dimensions and the principal's MSCEIT and DiSC scores and interview.
- External comparison between principals' MSCEIT and DiSC scores and interviews.
- External comparison of any patterns that emerge out of internal comparisons.

Data gathered from the MSCEIT and DiSC were analyzed using descriptive statistics. This data set was studied for patterns of emotional intelligence levels in

principals who effectively lead professional learning communities. Since DiSC and MSCEIT use different scales to measure two separate dimensions of social skills and behaviors, it is difficult to numerically compare the scores without inferential statistics as part of quantitative study. However, the data from each instrument can be studied for patterns within the context of the research questions and the constant comparative steps previously mentioned (Boeije, 2002).

Summary tables for the principals participating in this study comparing the level of professional learning community development, emotional intelligence, and major dimensions of personality are presented in Chapter 4. Comparing interview data to the MSCEIT and DiSC scores potentially enhances the interpretation of these tests and provides explanations on how each principal uses their emotional intelligence and personality. In accordance with the constant comparative analysis, the principals' responses were compared to each other and with those of their teachers' to search for similarities, differences, and patterns. Finally, the PLCA dimensional scores for each campus were calculated. PLCA dimensions with particularly high or low scores were noted and compared to strengths or weakness indicated by the MSCEIT or DiSC for each principal. Patterns that emerged during this process were compared to the other participating principal's data to determine what conclusions could be made.

### Summary

This chapter presented the methodology that was used to study the effect of principals' emotional intelligence and personality on their ability to implement and maintain professional learning communities. Discussed in this chapter were the problem

and purpose of the study, study design, instruments, and data analysis. Due to the importance of transforming schools into professional learning communities as outlined in Chapter 2, it is worth investigating if there are emotional intelligence skills or personality types that better equip principals to implement and maintain them. This study's methodology attempted to explore this possible relationship and to further contribute to the current understanding of factors influencing professional learning community development.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS

#### Introduction

This study examined the emotional intelligence and personalities of principals leading professional learning communities. The results of the PLCA, MSCEIT, DiSC, and interview responses are presented in this chapter. The following areas are discussed: (1) participant selection, (2) instrument and interview data, and (3) summary of results.

#### Participant Selection

PLCA surveys were sent to 27 schools. These schools were primarily selected for the study due to verbal recommendation received by other educators and professional colleagues. In all instances, I made contact with the principals of these schools and recruited their participation. A research packet containing four PLCA surveys, a letter explaining the research study, a participant information form, informed consent forms, and a stamped return envelope was mailed to each principal. If the PLCA surveys were not received within four weeks of the original mailing, I called and e-mailed the principal to encourage his or her participation.

## PLCA Respondents

After eight weeks of the original mailing, 13 schools had returned their research packets containing the PLCA surveys and participant information forms. These schools included four elementary schools, four intermediate/middle schools, and five high schools. Based on the Texas Education Agency's 2006 AEIS report, four of the respondent schools were rated Recognized, seven schools were rated Acceptable, and two schools were not rated. The respondent campuses represented seven school districts that differed in size, location, and economic diversity. Summary tables of the respondent schools, demographic information, and their respective PLCA scores are shown in Table 5 and Table 6. The values given for the PLCA results are the percentage of responses that were either *Agree* or *Strongly Agree* for a particular category.

Table 5

### 2006 AEIS Information on Respondent Schools

School	Type	Size	TEA Rating	Total Minority Population	Economically Disadvantaged	Years of Principal at School
A	Elementary	640	Recognized	45.0%	25.5%	8 years
B	Elementary	467	Recognized	28.3%	34.3%	5 years
C	Elementary*	818	Not Rated	52.3%	62.0%	4 years
D	Elementary	475	Recognized	30.9%	62.7%	5 years
E	Middle/Intermediate	258	Recognized	7.0%	32.6%	19 years
F	Middle/Intermediate	457	Acceptable	27.4%	55.1%	4 years
G	Middle/Intermediate	748	Acceptable	64.4%	51.9%	3 years
H	Middle/Intermediate	526	Acceptable	25.1%	48.9%	5 years
I	High School	862	Acceptable	60.1%	48.6%	3 years
J	High School**	N/A	Not Rated	N/A	N/A	3 years
K	High School	1,512	Acceptable	53.6%	52.3%	3 years
L	High School	1,779	Acceptable	18.4%	19.5%	8 years
M	High School	282	Acceptable	5.0%	27.3%	3 years

*Note.* \*Pre-kindergarten and kindergarten campus. \*\*Career and Technology Education campus serving four areas high schools.

Table 6

*PLCA Results from Respondent Schools*

School	Shared & Supportive Leadership	Shared Values & Mission	Collective Learning & Application	Shared Personal Practice	Supportive Conditions – Relationships	Supportive Conditions – Structures
A	97.5	96.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	91.7
B	87.5	96.9	100.0	70.8	100.0	94.4
C	100.0	96.9	96.9	100.0	87.5	100.0
D	92.5	90.7	87.1	79.2	68.7	75.0
E	90.0	84.4	78.1	100.0	81.3	91.6
F	97.5	96.9	90.7	62.5	87.5	86.1
G	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
H	100.0	100.0	100.0	95.8	100.0	97.2
I*	80.0*	37.5*	25.0*	50.0*	25.0*	77.7*
J	100.0	96.9	100.0	83.3	100.0	97.2
K	100.0	87.5	87.5	77.8	83.3	77.8
L	85.0	90.6	87.6	83.3	87.5	66.7
M	97.5	93.7	75.0	44.9	100.0	75.0

*Note.* Values are given in the percentage of responses scored *Agree* or *Strongly Agree*. \*Not all surveys were returned.

*Selection of Case Study Participants*

Schools A and B were selected for the case study research. This decision was reached based on a combination of PLCA scores, TEA rating, and similar school size and student body composition. Although several other campuses scored high on the PLCA, other factors lead to dismissing them as possibilities for case study research. School H had two PLCA surveys returned with every answer marked *Strongly Agree*. Although it is possible this is accurate representation of the teachers' beliefs, it is more likely the data is flawed and must be disregarded. School C is a campus serving only pre-kindergarten and kindergarten students and does not have the same level of TAKS accountability as the other respondent campuses. School J is a Career and Technology Education campus serving students from four areas high schools and is not rated by TEA. Many of the Acceptable schools may have made good selections for the case

study and were not dismissed solely because of the school's TEA rating. The primary reason for these campuses, as was the case for School G, not being selected was due to the difficulty in finding an appropriate match with a similar school.

### Instrument and Interview Data

After the two schools were selected, each principal was contacted by telephone to arrange a date to administer the DiSC, MSCEIT, and to conduct the interviews with the principal and teachers. All of the data for this portion of the study were collected within one week for each selected school.

#### *Principal DiSC Scores*

Both principals scored very similar on the DiSC instrument. In both instances they scored the highest the same two personality dimensions, Influence and Steadiness, in that order. Influence refers to one's emphasis on shaping the environment by persuading others; Steadiness refers to one's emphasis on cooperating with others within existing circumstances to carry out a task (Inscape Publishing, 1996b & 2001). Figure 2 outlines the personality dimensional scores for each principal. Principal A represents School A, and likewise for Principal B. Although Figure 2 reflects a scale score of five for both the Steadiness and Conscientiousness dimensions, Principal A had a slightly stronger score for the Steadiness dimension.

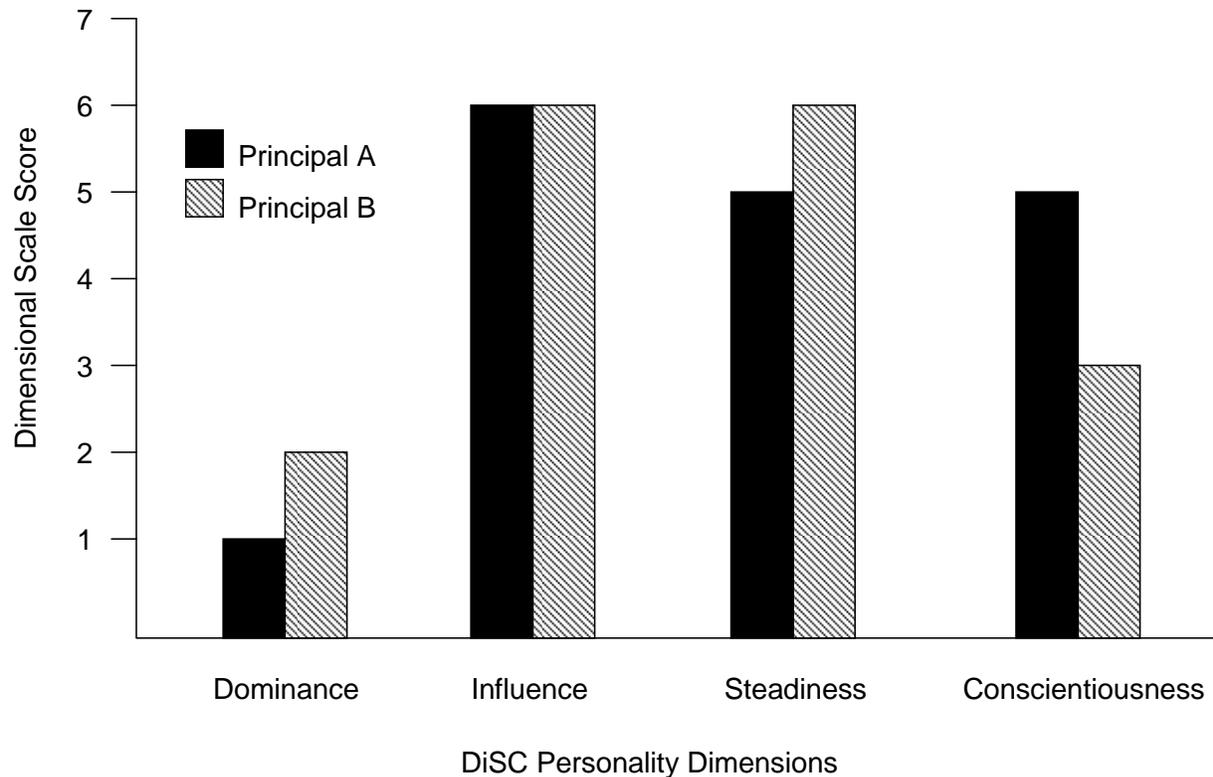


Figure 2. DiSC personality dimensional scores for Principals A and B.

For the Influence dimension, the DiSC profile report states that the principals' tendencies include being articulate, creating a motivating environment, generating enthusiasm, viewing people and situations with optimism, and participating in a group. Both principals also desire an environment that includes social recognition, democratic relationships, and opportunities to verbalize proposals.

In addition, the DiSC report also states both principals' tendencies for the Steadiness dimension are performing in a consistent, predictable pattern, demonstrating patience, showing loyalty, being a good listener, calming excited people, and creating a harmonious work environment. Similarly, their high score in the Steadiness dimension indicates they desire a work environment that includes maintenance of the status quo

unless given reasons for change, predictable routines, standard operating procedures, and minimal conflict. Figure 3 gives complete descriptions for each of the four personality dimensions measured by DiSC.

<b>Personality Dimension</b>	<b>This person's tendencies include</b>	<b>This person desires an environment that includes</b>
Dominance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Causing action</li> <li>• Accepting challenges</li> <li>• Making quick decisions</li> <li>• Questioning the status quo</li> <li>• Taking authority</li> <li>• Managing trouble</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Power and authority</li> <li>• Prestige and challenge</li> <li>• A wide scope of operations</li> <li>• Direct answers</li> <li>• Freedom from control</li> <li>• Many and varied activities</li> </ul>
Influence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Making a favorable impression</li> <li>• Being articulate</li> <li>• Creating a motivating environment</li> <li>• Generating enthusiasm</li> <li>• Viewing situations with optimism</li> <li>• Participating in a group</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social recognition</li> <li>• Freedom of expression</li> <li>• Democratic relationships</li> <li>• Freedom from detail</li> <li>• Coaching and counseling</li> <li>• Public recognition of ability</li> </ul>
Steadiness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Performing in a consistent pattern</li> <li>• Demonstrating patience</li> <li>• Helping others</li> <li>• Showing loyalty</li> <li>• Being a good listener</li> <li>• Calming excited people</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Maintenance of the status quo</li> <li>• Predictable patterns</li> <li>• Credit for accomplished work</li> <li>• Minimal infringement on home life</li> <li>• Standard operating procedures</li> <li>• Minimal conflict</li> </ul>
Conscientiousness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Adhering to directives</li> <li>• Concentrating on details</li> <li>• Thinking analytically</li> <li>• Being diplomatic with people</li> <li>• Indirect approaches to conflict</li> <li>• Analyzes performance critically</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Clearly defined expectations</li> <li>• A reserved atmosphere</li> <li>• Values quality and accuracy</li> <li>• Control over performance factors</li> <li>• Asking "why" questions</li> <li>• Recognition for specific skills</li> </ul>

*Figure 3. Descriptions of DiSC Personality Dimensions. Adapted from Inscape Publishing (2001).*

The DiSC instrument also gives a profile pattern for each assessment. Although Principal A and Principal B were very similar in their overall scores, slight differences in each dimension gave the participants different profile patterns. Principal A's profile

pattern was identified as *Practitioner*. The DiSC profile report gives the following description for a Practitioner:

As Practitioners interact with others, they project a relaxed, diplomatic, and easygoing style. This congenial attitude may change quickly in their own work area when they become intensely focused in order to meet high standards for performance. Practitioners evaluate others on the basis of their self-discipline as measured by their daily performance. They have high expectations for themselves and others, and they tend to express their disappointment (Inscape Publishing 2001, p. 18).

The DiSC report states that Practitioners often give too much attention to personal objectives and have unrealistic expectations of others. Practitioners would become more effective by delegating key tasks to appropriate individuals. Practitioners bring value to the organization by utilizing people problem-solving skills and closely monitoring overall performance (Inscape Publishing 2001, p. 18).

Principal B's profile was identified as a *Counselor*. The DiSC profile report describes Counselors as:

Counselors are particularly effective at solving people's problems. They impress others with their warmth, empathy, and understanding. Their optimism makes it easy to look for the good in others. Counselors prefer to deal with others by building long-standing relationships. As a good listener with a willing ear for problems, a Counselor offers suggestions gently and refrains from imposing his or her ideas on others (Inscape Publishing 2001, p. 15).

The DiSC report also cautions Counselors to not overuse the indirect approach when giving directives or disciplining others. Being overly tolerant and patient with non-producers is another negative tendency of Counselors. Counselors bring value to the organization by developing a wide range of friendships and maintaining a stable and predictable work environment (Inscape Publishing 2001, p. 15).

### *Principal MSCEIT Scores*

A MSCEIT score is an estimation of a person's ability to solve problems about emotions or problems that require the use of emotion. The MSCEIT yields an overall emotional intelligence score, two area scores (Experiential and Strategic), and four branch scores (Perceiving Emotion, Facilitating Thought, Understanding Emotion, and Managing Emotion). The Perceiving Emotion and Facilitating Thought branch scores are scored as part of the Experiential area score; the Understanding Emotion and Managing Emotion branch scores are scored as part of the Strategic area score. Like traditional intelligence scales, the mean MSCEIT score is 100 with a standard deviation of 15. The MSCEIT scores are approximate and reported with a 90% confidence interval. Despite this close approximation to a person's actual ability, MSCEIT scores have some variability due to motivation, fatigue, language fluency, and other factors (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2001). Table 7 and Table 8 are summary tables for the MSCEIT scores of Principal A and Principal B, respectively.

Table 7

*Principal A MSCEIT Scores*

Area	Score	Percentile
MSCEIT Total	113	80
Experiential	109	72
Perceiving Emotion	110	74
Facilitating Thought	102	55
Strategic	113	81
Understanding Emotion	112	80
Managing Emotion	105	63

Table 8

*Principal B MSCEIT Scores*

Area	Score	Percentile
MSCEIT Total	95	36
Experiential	85	16
Perceiving Emotion	88	21
Facilitating Thought	86	18
Strategic	109	72
Understanding Emotion	115	84
Managing Emotion	99	47

Principal A scored consistently above the mean in the total emotional intelligence score and in each area and branch score. His strongest emotional intelligence branch score is in Understanding Emotion (112), and his weakest is in Facilitating Thought (102). Principal B scored below the mean in the total emotional intelligence score, but his scores varied among the individual branch and area scores. His highest and lowest branch scores, similar to Principal A, are Understanding Emotion (115) and Facilitating Thought (86).

The MSCEIT score report also gives a scatter score and a positive-negative bias score. The scatter score indicates the degree of discrepancy in the participant's responses. A scatter score greater than 115 indicates significant variation among the different elements of emotional intelligence. Scatter scores less than 85 indicate very consistent scores. Positive-negative bias scores describe the tendency of a respondent to respond with positive or negative emotion to items within the MSCEIT. A bias score greater than 115 is considered highly positive bias; a score lower than 85 is considered strongly negative (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2001).

Principal A and Principal B tended to have opposite scores with respect to response discrepancies and emotional bias. Principal A had very consistent, highly positive emotional responses. Principal B had average discrepancy in his responses and tended to associate negative emotions to test items. Table 9 summarizes the scatter scores and positive-negative bias scores for Principal A and Principal B.

Table 9

*Scatter and Positive-Negative Bias Scores*

Score Type	Principal A	Principal B
Scatter Score	86	103
Positive-Negative Bias Score	118	88

*Interview Findings for Principal A*

Principal A stated that professional learning communities are sustained on his campus by educating the staff of the elements of a professional learning community and providing the appropriate school structure. He indicated that he heavily relies on his teachers' expertise to make decisions despite the inefficiency of this approach. "It would

be easier for me to go to the faculty and say, 'Here is your marching orders,' but that I know that is not effective," stated Principal A. His teachers' agree with this and expressed their appreciation that he does not use the authoritative approach often.

Principal A indicated that his strongest leadership traits are his high degree of trust of his teachers and his openness to their ideas. One teacher confirmed this when she stated that, "You can approach him with anything." Another teacher agreed and said, "He lets us make decisions and trusts us as professionals." Principal A believes that his strengths make him effective at developing relationships with teachers, students, and parents.

Principal A rates his ability to interpret his teacher's emotions on a one to five scale at a five. "I think I am able to do this because I'm a good listener, calm, and I don't let anything surprise me." He states he uses humor with his faculty often, and being joyful and light-hearted makes his teachers feel more comfortable in their jobs. The teachers indicated that their principal is very emotional but keeps it under control in order to make good decisions and communicate effectively. Principal A stated, "It is much easier to get people to understand your point when you speak logically and not angrily." Similarly, one teacher stated in her interview, "He indicates his disappointment without showing his anger."

### *Interview Findings for Principal B*

Principal B indicated that his campus functions as a professional learning community on several levels. He stated in his interview that the grade level teams meet regularly and share ideas and strategies. They have freedom to choose their own

individual professional development opportunities and share what they have learned with the rest of the team members. On a campus level, he coordinates book studies and asks teachers to present their practices or other things they have learned at faculty meetings.

Principal B states that his strongest leadership skill is being open with his teachers. In the teachers' interview, this trait was affirmed several times. One teacher said that it is very easy to approach and speak with him. "He is very open to what you have to say, and he doesn't hold anything back either, positive or negative," states one teacher. Principal A is concerned that people may believe that he is too open to his teachers' ideas. He commented, "I am considered a pushover. Some say, 'He'll let us do anything.'"

One teacher in Principal B's school stated that he can have a bad temper at times. He seemed to agree in his interview saying, "The staff has seen the entire gamut of my emotions. I get touched easily." He gave examples of times he had almost cried in front of the staff as well as situations that he had become very angry. Despite his frequent display of emotion, he does not feel it is detrimental to ability to effectively lead but instead build stronger relationships with his staff.

When asked to rate his ability to interpret his teachers' emotions on a scale of one to five, he rated his ability at a four. He attributed this ability to basic intuition and feeling. His teachers' also indicated that he is not as relaxed as other principals they have had in the past. However, one teacher stated that, "He does not demand to be the boss." All the teachers interviewed said he does a good job of rewarding teachers

and showing his appreciation. Principal B confirmed this when he stated that teachers “don’t care how much you know until they know how much you care.”

### Summary of Results

Twenty-seven schools were originally recruited to participate in this study. Of those, 13 schools returned the PLCA survey and were placed in a pool of potential case studies. Two suburban elementary schools were selected based on their strong professional learning communities (as indicated by the PLCA surveys), similar school demographic factors, and TEA rating.

The principals of the selected schools were given the DiSC and MSCEIT and were interviewed. Principal A and Principal B score similarly on the personality profile with Influence and Steadiness being the top two dimensions for each. Dominance was the lowest personality dimension for both principals. Principal A scored 113 in total emotional intelligence, placing him at the 80<sup>th</sup> percentile. Principal B scored a 95 in total emotional intelligence, placing him at the 36<sup>th</sup> percentile. Both principals scored highest in Understanding Emotions (112 and 115, respectively) and lowest in Facilitating Thought (102 and 86, respectively).

The principal and three teachers from the selected schools were interviewed. The interviews indicated that both principals were open to their teachers’ ideas and allowed their teachers to participate in campus decision-making. The teachers at School A stated that their principal does not often use the authoritative leadership approach but instead practices a high degree of trust in the professionalism of his teachers. Both the teachers and principal at School A state that while this is the best approach, it is

sometimes inefficient. Teachers at School B shared similar beliefs about their principal, but stated he sometimes shows his anger. It was indicated by the teacher interviews that Principal B exceeds in showing appreciation and building a strong rapport with his teachers.

## CHAPTER 5

### CONCLUSIONS

#### Introduction

This chapter summarizes the findings of this research study and discusses possible implications for professional learning communities and principal leadership. The following areas are included in this chapter: (1) summary of purpose and findings, (2) constant comparative discussion, (3) implications for professional learning communities, (4) recommendations for future research, and (5) final conclusions.

#### Summary of Purpose and Findings

##### *Research Questions*

This research study examined the relationship between two dimensions of a principal's social relatedness, personality and emotional intelligence, and his/her ability to develop a strong professional learning community on his/her respective campus. Through this investigation of comparing personality type and emotional intelligence to effective implementation of professional learning communities, this study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What can be revealed about the personalities of principals who effectively implement professional learning communities?
2. What role does a principal's emotional intelligence level play in successful implementation professional learning communities?

3. Do certain personality types and/or levels of emotional intelligence predispose principals to be more successful at implementing professional learning communities?

### *Summary of Results*

Two schools were selected from 13 potential candidates based on their overall PLCA scores and common school demographic factors. The principal and three teachers from each school were interviewed to investigate how the principal interacted with the staff through the use of his/her emotions and personality. The principal was also administered a personality profile instrument (DiSC) and an emotional intelligence assessment (MSCEIT).

Principal A had an overall score of 113 on the MSCEIT, which places him above the mean at the 80<sup>th</sup> percentile. His Experiential and Strategic area scores were 109 and 113, respectively, placing him at the 72<sup>nd</sup> and 81<sup>st</sup> percentile. The DiSC indicated that he is particularly strong in the Influence and Steadiness personality dimensions while having a low score in the Dominance dimension. The interview data seemed to verify this finding. Both Principal A and his teachers continually said in the interviews that much of the decision-making process is decentralized, and the responsibility is given to teams of teachers.

Principal B had an overall score of 95 on the MSCEIT. This score places him below the mean at the 36<sup>th</sup> percentile. He had a low Experiential area score of 85 (16<sup>th</sup> percentile), but scored 109 (72<sup>nd</sup> percentile) in the Strategic area. Like Principal A, Principal B scored strong in the personality dimensions of Influence and Steadiness and

relatively low in the area of Dominance. Interviews with him and his teachers indicated that he allows his teachers to have control over decision-making processes and encourages teachers to pursue professional development opportunities based on their own needs-assessment. However, both the principal and teacher interviews acknowledged the display of a range of emotions which sometimes include outwardly expressing anger and other negative emotions.

### *Methodological Issues*

Limitations in this study's methodology include the small number of participants in which to select the case studies, self-bias on the PLCA, a possible unwillingness to answer questions openly during the interviews, and variation in general mood and emotional state while taking the MSCEIT and DiSC. Despite having a small number of PLCA participants, there was a high likelihood that the same two schools would have been selected for the case studies even if more schools would have been in the selection pool. Self-bias on the PLCA was controlled by eliminating schools in which PLCA surveys were returned with abnormally high responses, as was the case with School H where two PLCA surveys were returned marked all *Strongly Agree*. With regard to the interviews, all participants appeared comfortable with answering the questions. Furthermore, most participants even expressed their eagerness to participate in the interviews.

Variation in general mood and emotional state potentially had the strongest impact on the study. Particularly on the MSCEIT, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2001) warn that motivation and fatigue can cause variations on MSCEIT scores. For instance,

if any of the principals had experienced a difficult day prior to taking the MSCEIT or DiSC, there is a possibility that the scores may be slightly lower than the principal's actual ability. It is due to this reason that the MSCEIT reports the scores in 90% confidence intervals.

### Comparative Discussion

This section compares the two principals and schools. Comparisons made within a school using the various data from the PLCA, MSCEIT, DiSC, and interviews are referred to as *internal comparisons*. Comparisons made between the two schools are referred to as *external comparisons*.

#### *Internal Comparisons – Principal A*

Principal A's emotional intelligence and personality profile appear to compliment one other. Interview responses and the description of his personality profile, which uses words such as *diplomatic* and *motivating*, describe a transformational leadership style (Burns, 1978). Coupling that with his high emotional intelligence score produces a finding consistent with a study by Barling, Slater, and Kelloway (2000), which found a correlation between transformational leaders and higher emotional intelligence scores. Furthermore, Caruso, Salovey, and Mayer's (2003) discovery that higher emotional intelligence scores tend to be found in people with influential skills may provide some explanation for Principal A's strength in the Influence dimension on the DiSC instrument. Other descriptions given by his DiSC personality profile report that may have a connection with higher emotional intelligence are the ability to calm excited

people and being skilled in people problem-solving (Feldman, 1999; Noyes, 2001; Chastukhina, 2002). His high positive-negative bias score (118) may also give evidence of an ability to view situations with positive emotions instead of negative ones.

It is difficult to make strong comparisons between Principal A's DiSC and MSCEIT results and the particular areas measured on the PLCA due to the small variability in the PLCA results for his school. For example, the lowest PLCA category for School A is Supportive Conditions – Structures, which had 91.7% of the responses marked either *Agree* or *Strongly Agree*. Due to limited number of teachers completing the survey, the difference between this score and the highest PLCA categorical score is too close to draw any significant findings. However, since all the categories measured by the PLCA for School A are above 90% positive responses, there may be a significant finding in the school's professional learning community with relation to the principal's emotional intelligence and personality. It is possible that the principal's high emotional intelligence and/or high influential and steady personality traits may contribute to a strong professional learning community. This finding is consistent with Wagner's (2000) suggestion that emotional intelligence may enhance a principal's ability to work collaboratively with teachers to establish professional learning communities. A principal with a high emotional intelligence and/or high influential and steady personality may also have an increased capacity to build trust with school staff, a necessary component for building professional learning communities (Fleming & Thompson, 2004).

### *Internal Comparisons – Principal B*

Although Principal B's overall emotional intelligence was lower than average, it is important to examine the individual areas when searching for possible patterns and comparisons. Particularly, the low Experiential area score seems to be consistent with his use of indirect problem-solving, as indicated by his DiSC profile report. Barasade and Gibson (1998) reported that emotional intelligence is related to one's ability to effectively resolve conflict. It is possible that Principal B may rely too heavily on indirect conflict resolution due to this apparent weakness in Experiential emotional intelligence area. His low branch scores in Facilitating Thought may also explain why Principal B's teachers described him as occasionally becoming visibly angry. His low positive-negative bias score (88) also may indicate a personal tendency to view situations with emotional negativity.

Despite a low Experiential score, the Strategic score may have more impact on one's ability to develop and maintain a professional learning community. According to Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2001), the Strategic area scores reflect a person's ability to understand and process emotions. Since Principal B's Strategic emotional intelligence scores are quite strong, he may be more apt to relate to teachers who are experiencing particular emotions which would enable him to build strong connections and trust with his staff. Fleming and Thompson (2004) state the principal's ability to recognize opportunities to build trust with the school staff is key in building a professional learning community. Principal B also possessed high influential and steady personality traits. His DiSC profile report stated that his value to the organization is his ability to "develop a wide range of friendships" and "listening to others' feelings"

(Inscape Publishing, 2001, p. 15). These findings are validated in Morrissey and Cowan's (2004) study which claims that principal leadership that focuses on building strong personal relationships with teachers is key within a professional learning community.

### *External Comparisons – Principal A and Principal B*

There are several interesting comparisons to make between the two principals in this study. Both principals had minimal differences between their DiSC personality profile reports, each scoring the highest in the Influence and Steadiness dimensions. For the other two dimensions, Principal A scored stronger in Conscientiousness while Principal B was stronger in Dominance. When considering the wide range of possible dimensional combinations, it is striking that the personalities of these two principals are quite similar (Inscape Publishing, 2001). However, small variations in dimensional scores may provide some explanation for differences in the teacher interviews as they reflected on their principals' demeanor. For example, Principal A's teachers stated with more frequency that he allows them control over decisions. Although Principal B's teachers had made similar comments, but did not give the interviewer the impression that the decision-making process is as decentralized as School A. This could be related to his higher score Principal B has in the Dominance dimension. Principal A had the lowest possible scale score in the Dominance dimension. This difference may also be an explanation of the lower scores School B received on the PLCA in the categories of Shared and Supportive Leadership and Shared Personal Practice.

Despite having a 17-point differential between their overall emotional intelligence scores, most of which is accounted for in the Experiential area score, Principal A and

Principal B had very similar scores in the Strategic area. Furthermore, each principal's highest branch score was in Understanding Emotions with both scoring in the 80<sup>th</sup> percentile or higher. The teachers' of each principal validated this finding during the interviews. Both men were described as being very approachable and having genuine concern about teachers' struggles and problems. On the PLCA, both schools had strong scores in the Supportive Conditions categories which may also give evidence to the principals' emotional awareness of the campus staff. Barach and Eckhardt (1996) found that leaders who are able to make emotional connections with their employees are more likely to "pump life and meaning into management structures" (p. 4). High scores in Understanding Emotions may contribute to a principal's ability to develop strong relationships with their teachers creating necessary and important supportive conditions within a school.

#### Implications for Professional Learning Communities

As discussed previously in Chapter 2, professional learning communities are systematic school structures in which focused communication among teachers is common and their actions are shared and governed by norms focused on student achievement (Hord, 2004). The effectiveness of professional learning communities in increasing student achievement is also well-established (Newman & Wehlage, 1995; Phillips, 2003; Strahan, 2003; Supovitz, 2002). Principal leadership in the facilitation of professional learning communities is an integral part to their development (Andrews & Lewis, 2002; Hord, 1997). Since this study has operated on an assumption that there is a causal effect between effective principal leadership and the development of

professional learning communities, what traits in either personality or emotional intelligence are worthwhile for a principal to possess?

The PLCA indicated that the two schools who participated in the case study portion of this study are functioning as strong professional learning communities. The principals of these two schools have been leading their respective campuses for at least five years. The finding that these principals scored high in the personality dimensions of Influence and Steadiness and relatively low in Dominance may be significant. This also compliments other research studies that suggest effective school leaders are willing to listen, seek collaborative input, practice consistent affirmation, and foster a positive school culture (Coleman, 2005; Sebring & Bryk, 2000; Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003) Additionally, Principal A's higher score in Conscientiousness and lower score in Dominance may be worthwhile to consider with regards to School A's slightly higher PLCA scores in the areas of Shared and Supportive Leadership and Supportive Conditions. It is possible that principals with low dominant personality have an increased ability to provide a more supportive environment for teachers by being more aware and open to their ideas.

Emotional intelligence may also have a connection to a principal's ability to effectively lead within a professional learning community. In this study only one of the two principals had an above-average ability to perceive emotion and use emotion to facilitate thought, but both principals had strong emotional intelligence in understanding emotions. The research literature on the principal's role in a professional learning community, although not specifically addressing emotional intelligence, seem to suggest that the principal must be proactive in developing and nurturing relationships with staff

members (Fleming & Thompson, 2004; Huffman & Hipp, 2003; Mitchell & Sackney, 2006; Morrissey & Cowan, 2004). This facet of a professional learning community is measured by the Supportive Conditions – Relationships section of the PLCA (Huffman & Hipp, 2003). The ability to understand emotions within the context of relationship-building speaks more to the Strategic area of the Mayer and Salovey model than the Experiential area (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). It is in the Strategic area that both of the principals in this study had above-average scores. Thus, this study suggests a possible connection between a principal's ability in understanding and controlling emotions and his or her ability to lead professional learning communities.

#### Recommendations for Future Research

While personality research has been in the literature for decades, research in the area of emotional intelligence is still relatively new. What has been unique about this study is the application of these concepts to school leadership and professional learning communities. Further research in this area will help school leaders have a greater understanding of what personal qualities and traits are useful to possess in order to be effective in developing and maintaining professional learning communities. It is suggested that further research focus on the following questions:

1. Would a quantitative study of principals' emotional intelligence and/or personality with relation to professional learning communities yield statistically significant results?
2. Would the results of this study been different if secondary school principals were selected?

3. Are high levels of emotional intelligence necessary to lead professional learning communities?
4. What would the results of this study have looked like if a different emotional intelligence instrument, such as the EQ-i, or personality profile, such as the MBTI, been used?
5. How does a principal's emotional intelligence change with experience?
6. What role does the teachers' emotional intelligence and/or personality play in the development of professional learning communities?
7. Is there a link between a principal's emotional intelligence and/or personality and student achievement?

### Conclusions

Although the findings of this study are in no way conclusive or lead to statistically significant claims, it has opened the possibility that principal traits may have an effect on his/her ability to develop and maintain professional learning communities. If this statement is true, then it would be important for school leaders to examine their personality and emotional intelligence. However, there lies a problem. As previously discussed in Chapter 2, one's personality is considered natural and, although possible, difficult to change (Marston, 1928). Emotional intelligence is developed over time. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2002) have documented that emotional intelligence can be improved just like anything else that can be learned.

If emotional intelligence is strongly related to professional learning communities, then that is good news for school leaders. By assessing their emotional intelligence,

principals can become aware of their emotional strengths and weaknesses and incorporate professional development and training to address the identified areas. Similar to how teachers assess students and plan for remediation in weak areas, a principal can focus and practice those on specific emotional intelligence dimensions when dealing with others in social and professional situations.

However, the news is not so good if personality plays the stronger role in a principal's ability to lead a professional learning community. Personality can be measured, and one can be made aware of his or her own traits. The difficulty would be for the principal whose personality did not match the ideal profile. Changing one's personality is difficult. If such were the case, the best plan of action for that principal would be understand his or her weakness and attempt to place people with the desired traits in places of leadership.

If the findings of this study can be replicated in future research, this information may affect the practices of principal hiring committees. The suggestion that a candidate's emotional intelligence is a factor in his or her ability to lead professional learning communities is one superintendents and human resource directors need to weigh carefully. Protocols for measuring and interpreting emotional intelligence in principal applicants would need to be designed. School leaders and policymakers, striving to build schools that can increase student achievement through the implementation of professional learning communities, would have a valuable piece of information needed to achieve that goal.

APPENDIX  
SCHOOL PARTICIPANT RECRUITMENT LETTER

Chris Jackson  
Graduate Student  
University of North Texas  
----- Drive  
-----, TX 76----  
(817) \*\*\*-\*\*\*\*

Dear Principal/Teacher,

I am requesting your participation in a dissertation research study. The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence, personality, and principal effectiveness in leading professional learning communities.

This study includes two phases. At this time, I am only requesting your participation in the first phase. During this phase, 20-30 schools will be asked to complete the attached Professional Learning Community Assessment (PCLA) and information sheet. **This survey must be completed by the campus principal and three teachers on his or her campus, all of whom must have been in their current position for a minimum of three years. Please return these surveys to me in the included envelope.** For the second phase, two or three principals from the initial 20-30 schools will be selected and asked to complete an emotional intelligence assessment (MSCEIT), personality assessment (DiSC), and participate in an interview.

Your participation in this study is voluntary, and you may end your participation at any time. Your responses will remain anonymous. Neither you nor your school will be identified in any subsequent report, publication, or conference proceeding. Information you provide on any survey or assessment will be kept secure and confidential in a locked filing cabinet. At the completion of this study, your scores will be mailed to you at your request. All remaining scores will be destroyed.

There are both personal and broad benefits of participating in this study. Personally, you may potentially gain insight on your emotional intelligence strengths, leadership personality and behaviors, and school's performance in functioning as a professional learning community. In terms of the contribution of knowledge in educational leadership, your participation could potentially provide educators with an understanding of the social relatedness skills and behaviors that make principals effective in leading professional learning communities.

Thank you for your time and consideration! Please contact me with any questions you may have.

Sincerely,

Chris Jackson

## REFERENCES

- Allen, L. (2003). *The relationship between the emotional intelligence competencies of principals in the Kanawha County School System in West Virginia and their teachers' perceptions of school climate*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia.
- Allport, G. W., & Odbert, H. S. (1936). Trait-names: A psycho-lexical study. *Psychological Monographs*, 47, 211.
- Andrews, D., & Lewis, M. (2002). The experience of a professional community: Teachers developing a new image of themselves and their workplace. *Educational Research*, 44(3), 237-254.
- Barach, J.A., & Eckhardt, D.R. (1996). *Leadership and the job of the executive*. Westport, CT: Quorum Books.
- Baradae, S.G., & Gibson, D.E. (1998). Group emotion: A view from top and bottom. In M. Neale, E. Mannix, & D. Gruenfeld (Eds.), *Research on managing groups and teams* (Vol. 1), 81-102. Westport, CT: JAI Press.
- Barent, J. (2005). *Principals' levels of emotional intelligence as an influence on school culture*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Montana State University, Bozeman, Montana.
- Barling, J., Slater, F., & Kelloway, E.K. (2000). Transformational leadership and emotional intelligence: An exploratory study. *Leadership and Organizational Development Journal*, 21, 157-161.
- Bar-On, R., & Handley, R. (1999). *Optimizing people*. New Braunfels, TX: PRO-Philes Press.
- Bar-On, R. (1997). *BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): Technical manual*. Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
- Bar-On, R. (2000). Emotional and social intelligence. In R. Bar-On & J. Parker (Eds.), *The handbook of emotional intelligence* (pp. 363-388). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bar-On, R., Handley, R., & Fund, S. (2006). The impact of emotional intelligence on performance. In V. Druskat, F. Sala, & G. Mount (Eds.), *Linking emotional intelligence and performance at work* (pp. 3-19). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Barrett, L.F., Lane, R.D., Sechrest, L., & Schwartz, G. E. (2000). Sex differences in emotional awareness. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, 26(9), 1027-1035.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.
- Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (2003). *Leaders: Strategies for taking charge*. New York: HarperCollins.
- Bennis, W. (1999). The leadership advantage. *Leader to Leader*, 12, 1-7.
- Boeije, H. (2002). A purposeful approach to the constant comparative method in the analysis of qualitative interviews. *Quality & Quantity*, 36, 391–409.
- Bogler, R. (1999, April). *Reassessing the behavior of principals as a multi-factor in teachers' job satisfaction*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association. Montreal, Canada.
- Bolman, L., & Deal, T. (2001). *Leading with soul: An uncommon journey of the spirit*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Boyatzis, R., Goleman, D., & Hay/Ber. (1999). *Emotional competency inventory*. Boston: HayGroup.
- Brackett, M., & Mayer, J. (2003). Convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of competing measures of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29, 1-12.
- Brackett, M. (2001). *Emotional intelligence and the life space*. Unpublished master's thesis, University of New Hampshire, Durham, NH.
- National Association of Secondary School Principals. (2004). *Breaking ranks II: Strategies for leading high school reform*. Reston, VA: Author.
- Burns, J. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Caruso, D. R., Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (2003). Emotional intelligence and emotional leadership. In R.E. Riggio and S.E. Murphy (Eds.), *Multiple intelligences and leadership* (pp. 55-73). Mahway, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Cattell, R. B. (1945). The description of personality: Principles and findings in a factor analysis. *American Journal of Psychology*, 58, 69-90.

- Chastukina, N. (2002, February). *On the role of emotional intelligence in organizations*. Paper presented at the annual conference of the Organizational Systems Research, St. Louis, MO.
- Church, A.H. (1997). Managerial self-awareness in high-performing individuals in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*, 281-292.
- Ciarrochi, J.V., Chan, A.Y.C., & Caputi, P. (2000). A critical evaluation of the emotional intelligence construct. *Personality and Individual Difference, 28*, 539-561.
- Cline, B.M. (1995). *The relationship of the educational orientation of selected high school principals in accreditation level three school districts and their personality preferences*. Delta State University, Cleveland, Mississippi.
- Coleman, C.H. (2005). *Teachers' perceptions of administrative leadership styles and schools as professional learning communities*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of New Orleans, Louisiana.
- Cook, C. (2006). *Effects of emotional intelligence on principals' leadership performance*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Montana State University, Bozeman, Montana.
- Corbin, J.M. & Strauss, A.C. (2007). *The basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Covey, S. (1989). *The 7 habits of highly effective people*. New York: Simon and Shuster.
- Cox, E. (2002). Cultivating acceptance. *Leadership, 3*, 33-34.
- Davies, M., Stankov, L., & Roberts, R.D. (1998). Emotional intelligence: In search of an elusive construct. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75*, 989-1015.
- Dawda, D., & Hart, S.D. (2000). Assessing emotional intelligence: Reliability and validity of the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) in university students. *Personality and Individual Differences, 28*, 797-812.
- Dearborn, K. (2002). Studies in emotional intelligence redefine our approach to leadership development. *Public Personnel Management, 31*, 523-530.
- Digman, J. M. (1997). Higher-order factors of the Big Five. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 73*, 1246-1256.
- DiRusso, L. & Carney, J. (1995). Psychological type of education majors and career decisiveness. *Journal of Psychological Type, 32*, 36-42.

- Druskat, V.U., & Wolff, S.B. (2001). Building the emotional intelligence of groups. *Harvard Business Review*, 79(3), 81-90.
- Dufour, R. (2005). What is a professional learning community? In Dufour, R., Eaker, R. & Dufour, R. (Eds.), *On common ground: The power of professional learning communities* (pp. 31-43). Bloomington, IN: National Education Service.
- DuFour, R., Eaker, R., & DuFour, R. (2005). Recurring themes of PLCs and the assumptions they challenge. In Dufour, R., Eaker, R. & Dufour, R. (Eds.), *On common ground: The power of professional learning communities* (pp. 31-43). Bloomington, IN: National Education Service.
- DuFour, R., DuFour, R., Eaker, R., & Karhanek, G. (2004). *Whatever it takes: How professional learning communities respond when kids don't learn*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree.
- DuFour, R., DuFour, R., Eaker, R., & Many, T. (2006). *Learning by doing: A handbook for professional learning communities at work*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree.
- Dyer, K. M. (2001). Relational leadership. *The School Administrator*, 58, 11, 29-30.
- Eagly, A.H., Makhijani, M.G., & Klonsky, B.G. (1992). Gender and the evaluation of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 111, 3-22.
- Elfenbein, H. A. (2006). Team emotional intelligence: What it can mean and how it can affect performance. In V. Druskat, F. Sala, & G. Mount (Eds.), *Linking emotional intelligence and performance at work* (pp. 165-184). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Elfenbein, H. A., & Ambady, N. (2002). Is there an in-group advantage in emotion recognition? *Psychological Bulletin*, 128, 243-249.
- Elias, M. J., Arnold, H. & Hussey, C. S. (2003). *EQ + IQ = Best leadership practices for caring and successful schools*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Elias, M. J., Zins, J. E., Weissberg, R. P., Frey, K. S., Greenberg, M. T., Haynes, N. M., Kessler, R., Schwab-Stone, M. E., & Shiver, T. P. (1997). *Promoting social and emotional learning: Guidelines for educators*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Engler, B. (2006). *Personality theories*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Feldman, D. (1999). *The handbook of emotionally intelligence leadership*. Falls Church, VA: Leadership Performance Studies.

- Fleming, G.L. (2004). Principals and teachers as continuous learners. In S.M. Hord (Ed.), *Learning together, leading together* (pp. 20-30). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Fleming, G.L., and Thompson, T.L. (2004). The role of trust building and its relation to collective responsibility. In S.M. Hord (Ed.), *Learning together, leading together* (pp. 31-44). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Follett, M. (1924). *Creative experience*. London: Longmans Green.
- Formica, S. (1998). *Description of the socio-emotional life space: Life qualities and activities related to emotional intelligence*. Unpublished senior honors thesis, University of New Hampshire, Durham, NH.
- Friedman, H.S., Riggio, R.E., & Casella, D.F. (1988). Nonverbal skill, personal charisma, and initial attraction. *Personality and Applied Social Psychology*, 25, 778-794.
- George, J.M. (1995). Leader positive mood and group performance: The case of customer service. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82, 827-844.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York: Random House.
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., McKee, A. (2002). *Primal leadership: Realizing the power of emotional intelligence*, Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Gur, R., Gunning-Dixon, F., Bilker, W. B., & Gur, R. E. (2002). Sex differences in temporo-limbic and frontal brain volumes of healthy adults. *Cerebral Cortex*, 12, 998-1003.
- Hartley, D. (2004). Management, leadership and the emotional order of the school. *Journal of Education Policy*, 19, 583-594.
- Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. (1988). *Management of organizational behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Hersey, P., Blanchard, K., & Johnson, D. (2000). *Management of organizational behavior: Leading human resources*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Hollins, E.R., McIntyre, L.R., DeBose, C., Hollins, K.S., & Towner, A. (2004). Promoting a self-sustaining learning community: Investigating an internal model for teacher development. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 17(2), 247-264.

- Hord, S.M. (1997). *Professional learning communities: Communities of continuous inquiry and improvement*. Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.
- Hord, S.M. (2004). Professional learning communities: An overview. In S.M. Hord (Ed.), *Learning together, leading together* (pp. 20-30). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Huffman, J. (2003). The role of shared values and vision in creating professional learning communities. *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin*, 87 (637), 21-34.
- Huffman, J.B., & Hipp, K.K. (2003). *Reculturing schools as professional learning communities*. Lanham: MD: ScarecrowEducation.
- Inscape Publishing. (1996a). *A comparison of DiSC Classic and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*. Inscape Publishing.
- Inscape Publishing. (1996b). *DiSC Classic and models of personality*. Inscape Publishing.
- Inscape Publishing. (2001). *DiSC Classic: Person Profile System 2800*. Inscape Publishing.
- John, O. P. (1990). The "Big Five" factor taxonomy: Dimensions of personality in the natural language and in questionnaires. In L. A. Pervin (Ed.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (pp. 66-100). New York: Guilford.
- John, O.P., & Srivastava, S. (2001). The big-five trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and theoretical perspectives. In L. Pervin and O.P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). New York: Guilford.
- Jung, C. (1957). *The undiscovered self*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Lees, A., & Barnard, D. (1999). Highly effective headteachers: An analysis of a sample of diagnostic data from the Leadership Programme for Serving Headteachers. Report prepared for Hay/McBer research group.
- Lezotte, L.W. (2005). More effective schools: Professional learning communities in action. In R. DuFour, R. Eaker, and R. DuFour (Eds.), *On common ground: The power of professional learning communities* (pp. 177-191). Bloomington, IN: National Educational Service.
- Lezotte, L.W., & McKee, K.M. (2002). *Assembly required: A continuous school improvement system*. Okemos, MI: Effective Schools Products, Ltd.

- Loos, M.W. (2001). *Improved leadership through a Myers-Briggs analysis: Personality styles of principals and teachers at the secondary level*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of San Francisco, California.
- Lopes, P., Salovey, P., & Straus, R. (2003). Emotional intelligence, personality, and the perceived quality of social relationships. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 35, 641-658.
- Maciel, R.G. (2005). *Do principals make a difference? An analysis of leadership behaviors of elementary principals in effective schools*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Texas – Pan American, Edinburg, Texas.
- Malek, M. (2000). The relationship between emotional intelligence and collaborative conflict resolution styles. *Dissertation Abstract International*, 61, 2805.
- Marston, W. (1928). *The emotions of normal people*. Minneapolis, MN: Persona Press, Inc.
- Martin, D.F. (2004). *Principal personality and school trust*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK.
- Marzano, R.J. (2003). *What works in schools: Translating research into action*. Alexandria, VI: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Marzano, R.J., Waters, T., & McNulty, B.A. (2006). *School leadership that works: From research to results*. Alexandria, VI: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
- Matthews, J. (1994, January 19). Analysis of seven frameworks of educational leadership. Charlottesville, VA: National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 1-16.
- Matthewson, H.A. (1995). *The relationship between principal perceived success in the implementation of shared decision-making programs and personality type for elementary school principals from a rural northern California county*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of the Pacific, Stockton, California.
- Maulding, W. S. (2002, October). *Emotional intelligence and successful leadership*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southern Regional Council on Educational Administration, Kansas City, KS.
- Mayer, J.D. (1995). A framework for the classification of personality components. *Journal of Personality*, 63, 819-877.
- Mayer, J.D. (1998). A systems framework for the field of personality. *Psychological Inquiry*, 9, 118-144.

- Mayer, J.D., & Geher, G. (1996). Emotional intelligence and the identification of emotion. *Intelligence*, 22, 89-113.
- Mayer, J.D., & Salovey, P. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality*, 9(3), 185-211.
- Mayer, J.D., & Salovey, P. (1993). The intelligence of emotional intelligence. *Intelligence*, 17, 433-442.
- Mayer, J.D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds). *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Implications for educators* (pp. 3-31). New York: Basic Books.
- Mayer, J.D., Caruso, D.R., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence*, 27, 267-298.
- Mayer, J.D., & Cobb, C. D. (2000). Educational policy on emotional intelligence: Does it make sense? *Educational Psychology Review*, 12(2), 163-183.
- Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. (2000a). Emotional intelligence as zeitgeist, as personality, and as a mental ability. In R. Bar-On & J. Parker (Eds.), *The handbook of emotional intelligence* (pp. 92-117) San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P. & Caruso, D. (2000b). Models of emotional intelligence. In R.J. Sternberg (Ed.), *The handbook of intelligence* (pp. 396-420). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. (2001). *Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test: Personal summary report*. North Tonawanda, NY: Multi-Health Systems, Inc.
- Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., & Caruso D.R. (2002). *MSCEIT user's manual*. North Tonawanda, NY: Multi-Health Systems, Inc.
- Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D.R., & Sitarenios, G. (2001). Emotional intelligence as a standard intelligence. *Emotion*, 1, 232-242.
- Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D.R., & Sitarenios, G. (2003). Measuring emotional intelligence with the MSCEIT V2.0. *Emotion*, 3, 97-105.
- McCown, C., Arnold, M., Miles, D., & Hargadine, K. (2000). Why principals succeed: Comparing principal performance to national professional standards. *ERS Spectrum*, Spring, 14-19.

- McCrae, R.R. (2000). Emotional intelligence from the perspective of the Five-Factor Model of personality. In R. Bar-On & D.A. Parker (Eds.), *The handbook of emotional intelligence* (pp. 263-276). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- McCrae, R.R., & Costa, P.T. (1989). Reinterpreting the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator from the perspective of the five-factor model of personality. *Journal of Personality, 57*, 17-40.
- McDowelle, J.O. & Buckner, K.G. (2002). *Leading with emotion: Reaching balance in educational decision-making*. Lanham, MD: The Scarecrow Press, Inc.
- McEwan, E.K. (2003). *10 traits of highly effective principals: From good to great performance*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.
- McGregor, D. (1960). *The human side of enterprise*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- McRae, R.R., & Costa, P.T. (1999) A five-factor theory of personality. In L. Pervin & O.P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed., pp. 139-153). New York: Guilford Press.
- Meehan, M.L., & Cowley, K. S. (2003, January). *A study of low-performing schools, high-performing schools, and high-performing learning communities*. Paper Presented at the Hawaii International Conference on Education, Waikiki, HI.
- Michel, A., & Jehn, K. (2006). About the “I” in the EI construct: A more social approach to intelligence and its performance implications. In V. Druskat, F. Sala, & G. Mount (Eds.), *Linking emotional intelligence and performance at work* (pp. 185-222). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Mitchell, C., & Sackney, L. (2006). Building schools, building people: The principal’s role in leading a learning community. *Journal of School Leadership, 16*, 627-640.
- Morrissey, M.S., & Cowan, D. (2004). Creating and sustaining a professional learning community: Actions and perceptions of principal leadership. In S.M. Hord (Ed.), *Learning together, leading together* (pp. 45-57). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Morse, J. M. & Field, P. A. (1998). *Nursing Research of Qualitative Approaches*. Cheltenham: Stanley Thornes.
- Newman, F., King, B., & Youngs, P. (2000, April). *Professional development that address school capacity*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA.
- Newman, F., & Wehlage, G.G. (1995). *Successful school restructuring*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

- Norman, W. T. (1963). Toward an adequate taxonomy of personality attributes: Replicated factor structure in peer nomination personality ratings. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 66, 574-583.
- Noyes, R. B. (2001). *The art of leading yourself: Tap the power of your emotional intelligence*. Fort Bragg, CA: Cypress House.
- Olivier, D.F., Hipp, K.K., Huffman, J.B. (2003). Professional learning community assessment. In J.B. Huffman & K.K. Hipp (Eds.), *Professional learning communities: Initiation to implementation* (pp. 133-141, 171-173). Lanham, MD: Scarecrow Press.
- Penny, A. (1996). *The relationships between leadership styles and personality types of Texas elementary administrators*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of North Texas, Denton, TX.
- Petrides, K.V., & Furnham, A. (2000). Gender differences in measured and self-estimated trait emotional intelligence. *Sex Roles*, 42(5-6), 449-461.
- Phillips, J. (2003). Powerful learning: Creating learning communities in urban school reform. *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision*, 18(3), 240-258.
- Pool, C. R. (1997). Up with emotional health. *Educational Leadership*, 54, 12-14.
- Pusey, F. (2000). *Emotional intelligence and success in the workplace: Relationship to job performance*. Unpublished master's thesis, Guildhall University, London.
- Reed, T. (2005). *Elementary principal emotional intelligence, leadership behavior, and openness: An exploratory study*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.
- Roberts, R., Zeidner, M., & Matthews, G. (2001). Does emotional intelligence meet traditional standards for an intelligence? Some new data and conclusions. *Emotion*, 1, 196-231.
- Rubin, M. (1999). *Emotional intelligence and its role in mitigating aggression: A correlational study of the relationship between emotional intelligence and aggression in urban adolescents*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Immaculata College, Immaculata, Pennsylvania.
- Saphier, J. (2005). Masters of motivation. In Dufour, R., Eaker, R. & Dufour, R. (Eds.), *On common ground: The power of professional learning communities* (pp. 31-43). Bloomington, IN: National Education Service.

- Saucier, G., & Goldberg, L. R. (1998). What is beyond the Big Five? *Journal of Personality*, 66, 495-524.
- Schmoker, M. (1999). *Results: The key to continuous school improvement*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Schmoker, M. (2006). *Results now: How we can achieve unprecedented improvements in teaching and learning*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Schultz, C.A. (2005). *Instructional leadership in the elementary school: An investigation of the emotional connectedness between principal and teacher, from a teacher's perspective*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Loyola University, Chicago, Illinois.
- Schutte, N.S., Malouff, J.M., Hall, L.E., Haggerty, D.J., Cooper, J.T., Golden, C.J., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 25, 167-177.
- Sebring, P.B., & Bryk, A.S. (2000). School leadership and the bottom line in Chicago. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 81, 440-443.
- Sencibaugh, J. (1996). *Leadership styles and personality types of Missouri school superintendents*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Saint Louis University, Saint Louis, MO.
- Sparks, D. (2005). *Leading for transformation in teaching, learning, and relationships*. In Dufour, R., Eaker, R. & Dufour, R. (Eds.), *On common ground: The power of professional learning communities* (pp. 31-43). Bloomington, IN: National Education Service.
- Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Strahan, D. (2003). Promoting a collaborative professional culture in three elementary schools that have beaten the odds. *The Elementary School Journal*, 104(2), 127-146.
- Stuft, W. D. (1996). Assessing your emotional IQ. *Teaching Music*, 4, 42-43.
- Supovitz, J. A. (2002). Developing communities of instructional practice. *Teachers College Record*, 104(8), 1591-1626.
- Taylor, F. (1947). *Scientific management*. New York: Harper.

- Texas Education Agency. (2006). *Glossary for the Academic Excellence Indicator System*. Retrieved March 2, 2007 from <http://www.tea.state.tx.us/perfreport/aeis/2006/glossary.html>
- Wagner, T. (2001). Leadership for learning: An action theory of school change. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 82(5), 378-383.
- Waters, J. T., Marzano, R. J., & McNulty, B. A. (2003). *Balanced leadership: What 30 years of research tells us about the effect of leadership on student achievement*. Aurora, CO: Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning.
- Weisenbach, J.L. (2004). *An investigation of the relationship between principal's personality and a school's organizational climate in Lutheran elementary schools in Michigan*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Central Michigan University, Mount Pleasant, Michigan.
- Whitaker, T. (2003). *What great principals do differently: Fifteen things that matter most*. Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.
- Wise, A. (2004). Teaching teams: A 21<sup>st</sup>-century paradigm for organizing America's schools. *Education Week*, 24(5), 43.
- Wolff, S.B., Druskat, V.U., Koman, E.S., & Messer, T.E. (2006). The link between group emotional competence and group effectiveness. In V. Druskat, F. Sala, & G. Mount (Eds.), *Linking emotional intelligence and performance at work* (pp. 223-242). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Yeager, E.L. (2005). *Relationships between leadership behaviors of Texas high school principals and campus accountability measures*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University – Corpus Christi, Texas.
- Yukl, G.A., Wall, S., & Lepsinger, R. (1990). Preliminary report on the validation of the management practices survey. In K.E. Clark and M.B. Clark (Eds.), *Measures of leadership* (pp. 223-238). West Orange, NJ: Leadership Library of America.