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Correlation of Emotional Intelligence of School Leaders and School Climate: A Cross-Cultural Comparison Between American and South Korean Schools

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CORRELATION OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF SCHOOL LEADERS AND SCHOOL CLIMATE: A CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISON BETWEEN AMERICAN AND SOUTH KOREAN SCHOOLS

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Title: Correlation of Emotional Intelligence of School Leaders and School Climate: A Cross-Cultural Comparison Between American and South Korean Schools

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The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the emotional intelligence of school principals and the school climate as perceived by the teachers. The study focuses on the assumption that to be an effective school leader, a principal requires emotional-intelligence skills. Possessing these skills will help administrators to create and maintain positive relationships with teachers and facilitate a positive school climate. The study also compares the emotional intelligence and school climate of two cultures, namely American and South Korean. Quantitative data was collected using the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Intelligence Test to measure the emotional intelligence of school principals and the Revised School Level Environment Questionnaire to measure school climate. Qualitative interviews were conducted to expand upon the quantitative data. The findings of the study show that quantitatively there was no correlation between principals' emotional intelligence and school climate in either culture. However, qualitative findings did suggest that American and South Korean principals use emotional intelligence skills to develop and maintain a positive school climate.

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INTRODUCTION

Emotional Intelligence, Leadership, and School Climate

School leaders everywhere are constantly involved with some type of school-improvement initiative. These may be a result of national, state, or district mandates, or schools may be accommodating the changing needs of the students and families they are serving. It is apparent that school leaders alone do not possess the resources, the needed expertise, or time to accomplish this complex task. Building administrators often rely on other constituents within the organization, such as teachers, to help them solve problems, attain goals, and implement building initiatives. It is therefore most advantageous for a school leader to create and maintain a school climate that fosters a positive and productive work environment. Developing and honing emotional intelligence to nurture positive relationships and a prosperous climate is an increasingly important asset for a principal to possess.

Many studies in public educational settings focus on school climate and the factors that influence it (Black, 2010; Leithwood, 2005; McBrien and Brandt, 1997). According to these researchers, the school administration has a significant impact on creating and maintaining the school climate. This study examines how an administrator might improve school climate by specifically investigating whether a connection exists between the emotional intelligence of principals and the school climate as perceived by the teachers. This connection will be analyzed in both an American and a Korean public school system.

Background of Emotional Intelligence

Prior to describing the investigation to determine the link between emotional intelligence and school climate as perceived by teachers, the researcher will elaborate on the theory of emotional intelligence and how it has emerged as a noteworthy approach to predicting a person's potential success in life. Gardner, in his 1983 book *Frames of Mind*, explained that intelligence goes far beyond the concept of the Intelligence Quotient (IQ), which is meant to measure one's ability to think rationally to solve problems. Gardner (1983) makes it apparent that this monolithic view of intelligence is not comprehensive enough to predict one's success in life. He proposed seven varieties of intelligences, including two academic types, namely verbal and mathematical/logical, as well as spatial, kinesthetic, musical, inter-personal, and intra-personal intelligences. It is important to note that Gardner emphasizes that the variety of intelligences is not fixed but relative and refutable, but his idea concerning the many varieties of human intelligence offers a more diverse and richer view of a person's intellectual qualities and potential.

The focus on the IQ score alone does not capture the broad capabilities of an individual. To the contrary, focusing on a variety of possible individual strengths, as with Gardner's multifaceted measure of intelligence, seems to have merit. Gardner conducted a study on students to determine if there was a link between IQ scores and the multiple intelligence categories he proposed. Students were assessed for intelligence using both an IQ test, specifically the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale, and the Spectrum Battery Test which measures Gardner's facets of intelligence. The results of the study showed no significant connection between the students' scores on the two tests. In addition, the data showed that

those students scoring high on the IQ test possessed varying profiles on Gardner's intelligence spectrum. Some of the students showed strengths in only one area such as logical thinking or musical intelligence, while others possessed two or more areas of strength. Gardner's conclusion emphasized that IQ is not an accurate predictor of performance on or across any facet of his intelligence categories. However, the intelligence spectrum proposed by Gardner does help with predicting one's area of interest, which could possibly lead to going beyond proficiency to mastery of a skill or area of interest (Goleman, 1995).

As Gardner (1993) refined his ideas concerning multiple intelligences, he described in more detail the concept of personal intelligences, stating:

> Interpersonal intelligence is the ability to understand other people: what motivates them, how they work, and how to work cooperatively with them. Successful salespeople, politicians, teachers, clinicians, and religious leaders are all likely to be individuals with high degrees of interpersonal intelligence. Intrapersonal intelligence is a correlative ability, turned inward. It is a capacity to form an accurate, veridical model of oneself and to be able to use that model to operate effectively in life. (p. 39)

Gardner (1993) points out that interpersonal intelligence relies on the "capacities to discern and respond appropriately to the moods, temperaments, motivations, and desires of other people." He also emphasizes that intrapersonal intelligence, which revolves around knowing oneself, includes "access to one's own feelings and the ability to discriminate among them and draw upon them to guide behavior " (Goleman, 1995, p. 39).

The intellectual significance of emotions has perplexed social psychologists over the years. Thorndike attempted to make a connection between these two domains during the

1920s and 1930s. He proposed that emotional intelligence included a social aspect (social intelligence) and this included the ability to relate to others and act effectively in relationships with them. Other psychologists during that time believed that those who possessed manipulation skills could be considered socially intelligent. However, until the 1960s, the idea of social intelligence as a measurable quality of intelligence was considered weak (Goleman, 1995).

Although social intelligence for many years was considered futile to study, personal intelligence could not be completely ignored by psychologists. Sternberg (1985) completed a study asking people to describe the qualities of an intelligent person. A common thread to the responses was possessing practical people skills. This led Sternberg to believe that social intelligence is a personal asset, different from academic intelligence, which can lead to success in life. This coincides with Thorndike's assertions concerning social intelligence. Psychologists Peter Salovey and John Mayer, both followers of Gardner and Thorndike, extend on these connections between emotions and intelligence and describe how possessing emotional intelligence can lead to success in life.

Brackett, Mayer, and Salovey (2004) have defined emotional intelligence as "the ability to monitor and regulate one's own and others' feelings, and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions." p (*i*) Goleman (1998) describes the five fundamental domains that expand upon this definition:

- Self-awareness: Knowing what we are feeling in the moment and using those preferences to guide our decision-making; having a realistic assessment of our own abilities and a well-grounded sense of self-confidence;

- Self-regulation: Handling our emotions so that they facilitate rather than interfere with the task at hand; being conscientious and delaying gratification to pursue goals; recovering well from emotional distress;
- Motivation: Using our deepest preferences to move and guide us toward our goals, to help us take initiative and strive to improve and persevere in the face of setbacks and frustrations;
- Empathy: Sensing what people are feeling, being able to take their perspective, and cultivating rapport and attunement with a broad diversity of people;
- Social Skills: Handling emotions in relationships well and accurately reading social situations and networks; interacting smoothly; using these skills to persuade and lead, negotiate and settle disputes, for cooperation and teamwork. (p. 318)

Goleman (1995) notes that abilities in each of these domains will differ from one person to another. For example, a person may be adept with handling stress and anxiety; however, the same person may have difficulty with handling the emotions of another person. Goleman also emphasizes that shortcomings in any given domain can be overcome.

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

Bar-On and Parker (2000) focus on the need to use emotional intelligence constructively. Emotional information is described as the subjective reactions or responses to people, including the emotional information conveyed to others. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) expand on this concept and state that emotional intelligence involves taking in and processing emotional data and it incorporates an array of skills or abilities. These

include the ability to perceive emotions, retrieve and generate emotions to assist, support, and understand thinking and reasoning concerning emotion, and monitor and regulate emotions to grow both intellectually and emotionally.

A broader concept of emotional intelligence explained by Goleman (1995) expands on the possession of mental abilities or skills and includes using these abilities for emotional awareness. In social situations, this awareness concerns behaviors such as impulse control, persistence, motivation, empathy, and social dexterity. Social awareness involves the awareness of the present or anticipated emotional state on oneself and/or others. For example, to be persistent, one must have the ability to overcome negative emotional feelings to take on an obstacle, a challenge, or adversity with the intent to achieve a goal. One must have the ability to recognize personal negative feelings in order to act on them in a positive way and at the same time be able to suppress avoidance reactions.

It is apparent that in addition to possessing intellectual strengths, leaders who possess emotional intelligence or work to improve in this area will create a more productive work environment. These individuals will inevitably be sought out by employers who are looking for strong leaders who will get things done. Goleman (2002), in a study involving global companies, healthcare organizations, academic institutions, and government agencies, assessed the personal capabilities of leaders and how they influenced and fostered outstanding performance. The study grouped the performance of leaders into three basic categories including technical skills, cognitive abilities (analytic reasoning), and emotional intelligence. The leaders were extensively surveyed and interviewed, and their competencies were methodically compared to identify the most successful leaders. The data analysis showed that the IQ-type competencies, including intellect, cognitive skills, and visionary

thinking, were identifiable characteristics of the most successful, higher ranking leaders in the study sample. However, the most remarkable finding showed that EI-type competencies identified in these most successful leaders significantly overshadowed the IQ-type competencies which all leaders possessed. These findings indicate that the leaders considered to be star performers possessed increased competencies involving EI. Specifically, 85 percent of the differences in the profiles of these leaders related to EI factors rather than cognitive abilities and technical expertise. This leads to the conclusion that higher-level leadership positions in these organizations require individuals who not only necessarily possess cognitive and technical skills but also emotional intelligence.

Meisler and Vigodo-Gadot (2010) conducted a study that contested the ideas of focusing purely on rational thinking and decision-making in public management positions. The study specifically examined the relationship between EI, organizational politics (perceptions of politics and political skills), and the work outcomes of public employees. The researchers used a survey method to measure the following variables among employees in two Israeli municipalities: emotional intelligence, perceptions of organizational politics, political skills inventory, job satisfaction, and emotional commitment to public service, burnout, exit intentions, negligent behavior, and public personnel absenteeism. Data analysis testing relationships among these variables showed a direct positive relationship between EI and job satisfaction, affirming the idea that healthy emotional constructs and EI in public employees leads to job satisfaction. Therefore, the authors state that EI can be considered a performance indicator concerning the quality of public services. A negative relationship existed between EI and the other work outcomes, namely burnout, exit intentions, and negligent conduct, all of which play a key role in promoting positive services to citizens.

The authors describe this as an indirect role of EI in understanding work outcomes, performance, and political skills of these employees. These, as well as job satisfaction, may be improved by improving emotional intelligence.

Emotions at a team level are powerful. The phenomenon of emotional contagion reflects how the mood amongst a group of people can be either positive or negative, and this state can be a direct result of one particular person (Caruso & Salovey, 2004). An experimental study completed by Barside (2002) demonstrates the power of emotional contagion in the workplace. In this experiment, an end-of-the-year bonus forum was simulated. Several groups were assigned to negotiate the largest possible bonus for their workers, but at the same time use discretion in decisions affecting the institution's best interest. An unknown player was planted in this experimental population and "acted" positively with some of the groups and negatively with others. A video of these interactions demonstrated that the plant had impacted the mood of each group. When the plant acted negatively with groups, each of these groups as a whole became more negative. When acting positively with other groups, these groups began to have a more positive outlook. When interviewed, the participants stated that they did realize that their moods had changed; however, they could not identify the reason. Moreover, those groups with the positive attitudes proved to be more cooperative than those possessing more negative attitudes. This study implies that applying emotional contagion in certain situations is a potentially useful skill for an emotionally intelligent manager.

It is apparent that the mood of a leader can be contagious and affect those individuals working around or with the leader. Caruso and Salovey (2004) acknowledge that a leader's

feelings influence others and impact their behaviors. Emotions in the workplace have a significant impact on judgments and decisions, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, problem solving, and attaining goals, all of which influence the overall climate in the workplace.

In regard to developing future leadership effectiveness, Goleman, Boyatzis, and Mckee (2002) describe a study undertaken in 2000 at Johnson and Johnson, a leading pharmaceutical company. The company CEO intended to identify future generations of potentially effective leaders. The study specifically looked at 358 mid-career executives, who were divided into two groups. One group was comprised of high-potential managers as demonstrated by their early success in the corporation. The second group was comprised of less-high-performing executives. The performance of these employees was rated by three executives familiar with their work. Each group included men and women as well as a cross-cultural spread of employees. The emotional intelligence of these leaders was assessed using the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI). The competencies measured by the ECI include four basic categories including self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills (Boyatsis, 1999). The study found that those executives in the high potential group possessed all of the competencies as described in the ECI assessment. On the other hand, the executives in the opposing group possessed few competencies as described in the ECI assessment. These findings imply that emotional competencies are factors that compel excellence among this distinct high-performing group. Gender and culture were represented in both groups and therefore were not variables to be considered for potential highly successful leaders.

Based on the Meisler and Vigado-Gadot study (2010), one can deduce that EI is an indicator of job performance and job satisfaction. This, coupled with the idea of emotional contagion as described by Barside (2002), which showed that emotions can be contagious at the group level, indicates that emotional intelligence for a leader is important for two reasons. First, EI is required for a leader to be happy or satisfied with his or her position and perform at least adequately in the leadership role. Moreover, by possessing certain EI competencies, leaders have the gift of motivating people to do their best at the job. In addition, Goleman's description of the Johnson and Johnson (2002) study concerning generating long-lived effective leaders shows that possessing emotional intelligence, as measured by possessing a multitude of emotional competencies, is an indicator of the potential success of a leader and perhaps his or her longevity in the role. Furthermore, the possession of these competencies is independent of gender, culture, or nationality. Emotional Intelligence can therefore be considered a significant asset to measure as one hires or retains a manager or leader, as it is an indicator of the future success of an organization.

Models of Emotional Intelligence

Two main models are used to assess and understand emotional intelligence. The first includes the ability approach, where emotional intelligence is viewed as a set of cognitive skills. The second involves the mixed approach, which combines abilities with personality traits. Both models have strengths as well as limitations (Caruso, Mayer, & Salovey, 2003).

The ability model, as described by Caruso and Salovey (2004) in their book *The Emotionally Intelligent Manager*, infers that effective leadership requires a balance of both

rational thinking and emotional intelligence. In addition to intellectual talent, Caruso and Salovey describe four emotional skills a leader must develop. These include:

> Read People: *Identifying Emotions.* Emotions contain data. They are signals to us about important events going on in our world, whether it's our internal world, social world, or the natural environment. We must accurately identify emotions in others and be able to convey and express emotions accurately to others in order to communicate effectively.
>
> Get in the Mood: *Using Emotions.* How we feel influences how we think and what we think about. Emotions direct our attention to important events; they ready us for certain actions, and they help guide our thought processes as we solve problems.
>
> Predict the Emotional Future: *Understanding Emotions.* Emotions are not random events. They have underlying causes, they change according to a set of rules, and they can be understood. Knowledge of emotions is reflected by our emotional vocabulary and our ability to conduct emotional what-if analysis.
>
> Do it with Feeling: *Managing Emotions*. Because emotions contain information and influence thinking, we need to incorporate emotions intelligently into our reasoning, problem solving, judging, and behaving. This requires us to stay open to emotions, whether they are welcome or not, and to choose strategies that include the wisdom of our feelings. (pp. 25 - 26)

Caruso and Salovey (2004) note that although each of these skills can be considered independent and can be measured independently, each skill is considered to be inter-related

with the others, and developing each one helps with using all emotional skills more effectively to solve problems

There are strengths to using the ability model for assessing emotional intelligence. For one, it focuses on how emotions can foster adaptive behavior and thinking. Second, emotional intelligence traits can be measured objectively. Finally, the ability model provides insight concerning the understanding and implications of emotional intelligence and leadership. It is important to note that the ability model is only one model among many of emotional intelligence. Significantly, the model does not consider the products of emotional intelligence. These products are defined as outcomes, rather than inherent traits, such as building bonds between people and commitment. The ability model is therefore not as effective a predictor as other emotional intelligence models (Mayer & Salovey, 2004).

The mixed models take the ability model a step further by adding other psychological attributes. One model described by Goleman (1995) that was derived from Salovey and Mayer's emotional intelligence model involves five categories, including knowing one's emotions, managing emotions, motivating yourself, recognizing emotions in other people, and handling relationships. Another mixed model described by Goleman (2002) divides emotional intelligence into four broad categories which encompass eighteen competencies. These include Self-Awareness (emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence), Self-Management (self-control, transparency, adaptability, achievement, initiative, and optimism), Social Awareness (empathy, organizational awareness, and service), Relationship Management (influence, developing others, change catalyst, conflict management, and teamwork and collaboration). (pp. 153-156.)

There are some advantages to using the mixed model. One is that it includes a wide scope of traits that identify emotional intelligence. In addition, the model includes the effective practices of leadership roles and human resource professionals and therefore can produce helpful assessments in these two professional realms. A limitation to the mixed model is the grouping of the competencies, which varies and has been revised several times. In addition to the traits and skills used to assess emotional intelligence, the mixed model includes outcomes such as building bonds and commitment, which are considered to be products of emotional intelligence rather than innate skills or traits (Mayer & Salovey, 2004).

Utilizing the ability model of emotional intelligence provides researchers with a unique conceptual approach to understanding leadership and the means to improve organizational effectiveness. The ability model views emotional intelligence as being based on a set of skills or abilities, and therefore the ability model measures emotional intelligence using performance measures in lieu of self-report measurements. The data collected for these models, which are regarded as ability or skill sets, can be measured for reliability as well as convergent and divergent validity (Caruso, Mayer, & Salovey, 2003).

One ability-based scale, the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) developed by (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 1997), directly measures emotional skills including managing and using emotions. This scale has been used for team leadership research by Rice (1999). In his study, Rice used the ability approach to emotional intelligence to see if there was a correlation between emotional intelligence and team performance. Rice gave the MEIS to 164 insurance company employees who were divided into 26 teams and a total of 11 team leaders. The teams and team leaders were rated on six

variables including customer service, accuracy of claims processing, productivity, and commitment to improvement, team leader performance, and team performance. The emotional intelligence score was computed and analyzed for each of the leaders, as was an average emotional intelligence score for each of the 26 teams. Department managers ranked the overall effectiveness for the 26 teams and the 11 leaders. The findings showed a significant positive relationship between customer service and the team emotional intelligence (r=.46), between emotional intelligence and manager-ranked effectiveness of the team leader (r=.34), and the emotional intelligence of the team leader and the managers' ranking of the leaders' effectiveness (r = .54). This was one of the first studies using the ability approach and the MEIS scale that illustrated that emotional intelligence is a factor in the effectiveness of team performance (Brackett, Mayer, & Salovey, 2004).

A newer scale based on the ability model of emotional intelligence is the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test, Version 2.0 (MCEIT). This assessment of emotional intelligence measures four basic skill groups including perceiving emotion accurately, using emotion to facilitate cognitive activities, understanding emotion, and managing emotion (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Both the MSCEIT and the MEIS are based on the premise that emotional intelligence requires problem solving with and about emotions.

Another model for assessing emotional intelligence, which involves identifying competencies, is called the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI). According to Brackett, Mayer, and Salovey (2004), when measuring the emotional intelligence of a leader, addressing the role of emotional intelligence is imperative. Emotional intelligence is not necessarily an important component of leadership, especially across different professions. Therefore, when analyzing the role of emotional intelligence with a competency model for

leadership, the researcher must also analyze the nature of the leadership position, describe the emotional intelligence model being employed, list the specific emotional skills included in the competency model, and show that the emotional skills are relevant to the specific leadership position. In other words, the specific leadership competencies or skills must be described for a given leadership position. The ECI is a 360-degree measure that assesses the emotional competencies of both individuals and organizations. People who know the individual complete the ECI 2.0 to offer ratings of that person's abilities concerning a number of emotional competencies. The ECI 2.0 specifically measures 18 competencies that are subdivided into four distinct categories including self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. According to Boyatiz and Sala (2004), the ECI 2.0 has an internal consistency of 0.34 to 0.77.

Byrne (2002) measured the construct validity of the Emotional Competence Inventory (2.0) using 325 male and female students enrolled in graduate programs at three different universities. Data concerning age, gender, ethnicity, and years of work experience were collected. Byrne posed the following research questions:

- Does ECI have significant and meaningful relationships with outcome measures related to leadership and other aspects of work-related behavior?
- Are the ECI measures distinct from measures of personality and cognitive ability?
- Does ECI explain variance in leadership and other aspects of work-related behavior that is not explained by personality and cognitive measures? (The Emotional Competence Inventory Manual, Wolff, 2005, p. 12)

ECI construct validity includes relationships among the following variables: (1) the competencies that describe emotional intelligence as outlined by Goleman (2002), (2) the Big Five personality factors outlined by Costa and McCrae (1990; 1992), (3) the Managerial Skills Questionnaire (MSQ) by Smither and Seltzer (2001), and (4) cognitive abilities as demonstrated by standardized tests and scholastic achievement. All participants in the study were currently or previously employed in a number of organizations for an average of approximately eight years. The resulting data supported the construct validity for the ECI in that confirmatory factor-analysis data implied that the ECI measures a set of factors and those factors are distinctively different than personality variables. Results also indicated that the ECI was a predictor of leadership-related work behavior and accounted for significant variance in performance when the variables of age and personality were controlled. This study also conveyed convergent, discriminant, and internal validities (Wolff, 2005).

Emotional Intelligence across Cultures

Since emotional intelligence has been linked to both productive leadership and positive work environments (Barside, 2002; Goleman, 2002; Goleman, Boyatiz, & McKee, 2002; Meisler & Vigado-Gadot, 2010), investigating how emotional intelligence plays a role in leadership positions across cultures is a worthwhile endeavor.

As businesses across the world are moving more toward a global business model, cultural differences and cannot be ignored. Success in promoting effective business relationships among organizations in different countries is paramount for a global economy to grow and succeed (Adler, 2002). According to Hofstede (1997), the behavior of people in an organization is a result of the surrounding culture. Leung (2005) states that specific cultural

characteristics or norms significantly impact the management and leadership selection and style. Moreover, he states that what may be considered effective leadership in one cultural setting may not be in another cultural setting or environment.

An exploratory research study conducted by Karounos and Reilly (2009) focused on emotional intelligence and leadership skills in a cross-cultural setting. The researchers suggested that a leader can attain organizational goals better when the leader is acquainted with the culture of a country and has the ability to incorporate at least one of the emotional intelligence competencies matching those of the specific culture. The study specifically examined whether similar ideas of effective leadership were apparent across different cultures. The researcher's sample included managers from four cultural clusters, or groups of countries sharing many cultural similarities. The clusters included an Anglo cluster (Australia, Canada, England, and Ireland), a Latin European cluster (France, French Switzerland, Italy, Portugal, and Spain), an Eastern European cluster (Albania, Georgia, Greece, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Poland, Russia, and Slovenia), and a Southern Asian cluster (India, Indonesia, Iran, Malaysia, Philippines, and Thailand). The researchers surveyed mid- to upper-level sales managers from each of the clusters. The survey was comprised of 15 Likert-scale questions that rated the importance of technical skills, cognitive skills, and the emotional intelligence of leaders. Specific questions addressed the subcomponents of emotional intelligence traits including social skills, participative leadership, and self-awareness. (Goleman, 1998).

Karounos and Reilly (1998) found that of the five components of emotional intelligence described by Goleman (1998), including self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills, the social skills component was consistently identified by the

managers as the ideal leader trait. As Goleman (1998) states, social skills include the ability to manage relationships effectively while developing networks and being able to get people to compromise, which entails building rapport with members. Most managers found that social skills are important, especially when adapting to a different cultural setting. Another noteworthy finding from the Anglo cluster suggested that emotional intelligence includes motivation as a significant trait for leadership success. Motivation was deemed important because businessmen who are required to live and/or travel internationally must make personal sacrifices to do so, and this involves the motivation and enthusiasm to prioritize this decision as important and worthwhile. The study found that other cultures such as those of Latin Europe were not fond of making this sacrifice as they prioritized family and interests other than work as more important. The Southern Asian cluster demonstrated that a transformational and charismatic leadership style was most effective, along with social and team-building skills. The Latin European cluster also indicated that transformational and charismatic leadership styles were important, along with social skills and a visionary outlook. Among Eastern Europeans, empathy was found to be least important.

The results of the Karounos and Reilly (2009) study support prior research that promotes the need for a successful leader to possess emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995, 1998) The study also suggests that one specific emotional intelligence trait, social skills, seems to be critical to successful global leadership. Creating and maintaining long-term relationships is imperative for success within and beyond the institution. It is therefore necessary to observe specific emotional intelligence traits that make leaders successful as they communicate with staffs and develop relationships as well as gain rapport with their own personnel.

Since specific traits of emotional intelligence have been identified as imperative for successful leadership (Karounos and Reilly, 2009), it would be beneficial to observe how the emotional intelligence of leaders is related to the climate of an institution such as in public school systems. Moreover, it would be informative and beneficial to observe the similarities and differences in this relationship in different cultures. This information could lead to implications concerning the leadership attributes that may create, hinder, or destroy the relationships, social networks, social dynamics, and the overall communication among all constituents in the educational institution. Furthermore, it may determine the success or failure of the school climate or even the organization itself. It is beneficial not only to reflect on the educational practices in the United States but also to observe those of other cultures. These observations will allow educators to gain the insight, knowledge, and skills to make decisions that will enhance the educational system of the United States.

Significance of Study

Leadership, Emotional Intelligence, and School Climate across Two Cultures

Researchers have defined school climate in several ways. Hoy and Miskel (2005) define it as "the set of internal characteristics that distinguish one school from another and influence the behaviors of each school's members." Kottkamp (1984) defines school climate as "shared values and interpretations of social activities, and commonly held definitions of purpose." McBrien and Brandt (1997) find that school climate refers to "the sum of the values, cultures, safety practices, and organizational structures within a school that cause it to function and react in particular ways." They also emphasize that climate is influenced by many factors such as teaching methodology, diversity, and administrative and teacher relationships. Furthermore, climate is mostly associated with the school's influence on its

students and culture and the platform from which administrators, teachers, and staff work together.

Peterson and Deal (2002) feel that school climate is the key to school success, noting "teachers and students are more likely to succeed in a culture that fosters hard work, commitment to valued ends, an attention to problem solving and a focus on learning for all students" (p. 9). Some educational leaders believe that when a transformational leader heads an organization, productive and meaningful relationships between administrators and teachers are fostered, leading to a positive and productive climate, a climate where teachers are committed to organizational achievement and are goal oriented. As a result, school-change and reform initiatives are more attainable. With this in mind, the building of positive relationships between school leaders and teachers can be considered as a core component of effective leadership, and a leader must possess the tools and skills to make this happen.

Enhancing school climate is an effort worth pursuing. Schools that possess successful climates are continually striving to create the most effective environments to meet the demands of today's changing world (Childs and Hansen, 1998). The principal, as the school leader, has a significant responsibility to create, nurture, and maintain a positive school climate. Moore (2009) emphasizes the importance of a principal's influence on school climate and the need for possessing emotional intelligence:

> In order to cultivate a culture that challenges the status quo and expects excellence, school leaders need to learn, develop, and demonstrate high levels of emotional intelligence. Studying emotional intelligence provides leaders with the awareness necessary to meet the needs of a staff that is engaged in developing a common vision for their school, maintaining a focus on high achievement for all students, and

> creating school cultures of trust and respect. Leadership continues to be a focal point for school reform so policy makers and institutions of higher education need to act on the research that shows the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership. (p. 20)

A principal's role is challenging and requires a dynamic approach to leadership that involves building positive relationships, resulting in a positive and productive climate. Moore (2009) reports that even though leadership is an integral component in overall school success, professional development, feedback, and coaching that foster insight and recommendations for improvement for school leaders are limited. Principals, as leaders, encounter daily frustrations related to problem solving, overcoming long-term and daily challenges, implementing goals and initiatives, and maneuvering through the change process. Principals equipped with emotional intelligence will possess a better ability to take on and respond to these frustrations (Sergiovanni, 1992). Fullan (2002) states that emotions can run high, and when taking on the change process, principals need to acquire emotional intelligence skills along with fostering positive relationships. Therefore, one important part of this study is determining whether there is a relationship between the school climate and a principal's emotional intelligence.

It is apparent that, as a leader, the school principal has the challenge to create a climate that enhances the success of the school. It seems that relationships play a significant role in this endeavor. A principal must hone inter-personal and intra-personal skills to help build positive relationships leading to a productive school climate. Therefore this research contributes to the existing empirical data by investigating how emotional intelligence is related to the school climate as perceived by teachers.

The American public school system is continually evolving and modifying its goals and initiatives, and other nations and cultures possess the same motivations (McGill 2007). For example, South Korea is a nation which emphasizes education as the true means to success, and it has created a society that is motivated to succeed in this endeavor. With a literacy rate of 96 percent, one of the world's highest, South Korea puts great focus on its educational system. It has mandatory secondary education, a growing system of post-secondary colleges and universities needed to accommodate the demand for placements, and centralized financing for schools. It is therefore of great interest and importance to ascertain the relationship between the emotional intelligence of school leaders and the school climate as perceived by teachers in Korean schools compare it to those aspects in the American public school system (McGill, 2007).

To measure the emotional intelligence of principals, the researcher will use the most recent ability-based scale, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test 2.0 (MSCEIT). This test is a revised and improved scale based on previous versions, namely the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Test (MEIS). The MSCEIT scales demonstrate relatively high levels of reliability. The Four MSCEIT branch scores, which include perception, facilitating, understanding, and management of emotion, rely on different tasks and make up different item forms. Because of this, split-half reliability coefficients are used for statistical analysis. The test-retest reliability for the MSCEIT is recorded at $r(60) = 0.86$ (Brackett & Mayer, 2001).

To measure school climate as perceived by the teachers, the researcher will administer the Revised School Level Environment Questionnaire (R-SLEQ). This has been reported by Johnson, Stevens, and Zvoch (2007) to be an effective tool for researchers who

seek to investigate teachers' perceptions of school climate. In addition, the authors also state that it is useful for investigating relationships between teachers' perceptions of school climate and other factors. For example, Goddard, LoGerfo, and Hoy (2004) conducted a study using this instrument to determine the correlation between school climate as perceived by teachers and the collective efficacy of teachers.

The R-SLEQ is an instrument that specifically measures teachers' perceptions of psychosocial dimensions of the school environment. It is composed of a 56-item Likert-scale questionnaire scored on a five-point scale. The scales are grouped into eight categories including student support, affiliation, professional interest, staff freedom, participatory decision-making, innovation, resource adequacy, and work pressure. This tool possesses validity, as it was tested on 83 teachers from 19 elementary and secondary schools in Australia. The data showed that each SLEQ category possesses satisfactory internal consistency and validity results. Alpha coefficients for each category ranged from 0.7 to 0.91, 0.68 to 0.91, and 0.64 to 0.85 in three different samples (Fisher & Fraser, 1990).

Purpose of the Study

This study intends to investigate the correlation between the emotional intelligence of school leaders and school climate as perceived by teachers. The purpose of this study is to determine whether there are cross-cultural differences concerning the correlation of the emotional intelligence of school leaders and the school climate between American and Korean school systems. Possessing high EI is associated with having respect, compassion, and understanding for others, as well as the ability to read the emotions of others (Mayer and Salovey, 1993). Therefore, is apparent that a principal can use EI to communicate and collaborate with teachers to solve problems, attain goals, and maintain a constructive

school climate. Measuring the EI of school leaders as well as the school climate as perceived by teachers they lead will provide insight into how EI affects school climate. The researcher seeks to determine the correlation between a school leader's EI and the school climate as perceived by the teachers. The researcher will analyze this correlation in an American public school system and a Korean public school system to determine the similarities and differences.

Statement of the Problem

We live in a global society that is competitive in many ways, among them economically, politically, and academically. Every nation seeks to create productive and competitive citizens to gain an advantageous position in the global hierarchy (Adler, 2002). Many governments try to provide the necessary funding and resources for public educational institutions to stay competitive, and educational institutions are involved with reform or school-improvement initiatives. For example, in the United States, public school districts must have plans that set standards and guidelines that will improve management, instruction, and student achievement. Principals are key catalysts in planning, facilitating, and assessing the implementation of school goals and initiatives. Furthermore, school leaders such as principals and vice principals must manage and contend with changes as they inevitably and arbitrarily come. To be efficient and effective, principals must rely on the knowledge, skills, and expertise of the teachers and staff they hire and maintain. It is therefore imperative for school leaders to create, monitor, and preserve a climate where positive relationships are fostered, morale is high, and a strong work ethic is paramount. When leaders understand the importance of emotional intelligence and strive to improve their own emotional intelligence, they can easily hone their own inter- and intra-personal skills to create an environment

where the school personnel work collaboratively to solve problems and make productive decisions.

Research Questions

1) Is there a correlation between the emotional intelligence of school leaders and the school climate as perceived by the teachers?
2) Is the emotional intelligence of school leaders related to age, gender, or years of experience?
3) How do American public schools compare to South Korean public schools concerning school climate, emotional intelligence, and the relationship between emotional intelligence and school climate?

Definitions

Emotional Intelligence. The ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions (Brackett, Mayer, & Salovey, 2004).

Interpersonal Intelligence. Intelligence that is a part of emotional intelligence and refers to "the ability to understand people, what motivates them, how they work, and how to work cooperatively with them (Goleman, 1995, p.9)."

*Intrapersonal intelligence. "*Intelligence that is a part of emotional intelligence and refers to the capacity to form an accurate, veridical model of oneself and to be able to use that model to operate effectively in life (Goleman, 1995. P.9)."

MSCEIT. "The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test. This is a four-factor intelligence-test model that tests for the following: (1) differentiation between emotional expressions; (2) the use of emotions to facilitate decision-making and problem-solving; (3) the understanding of complex relationships among emotions; and (4) solving emotional problems without suppressing negative emotions (Mayer, et al., 2002)."

School Climate. The set of internal characteristics that distinguishes one school from another and influences the behaviors of each school's members (Hoy and Miskel, 2005); shared values and interpretations of social activities, and commonly held definitions of purpose (Kottkamp, 1984); and the sum of the values, cultures, safety practices, and organizational structures within a school that cause it to function and react in particular ways (McBrien & Brandt, 1997).

R-SLEQ. Revised-School-Level-Environment Questionnaire. The R-SLEQ is an instrument that specifically measures teachers' perceptions of psychosocial dimensions of the school environment. It is composed of a 56-item Likert-scale questionnaire scored on a five-point scale (Fisher & Fraser, 1990).

South Korean Public School System. The South Korean public education system is structured into three categories: six years of primary school, three years of middle school, and three years of high school. Classes are becoming more coeducational. The curriculum is standardized and includes nine fundamental subjects including mathematics, science, social studies, Korean language, physical education, music, fine arts, practical arts, and moral education (Diem, Levy, & VanSickle, AsiaSociety.org)

School Leader. The school leaders who participated in this study included both principals and vice-principals. Both American and Korean public school systems structure their educational systems with principals who take on leadership roles at individual schools.

Site Sample and Population

The site selection in this study was conducted through non-random purposive sampling. School leaders were contacted and invited to participate in taking the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) as well as answer interview questions. Teachers employed at the same school of each participating principal were contacted and invited to participate by taking the Revised Level Environment Questionnaire (R-SLEQ). This is a mixed-method study and includes two quantitative surveys. The MSCEIT is a 141 item questionnaire that has four branch scores corresponding to the four-branch ability model. The R-SLEQ is a 21-item Likert-scale questionnaire that measures school climate as perceived by the teachers. It is organized into five categories and includes collaboration, student relations, school resources, decision-making, and instructional innovation.

Assumptions

Goleman (1995) emphasized the importance of emotional intelligence and claimed that it is just as influential as or even more influential than IQ as a predictor for success in life. In terms of leadership, Brackett, Mayer, and Salovey (2004) believe that emotions and emotional intelligence are necessary because they allow leaders to understand and motivate others. They also state that when leaders draw on emotions effectively, they are better at facilitating open-minded decision-making, planning, and brainstorming. Assuming that

leadership involves using and managing emotions, then emotional intelligence must be a significant component of effective and successful leadership.

Emotional intelligence has been linked to strong and effective leadership in schools. A study of urban principals conducted by Williams (2008) found that emotional and social intelligence competencies differed between those principals identified as outstanding and those identified as typical (not outstanding). The outstanding principals were identified as possessing competencies including self-confidence, self-control, consciousness, achievement orientation, initiative, organizational awareness, developing others, influence, analytical thinking, leadership, teamwork/collaboration influence, change-catalyst skills, and conflict management. Another study completed by Parker, Stone and Wood (2005) on principals and vice-principals found that those leaders identified as possessing above-average leadership skills scored higher on overall emotional intelligence as well as emotional intelligence subscales. A case study done by Moore (2007) that investigated the outcomes of emotional intelligence coaching found that school leaders experience a multitude of emotions in their daily routine and emotional intelligence coaching provided benefits for leaders in dealing with these emotions. The school leaders who received coaching for emotional intelligence had improved ratings from others concerning their emotional intelligence, indicating that emotional coaching is a beneficial service to improve leadership. These studies support the belief in the importance of emotional intelligence and leadership.

Characteristics of successful schools can be measured by observing school climate and the factors that influence school climate. A study conducted by Pollard-Durodola (2003) of Wesley Elementary school, a successfully reformed urban school, showed that strong

leadership was a significant factor that led to school success. Moreover, the principal in this school was able to improve the school culture and climate because he was motivating, collaborative, accommodating, and had high expectations. A study done at another elementary school by Strahan et al. (2003) demonstrated that administrators and teachers working cooperatively and sharing responsibilities improved school climate. A study by Allen (2003) also showed that when leaders understand that teachers need to be heard and can communicate their ideas and concerns, school climate is improved. Curry (2009) observed the relationship between school climate and the emotional intelligence of school principals. This study determined that there are several actions that principals can employ to help improve relationships with teachers and therefore improve the climate. Principals should be active listeners and hone and maintain inter- and in-personal skills to help facilitate effective communication; they should be trusting, respectful, kind, compassionate, and empathetic; and they should be visible. The study also found that teachers appreciate when principals celebrate accomplishments. It is therefore helpful for principals to understand their own emotional intelligence and focus on improving it because then they can also improve the school climate.

These studies indicate that school climate is related to a school leader's actions, and these actions influence climate. It can be assumed that a positive school climate requires a positive relationship between school leader and teachers and that the interpersonal skills a principal possesses facilitates this positive relationship. Thus, emotional intelligence plays a key role in creating and maintaining the school climate.

The instruments that were utilized in this study and the interview questions designed by the researcher were translated into Hangeul. It was assumed that the survey questions would translate accurately into Hangeul and be understood by Korean counterparts in the same way as American school leaders and teachers understood them.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study. The emotional intelligence of school leaders was measured only once. It can be assumed that experience on the job as well as in life could lead to improved emotional intelligence scores. Furthermore, the MSCEIT is lengthy in that the on-line version requires at least one hour to complete. Therefore, principals who were rushed or assumed that it could be taken quickly and without much thought could have skewed their scores so that they did not reflect their true emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence is a relatively new concept as a primary component of personality, and one can expect it to be applicable to a multitude of life situations and settings. Therefore, measuring emotional intelligence can provide pertinent and valuable data in various settings including but not limited to corporate, educational, clinical, medical, and research environments. The MSCEIT is a tool that used by researchers, but it can also be valuable for others who seek to understand emotional intelligence and its implications in various environments. Human-resources professionals, organizational consultants, physicians, social workers, guidance and career counselors, and educators are examples of professionals who could find the MSCEIT purposeful and effective (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002).

The participants who took the surveys were drawn from limited populations. A small number of schools that serve children of military spouses located in South Korea took part in this study. A small number of South Korean public schools in northern South Korea also participated. Teachers serving under each participating principal needed to consent to taking the R-SLEQ survey. It was not assumed that all teachers at each participating school would participate. Since participants were volunteers, it was not be assumed that their perceptions of their schools' climates were similar to those who chose not to participate. A study completed by Johnson, Stevens, and Zvoch (2007) which used the R-SLEQ to collect data about the school climate of one school system located in the southwestern United States concluded that although no significant statistical differences existed between respondents and non-respondents concerning ethnicity, years of teaching experience, or educational level, it was plausible that those who did participate by taking the R-SLEQ did so for particular reasons. They may have chosen to complete the survey because they possessed rather strongly positive or negative feelings about the climate of their school. This was also a limitation for this study. Furthermore, like the Johnson et al. study, the results of this study are specific to the populations that were chosen. Therefore, results may be different for schools located elsewhere.

Measuring school climate can be influenced by several factors. These include but are not limited to a teacher's state of mind at the time of the survey, the time of the year, teacher turnover, and external and internal events. The American schools that serve children of military spouses are prone to higher teacher turnover due to hiring practices and the ability and/or necessity for teachers to transfer to other schools located worldwide.

Another limitation relating to the surveys concerned the language and cultural barriers for the Korean participants. The researcher assumed that the survey questions were literally transferable to Hangeul. When interviewing, it was assumed that the translator interpreted the interview questions fully and accurately and the participants understood them in the context of their own school population and environment. A pilot study was conducted to address any language and cultural barriers.

Summary

In summary, emotional intelligence can be defined as the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions (Brackett, Mayer, & Salovey, 2004). As school leaders take on reform initiatives resulting from federal, state, or district mandates and accommodate the needs of the students and communities they are serving, they must realize they cannot do this alone and need the teachers they lead to help with this task. Therefore, creating a positive and productive school climate is integral in facilitating a collaborative effort to ensure success. To accomplish this, it is imperative for school leaders not only to possess expertise in the field of education but also to possess emotional intelligence.

This study involves a cross-cultural comparison between American and South Korean public schools and investigated whether there was a correlation between the emotional intelligence of the school principal and the school climate as perceived by the teachers under that principal. The data collected for the study questions provided insight on the emotional intelligence of school leaders of five American schools that serve children of

military spouses located in South Korea and five Korean Public schools located in South Korea. The following chapters include a comprehensive literature review, the methodology for this study, and presentation and analysis of the data and findings.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Mayer and Salovey (1997) describe emotional intelligence (EI) as a process which incorporates recognition, use, understanding, and management of emotions, including those emotions related to oneself and those of others, to monitor and regulate behavior when problem solving. Emotional intelligence is considered to be a cognitive ability, which unlike general intelligence as measured by IQ, relies on emotional processes influenced by an individual as well as the environment surrounding the individual (Salovey, Brackett, & Mayer, 2004). Emotional intelligence and its relationship to leadership success have been studied in both the public and private business sectors (Goleman, 2002; Meisler & Vigado-Gadat, 2010). The value of an emotionally intelligent leader can be tied to the success of an organization and the endurance of that success (Goleman, Boyatzis, and Mckee, 2002). School-climate studies have linked school success to leadership that involves components found in emotionally intelligent leaders (Leithwood, 2005). It is apparent that leadership traits, including the emotional intelligence of a school leader, may impact school climate and the overall success of the school.

Linking emotional intelligence to leadership effectiveness and success has been explored across cultures. Similarities and differences have been observed, noted, and explained (House, 2004; Reilly & Karounos, 2009; Shipper et al, 2003; Tang et al., 2010). It is apparent that more research will help bridge the gap between identifying cultural influences on leadership style or preferences and how this affects the work environment.

Current research focusing on the significance of emotional intelligence in Korean schools is limited. Since Korea has placed significant focus on its public education system and participates in the competitive global race for success (Ja & Yat Wai Lo, 2008), it is worth investigating how emotional intelligence relates to school leader success. This researcher investigated the cross-cultural differences between Korean public schools and American public schools, focusing on the emotional intelligence of school leaders and the school climate as perceived by the teachers to help gain an understanding of leadership effectiveness in terms of emotional intelligence.

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence as a cognitive ability is an emerging concept, which parallels other theories of cognitive intelligences such as Canter and Kihlstrom's (2000) idea of social intelligence, Sternberg's idea of practical intelligence, and Gardner's concept of multiple intelligences. Psychological research in the 1980s focused on the reciprocal interactions between thoughts and emotions. Studies were conducted to ascertain how thought processes, personal judgment, and cognition can be influenced by mood. Psychologists such as Gardner (2011) promoted the idea that researchers should focus on multiple intelligences, rather than just the concept of IQ alone (Salovey, Brackett, & Mayer, 2004).

The actual term emotional intelligence was defined in 1990 by Salovey and Mayer as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 189). This was followed by empirical research correlating emotion and cognition when processing complex information. Daniel Goleman (1995) made the term and concept of emotional

intelligence familiar to the general public as well as researchers. He claimed that emotional intelligence, more than IQ, had an impact on success in life.

In the past decade, researchers, psychologists, educators, and human-resource specialists have focused on emotional intelligence and its relationship to success in life. For example, Salovey, Brackett. & Mayer (2004) have honed their study of emotional intelligence to a set of abilities which are categorized into four branches and include accurately perceiving and expressing emotion, using emotion to facilitate cognitive abilities, understanding emotions, and managing emotions for both emotional and personal growth (Mayer and Salovey, 2004). Tests that measure the construct of emotional intelligence have been developed and validated. The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) operationalizes the Mayer-Salovey four-branch model. The concept of emotional intelligence as a facet of intelligence and the use of an operational instrument to measure emotional intelligence and its value in given situations has been the focus of many researchers, including but not limited to Gardner (1983), Goleman (1995), and Salovey, Mayer, and Caruso (2002). The researcher in this study investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence of a school principal and the climate of the school headed by that principal.

School Climate

Principals encounter a multitude of issues each day. These include but are not limited to personnel, building maintenance, student, community, and political concerns. In addition to running the day-to-day operations and logistics of the building, a principal is assumed to be knowledgeable about curriculum, discipline strategies, teaching techniques, teacher

evaluations, and professional development, not to mention pressuring teachers to strive for gains in student achievement. It is not unreasonable to say that a principal's job not only requires basic knowledge and skills that pertain directly to the position, but also the ability to create a climate that allows for positive relationships between staff members to manage and/or resolve these issues. The term school climate can be defined in many ways. Kottkamp's (1984) definition focuses on shared values and interpretations of social activities and commonly held definitions of purpose. McBrien and Brandt's (1997) definition focuses on values, cultures, safety issues, and organizational structures that relate to the functioning of the school. The researcher in this study uses Hoy and Miskel's (2005) definition of school climate, which implies that school climate relates to the set of internal characteristics that distinguish one school from another and that influence the behaviors of the school's members.

Since school climate may be related to the functioning of the school as a whole, it is apparent that the leader or leaders of an educational institution have a great impact on facilitating and maintaining the school climate, whether positive or negative. Leithwood (2005) maintains that a successful leader will motivate staff to adhere to a sense of purpose through developing a shared vision, collaborating with colleagues to determine important short-term goals, and demonstrating high expectations for all constituents. It is evident that developing people skills may be an essential asset in promoting relationships and improving climate. Leithwood (2005) also suggests that a leader needs to not only be supportive of colleagues' ideas and goals but also must provide the motivation for colleagues to develop and act on their ideas and goals. Moreover, the "leadership by example" model allows teachers to acquire the values and practices that will enhance school climate.

It is evident that a school leader must take on the task of creating an environment that promotes the success of the institution as a whole. To promote a positive school climate, the leadership role requires possessing emotional intelligence (Moore, 2009). As educational institutions around the world develop and enhance their educational policies and practices, keeping a positive and productive school climate is paramount (Childs & Hanson, 1998). Observing the relationship between the emotional intelligence of the school leader and the school climate is a worthwhile venture because it may provide pertinent insight concerning essential leadership qualities needed to maintain positive relationships and growth toward achieving goals in any school environment across the world.

Cross-Cultural Comparison

Korea is a society that has undertaken democratization and educational reforms. Subsequent to the 1995 presidential election of Kim Young Sam, several educational reforms followed. Social-policy reforms such as new educational initiatives led to developments and democratization in Korea (Ja & Yat Wai Lo, 2008). The need for social reforms (including the education of Korean citizens) has led to the creation of visionary goals to secure and maintain political success (Wong, 2004).

It is understood that educational reforms in Asian countries such as South Korea are in part the result of globalization. A paradigm shift has occurred as many governments across the world have been surrendering their control and influence on education and allowing for a more autonomy so that educational ideas, policies, and procedures can develop. Under this new system, inefficient and unfair bureaucracy is broken down and replaced with a democratic model (Lin, 2004). Seo (2007) notes that the move toward decentralized control

in school governance allows for more diversity, providing opportunities for various interest groups to participate in and enhance an innovative and creative environment. Even so, Asian countries such as South Korea have their own motivations as they become a part of the globalized world (Ja & Yat Wai Lo, 2008).

South Korea, just like the United States, has a national commitment to prepare and encourage students to succeed as adults and contribute to their societies. Intention, appropriate funding, and national purpose drive their system to create and maintain economic and cultural success (McGill, 2007). It is therefore beneficial to ascertain if there is a connection between the emotional intelligence of a school leader and school climate as perceived by teachers in a South Korean school system. This information can be compared to the information collected in an American public school system and may provide valuable insight concerning the effect of leadership on school climate.

The topics in this chapter include a detailed literature review as well as an evaluation of the research on both emotional intelligence and school climate. The researcher also substantiates the need to compare the public schools in the United States to other countries such as those in Korea. Several lead researchers are known for their studies and expertise regarding emotional intelligence. These include but are not limited to Gardner (1983), Goleman (1995), Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (1997), and Salovey, Brackett, and Mayer (2004).

School climate has been studied and measured using the School Level Environment Questionnaire (SLEQ). This instrument was first used in 1982 by Burden and Fraser to measure and analyze school climate and since has been used by various researchers such as

Fraser and Rentoul (1982) and Cresswell and Fisher (1998). There is a lack of research that attempts to correlate the emotional intelligence of school leaders with school climate and do so on a cross-cultural basis.

The literature review focuses on identifying common and emerging themes to assist in answering several research questions. The researcher sought to investigate the following questions:

4) Is there a correlation between the emotional intelligence of school leaders and the school climate as perceived by the teachers?
5) Is the emotional intelligence of school leaders related to age, gender, or years of experience?
6) How do American public schools compare to South Korean public schools concerning school climate, emotional intelligence, and the relationship between emotional intelligence and school climate?

Synthesis of the Literature

Criteria for Selecting the Literature

The literature reflects research in both public and private business sectors, psychological studies, and international public-education studies. The researcher selected studies which collectively support the theme of this research project and provide a background that supports the research questions. In addition, the researcher included some criticisms of emotional intelligence to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the use of emotional intelligence as it relates to relationships and leadership. Specific terms were adopted from the studies included in this literature review and include emotional intelligence,

as measured by the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), and school climate, as measured by the School Level Environment Questionnaire (SLEQ). The researcher elaborates on the emotional intelligence studies and the school climate studies and attempts to show the possibility of a correlation between them. Some studies provide a description of and background to the South Korean Public Educational system. In addition, the researcher elaborates on the cross-cultural differences concerning emotional intelligence.

Context of the Problem

Researchers have postulated that the emotional intelligence of a leader can positively or negatively affect the job environment. This in turn affects productivity, staff loyalty, and overall job satisfaction of all constituents. Many research studies in both public and private business sectors have examined this supposition (Barsade, 2002; Goleman, 2002; Meisler & Vigado-Gadat, 2010). There is a lack of research examining whether this relationship applies to public education systems in the United States or any other countries. Several tools can be utilized to determine the relationship between the emotional intelligence of a leader of a public educational institution, namely the principal, and the climate of the school which the principal leads. This study provides empirical research to ascertain whether there is a correlation between the emotional intelligence of the school principal and the climate as perceived by the teachers in the school.

School climate has an impact on many aspects of the educational environment. A positive school climate is linked to a more productive staff, greater communication and collaboration among staff members, a more intense esprit de corps, and most notably greater gains in student achievement (Freiburg, 1998). Bulach and Malone (1994) found that school

reform efforts are supported by a productive school climate. Other effects of a positive school climate include greater teacher retention and improved job satisfaction (de Barona & Barona, 2006) and decreased violence among students (Khoury-Kassabri, Benbenishty, & Aster, 2005).

Educational studies seeking to determine the relationship between school climate and leaders who implement the principles of servant leadership have shown that there is a positive relationship between these two variables (Ehrhart, 2004, Hunt, 2002; McCowan, 2004). Servant leaders are those who prioritize the needs of others first and provide the support mechanisms, including resources and motivation, to attain goals. A relationship must exist between leaders and followers that includes understanding of and sensitivity toward the follower to ensure all needs are met (Ehrhart, 2004). A study conducted by Black (2010) measuring school climate and the perceived servant leadership in several Catholic elementary schools found a significant positive correlation between servant leadership and school climate. Servant leadership, by definition, has components of emotional intelligence, including but not limited to interpersonal skills. Servant leaders must build positive relationships and provide support and motivation to maintain a productive climate. Therefore, if servant leadership is positively correlated to school climate, then it is possible that a leader's emotional intelligence may also be correlated to a leader's ability to create a productive school climate.

Research suggests that a strong link between a positive school climate and the overall effectiveness of a school (Childs and Hanses, 1998; Moore, 2009; Peterson and Deal, 2002; Sergiovanni, 1992). It is apparent that school leaders are integral to setting and maintaining

the climate of their institutions. A study by Leithwood and Jantzi (1997) lists the variables describing teachers' perceptions of effective principals. These include principals who adopted a more transformational approach to leadership. These leaders contributed positively to school policies and procedures, planning, information collection, decision making, and instruction. In addition, these leaders were actively engaged with management and staffing practices, instructional support, and monitoring school activities with the intent to build and enhance the school community. In essence, the principal has the duty to develop and uphold a positive and productive organizational climate by employing effective leadership practices at the school level.

It is essential that a principal possess a clear and healthy emotional state from which positive relationships can be built. Leithwood, Anderson, and Straus (2010) assert that there are two basic assumptions concerning educational leadership. The first is that leadership relies on the exercise and implementation of influence, and second, influence produces indirect effects on student learning and outcomes. They assert that there are four paths of influence, including rational, emotional, organizational, and family, each affected by different sets of variables, by which a successful leader can influence the school positively. Some of these variables include school culture as well as the emotional status and attitudes of teachers. Improving all paths leads to successful leadership and ultimately improved student learning. The rational path is specifically associated with knowledge and skills produced through the school curriculum and pedagogy. The emotional path, as described by Oatley, Keltner, and Jenkins (2006), works directly with the rational path. Emotions directly influence cognition and are involved in structuring perceptions and directing attention. In addition, emotions play a key role in acquiring access to specific memories, thoughts, and

judgments to help individuals interact positively and productively with their surroundings. Therefore, the social evaluation and judgmental skills of a leader are connected to monitoring and adjusting the variables associated with the emotional path.

Effective school leadership requires an emotionally intelligent leader who can forge relationships and motivate staff to interact in a productive way, leading to a positive climate. As schools are continually undergoing reforms in reaction to political, social, and economic pressures, leaders are under the gun to "make things happen." Fullan (2001) noted, "In a culture of change, emotions frequently run high" (p. 74). He also said that it takes an emotionally intelligent principal to create successful relationships. Palmer, Gardner, and Stough (2003) stated that "emotions are not just something we feel; they are a source of information (p. 6.). This premise that emotional information is important because with it a leader can develop trust, communication, and collaboration, be empathetic and sympathetic, understand social constructs, and effectively problem-solve through change. It is therefore most beneficial for a principal to manage his or her own mood as well as the moods of the teachers and other staff members, because that will help the school leader manage the staff and make attaining goals more achievable (Moore 2009). The emotional intelligence of a principal can be the determining factor differentiating a high- and a low-performing school as well as the overall success of the educational institution (Fullan, 2001).

Emotional intelligence relies on the idea that emotions involve information about relationships. When observing and measuring the emotion-related abilities of a person, four areas, also called branches, influence emotional intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 1997). The first branch involves perceiving emotions and includes one's ability to identify

the emotions of others, including through facial expressions. This information is then integrated into one's own intelligence. The next branch involves facilitating thought with emotions. It includes channeling and utilizing information concerning emotions and facilitating and adjusting cognitive processes with that information to make the best use of it. The third branch, understanding emotion, includes recognizing emotions in relationships, how and why emotions change, and the linguistic information emotions convey. This information allows for abstract reasoning and decision making. The last branch involves managing emotions for both personal growth and the development of personal relationships (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001). The following list further describes specific characteristics of the four branches in the Mayer and Salovey (1997) ability model of emotional intelligence (p. 65).

Emotion Perception and Expression

Ability to identify emotion in one's physical and psychological states;

Ability to identify emotion in other people;

Ability to express emotions accurately and to express needs related to them;

Ability to discriminate between accurate/honest and inaccurate/dishonest feelings.

Emotional Facilitation of Thought (Using Emotional Intelligence)

Ability to redirect and prioritize thinking on the basis of associated feelings;

Ability to generate emotions to facilitate judgment and memory;

Ability to capitalize on mood changes to appreciate multiple points of view;

Ability to use emotional states to facilitate problem solving and creativity.

Emotional Understanding

Ability to understand relationship among various emotions;

Ability to perceive the causes and consequences of emotions;

Ability to understand complex feelings, emotional blends, and contradictory states;

Ability to understand transitions among emotions.

Emotional Management

Ability to be open with feelings, both pleasant and unpleasant;

Ability to monitor and reflect on emotions;

Ability to engage, prolong, or detach from an emotional state;

Ability to manage emotions in oneself;

Ability to manage emotions in others.

Review of Previous Research, Findings, and Opinions

Effective School Leadership

Several studies have identified effective leadership skills and characteristics of school leaders (Leithwood, 2005; Reynolds & O'Dwyer, 2008). These leadership characteristics may be exhibited by school leaders as behaviors, skills, and/or personal traits and identified by various sources including, but not limited to, teachers, teacher leaders, parents, students, community members, and other school personnel.

A study completed by Williams (2008) found several common characteristics among successful urban principals as perceived by peers, central office personnel, and union members. The study ascertained that emotional and social intelligence competencies were most prevalent in effective leaders and served to distinguish them from average leaders. These emotional intelligence competencies were specifically identified as self-confidence, self-control, conscientiousness, achievement orientation, initiative, organizational awareness,

developing others, influence, analytical thinking, leadership, teamwork and collaboration influence, catalysis of change, and conflict management (Williams, 2008).

A study completed by Reynolds and O'Dwyer (2008) observed effective leadership in terms of behavioral characteristics. The study sought to determine whether the emotional intelligence of a school principal coupled with coping mechanisms for stress predicts leadership effectiveness. The researchers in this study utilized Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI, 2003) to measure leadership effectiveness, the MSCEIT (2002) to measure emotional intelligence, and Moos's Coping Response Inventory (CRI) (2003) to measure coping mechanisms for stress. The term "coping" in this study was defined using that given by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) as "the process through which an individual manages the demands of the person – environment relationships that are appraised as stressful and the emotions they generate" (p. 19). Emotional intelligence was defined as identifying and understanding emotions to help with problem solving. The findings of this study proved that principals who use more coping strategies for stress also have higher scores for leadership effectiveness. Unexpectedly, the research identified a negative correlation between the emotional intelligence of a principal and leadership effectiveness. However, it was noted by the researchers that this finding may be due to other variables, in addition to, and interacting with, emotional intelligence that may influence leadership effectiveness. Therefore, the need to determine the role emotional intelligence plays in effective leadership should continue to be explored. It is apparent that possessing coping mechanisms for stress possibly requires an emotional intelligence piece that would in turn have an effect on the overall ability of a principal to lead effectively.

Han Ng (2005) reviewed *Educational Leadership for Organizational Learning and Improved Student Outcomes* written by Mulford, Silins, and Leithwood. Han Ng referred to the content emphasizing the need for a transformational leader in struggling schools. Two case studies presented in this book show a transformational principal's role during times of change and controversy. The characteristics these principals displayed include a strong sense of commitment, working toward active staff engagement in decision making, and developing a consensus among staff when it came to the school's vision and goals. These principals possessed trust and provided support to the teachers. Collegiality and collaboration were characteristics promoted by the principal and valued by the staff. With these characteristics, organizational learning soared, teachers provided a caring atmosphere for students, and desired student outcomes were attained (Han Ng, 2005). It is important to note that some transformational leadership characteristics parallel those that an emotionally intelligent leader may possess. Moreover, developing these characteristics is possible, and therefore leadership ability can also be improved over time.

Liethwood (2005), in a meta-analysis, summarized the outcomes of reports from seven countries regarding successful school principals. This study sought to determine the practices of successful leaders, the conditions under which their practices were enhanced, and the variables that link a principal's leadership to student learning. The basic successful practices included setting directions, developing people, and re-designing the organization. In the earlier research studies that were analyzed, these practices were identified as individual leadership skills. The later research, especially Danish and Norwegian studies, demonstrated a shift toward distributing and sharing these practices among several key constituents or teams. Developing people involves providing support, motivation, and

stimulation and modeling desired values and practices. Principals exhibited this practice in varying ways. For example, the effectiveness of Australian principals was linked to a supportive role during stressful times, reflection on practices and policies, and acknowledging teachers for their efforts. Norwegian principals were found to foster productive problem solving, and U.S. principals acted as mentors and also modeled effective practices to make the schools successful. Redesigning the organization included creating a collaborative school climate, fostering participation in decision making, and facilitating productive relationships with parents and community members.

Analysis of the research showed that most countries fostered collaboration and distribution of leadership. The Northern European participants tended to view leadership as a traditional value and not a practice that required development. The Chinese studies demonstrated that there are various meanings associated with collaboration and distribution of leadership. However, it has been noted that in Asian countries such as China, those in higher leadership positions, such as principals, are regarded with respect and are in what are considered formal authority roles. According to the participants, when it comes to decision making, the principal is more inclined to tell staff what is important and only allows for more involvement in how to attain what the principal deems important.

The results of the Leithwood's (2005) analysis of leadership found that effective leadership practices were determined by several factors including learning on the job, professional-development opportunities, socialization processes, and individual traits. These factors can be considered characterological or influences from the immediate environment. Specific personal characteristics found to promote successful leadership included individual

dispositions such as passion and enthusiasm, being goal oriented, possessing specific problem-solving styles and skills, and being emotionally sensitive to the needs and desires of colleagues, parents, and students. Effective school leaders in most of the countries studied were described as skillful communicators, open-minded, willing to listen to others, and creative problem solvers (Leithwood, 2005). It is apparent from the meta-analysis that a leader's emotional sensitivity plays a key role in leadership effectiveness and is an area that can be investigated to ascertain how the emotions affect leadership success.

A study completed by Jacobson, Johnson, Yimaki, and Giles (2005) focused on leadership in challenging environments. The researchers completed a case study of seven U.S. schools located in New York, most of them in low socio-economic areas. The success of each school was measured by student performance. The authors noted that in the United States funding and governance of public education is decentralized. However, pressures including federal mandates such as No Child Left Behind, as well as local pressures from the immediate and surrounding school communities, pose challenges that a principal must overcome in order to obtain the best resources to ensure that students are provided with the best learning environment. The researchers ascertained that the principals of these schools possessed the three core leadership practices described by Leithwood and Riehl (2003) which are essential for school success. These practices include (1) setting direction (collaborating to develop shared goals); (2) developing people (influencing behavior through motivation and leading by example); and (3) redesigning the organization (reshaping culture to develop a sense of community). In addition, the researchers describe how these principals also possessed three enabling principles, namely accountability, caring, and learning, which enhanced the core leadership practices. Elaborating on these findings, the researchers

describe the behaviors exhibited by the principals that accounted for their effectiveness. The principals provided purpose and direction and modeled the behaviors and expectations they desired, positively motivated the staff to believe in them during normal and adverse times, and provided a healthy climate for all constituents while upholding high expectations for all. The caring demeanor these principals brought to their schools was contagious and promoted positive relationships between teachers, parents, and students. At one school, a parent said, "I would do anything for the principal because I do not want to disappoint her" (p. 607). A focus on learning coupled with the practice of redesigning the organization allowed for the principals to restructure the physical environment, schedules, and resources to allow for more communication, collaboration, and sharing. All affected student learning in a positive way.

Kirk Anderson (2004) noted that with increased high-stakes educational policies mandated at all levels, teachers are more and more inclined to take on new roles influencing school policy and procedures with more shared decision making between teachers and administrators. Principals encounter various problems and issues every day related to curriculum, discipline, parent and community relations, and professional development planning. In addition, principals are continually pressuring staff to strive for gains in student achievement. In many cases, principals are also hobbled by negative school climates which contribute to lower staff morale and the inability to motivate educators to assume new roles and navigate change. It is apparent that distributing responsibilities and tasks is paramount for the institution's success. Principals can accomplish this by empowering teachers to take on tasks and engage in collaborative and collegial problem-solving situations that will lead to attaining school goals and initiatives.

According to Darling Hammond and Youngs (2002), there is a strong relationship between teaching quality and student success. This places teachers at the forefront of the school-improvement agenda. Danielson and McGreal (2000) state that when it comes to pedagogical approaches, knowledge, and skills and the developmental stages of children, teachers possess much more expertise than the principals who supervise them. Principals who do not acknowledge or utilize this expertise will almost inevitably undermine the reform initiatives that they are trying to achieve. Principals must realize that they need to create an interactive and positive platform for communication with teachers with the goal to share, discuss, and integrate the empirical capital of the school community. This may well include the need for educators and principals to develop emotional-intelligence skills.

Anderson (2004) explains the need to develop a positive relationship among the principal and key teachers who will facilitate communication and collaboration in all directions. This leadership reciprocity improves climate and increases student performance. Anderson notes that the teacher and the administrator influence one another, which is vital to effective communication between both parties. Building positive relationships may very well be more attainable by an emotionally intelligent person. According to the Mayer and Salovey (1997) four-branch model of emotional intelligence, this involves understanding and managing emotions in relationships to make productive decisions.

A study conducted by Anderson (2004) focused on six schools recognized for teacher leadership. Teacher leaders, teacher nominators (those who nominated teachers who were thought to be leaders within the school), and principals were interviewed to determine the influence teacher leaders had on principals and vice versa. Anderson found that all constituents interviewed agreed that the teacher leaders have an influence on the principal.

A principal at one school specifically recognized the expertise of different teachers and realized that other teachers also see their expertise. This principal expanded his computer skills by working with the computer teacher. In addition, the computer teacher agreed to share his expertise with other teachers by organizing and facilitating workshops. Another school principal mentioned the time issues he faced. This principal said that he had key teachers to whom he could delegate responsibility and depend on to get specific jobs and tasks accomplished when he couldn't. In some of the schools studied, the teacher leaders were viewed as valuable assets that the principal could bounce ideas off before presenting them to the rest of the faculty. One principal found the work ethic of a certain teacher so uplifting that he was motivated to lead by her example. A teacher leader commented that the principal often counted on her when a problem needed solving and they could work together to find a solution. An emotionally intelligent person may be a key player in building positive relationships. An emotionally intelligent leader is able to identify and understand the emotions of others and use this information to problem-solve and develop ways to motivate and redirect the emotions of others by modeling the desired behaviors.

According to the Anderson study, the principals were strong influences on teacher leaders. All the parties interviewed agreed on the nature of several of these influences. Some principals said they had a positive influence on teacher leaders when they provided a climate in which all staff members had opportunities to step forward and lead. A positive relationship was also apparent when the principal had a supportive attitude and delegated responsibilities but at the same time allowed for autonomy in decision making. In one of the schools studied, the principal felt that it was important to find who the leaders were, get them to shoulder responsibility, and provide them with leadership opportunities and more

autonomy. One principal said that she led by example and made every attempt to visit the classrooms and find out the effective practices, activities, and resources that could be shared. Another principal commented on her flexibility and support that allowed teachers to try new ideas and practices (Anderson, 2004).

The literature concerning effective leadership is comprehensive, and several themes emerged. The characteristics identified by the school leaders studied include identifying purpose, being motivational, modeling expected behaviors, facilitating collaboration and collegiality, allowing for shared decision making, building positive relationships, fostering a positive climate, and possessing an emotional connection. For this researcher, climate and emotions emerged as key attributes of successful leaders. These are the focus for this study.

Leadership, Climate, and Emotional Intelligence

Educational leadership is likely the most significant single factor that determines the success of the educational institution (Kelley, 2005). It has been found that effective leadership requires an individual who possesses a broad skill set. All components play a role in shaping the climate of the school (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998). Knowledgeable, creative, visionary, and motivational leaders are critical in fostering a successful school environment (Simonson, 2005). Effective principals possess strong communication skills and facilitate collaboration and shared decision making (Kelley, 2005). Other essential leadership practices identified by Leithwood and Janzi (2005) include setting direction through enunciating a vision and having high expectations, being supportive of teachers and modeling expectations, redesigning the organization through collaboration, and managing the organization by providing needed resources. Communication and relationship skills and

having a supportive and caring demeanor are also contributing leadership skills and behaviors (Sergiovanni, 1995).

One can make the assumption that an effective leader who possesses the necessary behaviors, skills, and actions should be able to create a better climate. Another assumption that can be inferred is that emotionally intelligent leaders may well have a better grasp on these behaviors, skills, and actions and that in itself improves their effectiveness as leaders, thereby improving the school climate. The following research findings help support these assumptions.

According to Salovey (2004), there are interacting mental processes that regulate emotional influence. These include (a) appraising and expressing emotions in the self and others, (b) regulating emotion in the self and others, and (c) using emotions in adaptive ways. Salovey, Brackett, and Mayer suggest that emotional intelligence includes both appraising and expressing emotions. Emotionally intelligent individuals have the ability to detect, understand, and respond to their own emotions as well as express their emotions appropriately to others. With these skills, emotionally intelligent individuals are socially aware and adept.

The process of regulating emotions refers to the ability to monitor and express mood effectively (Salovey, Brackett, and Mayer, 2004). Much of one's mood relates to a conscious self-effort to feel an emotion such as happiness, sadness, enthusiasm, or boredom. On the other hand, mood can be easily influenced by others. For example, people who want to maintain a positive mood will seek to be in the presence of people who have a positive view and influence (Tesser, 1986). Barsade (2002) found that applying emotional contagion

in certain situations is a skill of an emotionally intelligent manager. Caruso and Salovey (2004) note that leaders' feelings can determine how they influence the emotions of others in the workplace, which has a significant bearing on how workers make decisions, their personal and job satisfaction and self-efficacy, and their abilities to solve problems and reach goals and objectives.

An effective leader can set the right mood and this can be contagious, and therefore teachers will take on the same positive mood and attitude of the school leader. Effective leadership can be associated with the leadership-by-example model. If the principal displays the mood, behaviors, and attitudes that are expected of the staff, the teachers will follow this positive role model.

The management of the emotions of others is a component of emotional intelligence and an asset for a school leader. An emotionally intelligent person is skilled in the "Art of Impression Management" and able to create or suppress emotion in others (Goffman, 1959). Strongly skilled impression managers understand when and when not to attend to the behaviors of others (Geller & Laor, 1988). One can say an effective principal must understand that certain behaviors require attention while others are best left alone to be addressed at another time.

Salovey, Brackett, and Mayer (2004) emphasize the importance of the regulation of emotions as it is a skill that emotionally intelligent people use to attain particular goals. Emotionally intelligent individuals use this skill to enhance their own mood and the mood of others. Moreover, they are able to successfully manage the emotions of others to charismatically motivate them to complete valuable and meaningful tasks. On the flip side,

individuals with anti-social or unconstructive behaviors may be manipulative and sociopathic, intending to lead others to engage in unconstructive and even harmful and confounding behaviors (Salovey, Brackett, and Mayer, 2004). A negative climate is inevitable when a principal allows for and engages in the latter process.

Emotions and moods influence one's ability to problem solve in many ways. For one, a positive emotional state influences memory organization and meta-cognition in a way that information is integrated more efficiently and effectively (Isen, 1987). Emotions can also motivate an individual to focus on oneself or a specific issue. For example, anxiety may cause an individual to focus on the self, hindering the ability to solve problems related to other issues (Pyszczynski & Greenburg, 1987). Finally, emotions can be motivational or inspirational, allowing individuals to take on and solve complex intellectual tasks (Showers, 1988). Utilizing emotional intelligence is paramount in flexible planning, creative thinking, redirecting attention, and personal motivation and persistence. It can be assumed that emotionally intelligent leaders exhibit adaptive emotional behaviors and can effectively solve problems, giving them an advantage over counterparts who lack emotional intelligence. The means by which they frame, take on, and evaluate challenges is creative, flexible, positive, and productive (Salovey, Brackett, and Mayer, 2004).

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership across Cultures

Cross-cultural studies of emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness have been a focus for many researchers trying to understand the cultural implications of leadership effectiveness (House, 2004; Reilly and Karounos, 2009; Shipper et al., 2003; Tang et al., 2010). These studies have observed similarities and differences in leadership

behaviors between cultures to help develop ways to improve work environments to create productive working climates so goals can be met and organizational success achieved.

The GLOBE project was a large empirical study investigating the relationship between cultural values and organizational practice, conceptions of leadership, economic competitiveness, and the human conditions of the constituents. The study included 62 nations grouped into clusters based on cultural similarities and surveyed 17,000 managers world-wide in the financial, food processing, and telecommunication sectors. Key findings which emerged from this research help to explain how emotional intelligence ties into leadership across cultures (House, 2004).

Some powerful findings of the GLOBE research project showed that, based on mean scores, organization practices in most countries value lower levels of power distance and assertiveness (House, 2004). Hofstede (1980) refers to power distance as the extent to which the less powerful constituents of an organization or institution accept that power is distributed unequally. Lower power distance values indicate smaller gaps in class differences. However, when looking at individual country scores, the GLOBE study (House, 2004) showed the opposite in several Asian countries which valued assertiveness.

House (2004) noted six leadership profiles emerging from the GLOBE project: charismatic/value-based, team oriented, participative, autonomous, humane, and/or self-protective. Germanic European and Middle Eastern clusters valued participative leaders, while Southern Asian and Nordic European clusters displayed mixed emotions about humane leaders (House, 2004).

An exploratory study conducted by Shipper, Kincaid, Rotondo, and Hoffman (2003), examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and managerial effectiveness among three cultures including the United States, United Kingdom, and Malaysia. Data was collected from managers and subordinates of large multi-national corporations to measure the use of managerial skills including interactive and controlling skills. Emotional intelligence was measured as self-awareness, and data was collected with the use of self-measurements as well as measurements from the perspectives of others, therefore providing a 360–degree feedback process to ascertain the use of managerial skills. The authors hypothesized that high self-awareness, which was indicated by a high agreement between the manager and the subordinates concerning the manager's use of interactive skills and controlling skills, would be indicative of managerial effectiveness. Shipper et al. (2003) said that interactive skills, which are an integral component of emotional intelligence, are central to managerial effectiveness and relate to a manager's ability to manage and facilitate interpersonal relationships and maintain the reciprocal relationship between manager and subordinate. The authors state that controlling skills include identifying problems, establishing goals, giving feedback concerning performance toward goals, and providing re-direction when needed. The Shipper et al. (2003) study observed positive relationships between managerial effectiveness and the emotional intelligence component of self-awareness. This positive relationship existed between interactive skills and managerial effectiveness in the United States and the United Kingdom samples and between controlling skills in the United Kingdom and Malaysian samples. The importance of self-awareness and managerial skills varies in the three cultures. The authors also noted that in cultures with low power distance, including the United States and the United Kingdom in this study,

possessing self-awareness concerning interactive skills is key to being an effective manager, and in cultures with high power distance, as in Malaysia, self-awareness concerning controlling skills is key to managerial success.

The GLOBE and Shipper et al. (2003) studies present noteworthy findings concerning leadership and how emotional intelligence may relate to effective leadership. It is apparent that assertiveness as an indicator of leadership success varies among different cultures and may be a factor in identifying the leadership profile in any given culture. This may include having a leader being assertive in the right moment and right situation and at the same time maintaining positive relationships. It may also involve a leader possessing self-awareness to maintain interpersonal relationships as well as providing guidance and feedback in a motivating in a non-threatening way.

A study completed by Tang, Yin, and Nelson (2010) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership practices, focusing on a cross-cultural sample of academic leaders in Taiwan and the United States. The researchers used a causal-comparative research method to ascertain if cross-cultural differences existed in the emotional intelligence of the 50 Taiwanese and 50 American academic leaders surveyed. The results demonstrated that for all participants a positive correlation existed between emotional intelligence and the five areas of leadership practices described by the Leadership Practices Inventory, which include modeling, challenging, enabling, encouraging, and inspiring. A significant positive correlation between the emotional intelligence of the leaders and the practices of modeling, enabling, and encouraging were present for both cultural populations, while emotional intelligence was also positively correlated with the

practices of being challenging and inspiring for the Taiwanese leader population. Both populations showed that of the 13 emotional intelligence variables, all 13 were significantly correlated with overall Leadership Practice Inventory scores for the United States and 10 for the Taiwanese leader scores, leading to the conclusion that when effective leadership behavior increases, the emotional intelligence of the leader also tends to increase.

Reilly and Karounos (2009) examined whether similar views of leadership effectiveness exist among several cultures. They grouped countries into clusters based on similar cultural values. Managers representing each cluster completed a 15-item Likert-scale questionnaire, which rated the importance of technical, cognitive, and emotional intelligence skills of leaders and also rated subcomponents of emotional intelligence including social skills, participative leadership, and self-awareness. The key finding of this study was that the entire sample considered emotional intelligence very important for a leader. Furthermore, emotional intelligence was selected as the most important trait for leadership success, with cognitive skills coming in second, followed by technical skills. This coincides with Goleman's (1998) concept that to be an effective and successful leader, emotional intelligence is necessary in addition to any intellectual abilities a leader many possess.

The two previous studies (Reilly and Karounos, 2009; Tang, et al. 2010) reiterate the need for a leader to possess emotional intelligence and that positive leadership behaviors increase with emotional intelligence. Although studies have found a relationship between leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence, no one has conducted a cross-cultural examination of the relationship between the emotional intelligence of school leaders and the

school climate as perceived by teachers. Research in this area could help bridge the gap between the cultural influences on leadership styles or preferences. The implications present a need for additional cross-cultural studies concerning leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence. Shipper et al. (2003), House (2004), Reilly and Karounos (2009), and Tang et al. (2010) explored similarities and differences and cultures which broadened the understanding of how emotional intelligence is linked to leadership effectiveness. This researcher investigated the correlation between the emotional intelligence of a school leader and the school climate as perceived by the subordinates, namely the teachers, under the school leader. This study contributes to the existing literature by providing an understanding of leadership effectiveness in terms of emotional intelligence.

Criticisms of Emotional Intelligence

Although emotional intelligence has gained popularity as a theory, has been promoted in the media, and has caught the attention of researchers and educators, skeptics argue that emotional intelligence cannot be considered a valid and reliable construct of intelligence and measurement of it is not necessarily possible. Moreover, studies suggest that much more empirical research needs to be conducted to further develop methods of measurement to evaluate emotional intelligence and its impact on emotional, social, and cognitive development and overall success in life.

Waterhouse (2006) found that the conflicting constructs of emotional intelligence were troubling and their validity questionable. Waterhouse also proposed that researchers into emotional intelligence did not clearly delineate between the meanings of the various proposed components of emotional intelligence theory. For instance, Waterhouse argued

that with the different models of emotional intelligence overlapping, distinctions concerning the definitions of emotional intelligence and its components were vague. All models incorporate two broad aspects of emotional intelligence, including awareness and management of one's own as well as others' emotions. One model described by Mayer, Salovey, and Sitarenios (2003) says the component "perception of emotion" is being aware of one's own emotions and the emotions of others. This model also includes the component "management of emotions," which is defined as being in control of one's own emotions and those of others. Other models of emotional intelligence put emotional management and emotional perception into separate categories, namely self and other (Goleman, 2001), and these differences demonstrate the conflicts in the organization of the components of emotional intelligence. Even though these conflicting definitions and descriptions of emotional intelligence are noted by Cherniss et al. (2006), they still acknowledge that researchers have made, and continue to make, progress rectifying this confusion.

Wasserman (2006) also observed the relationship among emotional intelligence, IQ, and personality and asserted that emotional intelligence does not denote a set of abilities that are distinct from IQ or other personality traits, including openness to novel experiences, conscientiousness, extraversion versus introversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. Arguing against this assertion, Cherniss et al. (2006) reflect on the various models of emotional intelligence and the distinct measurement parameters of each model. Although research supporting the divergent and incremental validity varies by model, ongoing evidence from research reinforces the claim that emotional intelligence can be distinguished from IQ and personality constructs.

For example, Bracket and Mayer (2003) describe a model of emotional intelligence as an independent and measurable construct in a study where they found incremental validity. This study used the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), an ability-based assessment that measures how well people perform tasks and solve emotional problems; the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I), a self-report assessment measuring interpersonal and intrapersonal skills, adaptability, and stress management; and controlled Verbal SAT scores and Personality Trait scores of the participants. The study found that lower scores on the MSCEIT predicted social deviance, and lower EQ-I scores predicted higher alcohol consumption.

Studies completed by Law, Wong, and Song (2004) provide further support for emotional intelligence as a distinct construct. One study found that self-report measurements for emotional intelligence combined with personality were a better predictor of life satisfaction than measures of personality alone. Palmer, Gardner, and Stough (2003) found small correlations between emotional intelligence and the Big Five personality domains: openness to novel experiences, conscientiousness, extraversion versus introversion, and neuroticism. They used the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT), which measures how people typically think feel and act, with emotions at the workplace. Their findings show that the SUEIT measures of emotional intelligence do not differentiate between emotional intelligence and personality.

Van Rooy, Viswesvaran, and Pluta (2005) surveyed 58 studies involving more than 8,000 participants focusing on the construct of emotional intelligence. Some of the self-reported data concerning emotional intelligence did show high correlations with

measurements of personality. Although other measures, namely ability measures of emotional intelligence from the MSCEIT, did not show a high correlation with personality measures (.13) or even IQ measures (.34), the authors concluded that collectively the meta-analysis of these studies suggests that emotional intelligence truly stands as a construct separate from IIQ and personality measures.

Waterhouse (2006) was concerned with the use of emotional intelligence as a predictor of success in the real world. Cherniss et al. (2006) noted studies that debunk this concern. For example, Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004) looked at 69 studies to investigate whether emotional intelligence can predict performance outcomes in both academic and workplace environments. The meta-analysis found a correlation between emotional intelligence and performance in both environments (.23). Another study done at Johnson and Johnson (Cavallo and Brienza, 2004) used the Emotional Competence Inventory (EQ-I) to assess the emotional intelligence of 300 managers. In this study, peers, including both superiors and subordinates, assessed managers. The study found that high-performing managers scored higher on all four emotional intelligence clusters including self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness, and relationship management. A study conducted in a military installation completed by Bar-On, Handley, and Fund (2005) looked at emotional intelligence as a predictor of the performance of Air Force Recruiters. In this study the EQ-I was used to measure emotional intelligence, and performance ratings were based on individual productivity in number of recruits. The study determined that high-performing recruiters possessed higher emotional intelligence scores than lower-performing recruiters. Emotional intelligence and its impact on success was also observed in educational settings. In a study conducted in Ontario, Stone, Parker, and Wood (2005) measured the emotional

intelligence of 464 principals and vice-principals using the EQ-I. Principal and vice-principal performance was measured using a 20-plus-item leadership questionnaire completed by the administrators' superiors and three subordinates. The researcher then compared the top 20 percent and the bottom 20 percent and found that the above-average leaders scored significantly higher concerning emotional intelligence and the lower-performing leaders scored significantly lower. These studies, cited by Cherniss et al. (2006), reinforce the notion that emotional intelligence can predict real-world success.

Waterhouse (2006) argued that the use of teaching emotional intelligence in educational settings is not an effective practice. However, Greenberg, Weissberg, O'Brien, Zins, Fredericks, and Resnic (2003), as cited by Cherniss, et al. (2006), criticize the existing school-based prevention programs because they tend to be implemented on a shor-term basis and they lack a meaningful to the curriculum and school goals. Cherniss et al. (2006) highlight a study by Sins, Weisberg, Wand, and Walberg (2004) which involved the review of research into the effectiveness of Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) programs which are designed to improve school attitudes, behaviors, and academic performance through developing social and emotional skills including self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making. The study found that SEL programming not only improved attitudes and behaviors, the improvement in these areas also led to academic improvement. They study determined that SEL programs help students gain self-awareness and confidence, motivating them to perform better in school by setting goals, implementing better organizational skills, and using effective problem-solving strategies. In addition, the study found that SEL programming created more productive relationships among students, educators, and families. In another meta-analysis, Durlak and

Weissberg (2005), comparing school-based and youth-development interventions, found that schools implementing the SEL programming produced a positive effect on the youth participants. The SEL competencies proved to have positive effects including, but not limited to, improved personal and social behaviors, fewer anti-social behaviors and aggressiveness, and a decrease in severe disciplinary infractions and school suspensions. These studies (Durlack & Weissber, 2005; Sins, Weisberg, Wand, and Walberg, 2004), as cited by Cherniss et al. (2006), help to refute the assertion of Waterhouse (2006) that interventions that employ emotional intelligence development are not successful in educational settings.

In addition, Chernis et al. (2006) argue that just as IQ theory has developed over time and testing for IQ has evolved, there is no consensus that IQ alone is the most effective way to measure intelligence. Emotional intelligence theory, for instance, has evolved, indicating vitality and growth.

Measuring Emotional Intelligence: The MCEIT

In the1990s interest in emotional intelligence grew. The concept was featured in national magazines, international newspapers, and even in the comic strips *Zippy the Pinhead* and *Dilbert.* Emotional intelligence was appealing because it suggested forms of intelligence other than intelligence quotient (IQ). The idea that emotional intelligence is an indicator of personal, social, and professional success in life was also appealing. Furthermore, since typically individual IQ is deemed relatively constant, the notion that emotional intelligence can be developed and improved provided a gleam of hope (Salovey, Mayer, & Caruso, 2002).

The task of developing an instrument to measure and assess the competencies associated with emotional intelligence arose. The first emotional intelligence scales and batteries had multiple psychometric properties. Unfortunately, they proved inadequate in their discriminant and construct validities (Davies, Stanikov, & Roberts, 1998). Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) developed the first valid and reliable instrument to measure emotional intelligence, which conceptualizes emotional intelligence as a set of abilities.

Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2002) stated that the most valid method of assessing emotional intelligence involves a task-based ability measure. Constructs involving self-report inventories have been considered too misleading in terms of differentiating them from aspects of personality already measured and documented (Davies et al., 1998). Mayer and Salovey (2002) found that tasks that draw on the underlying competencies of emotional intelligence are more valid than self-report assessments. The Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) was the first comprehensive, theory-based assessment of emotional intelligence (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999). It included 12 ability measures that are organized into four distinct categories including (a) perceiving and expressing emotions to measure emotional perception in faces, music, designs, and stories; (b) using emotions to facilitate thought and other cognitive abilities to measure synesthesia judgments and feeling biases; (c) understanding emotion; and (d) managing emotions in self and others to rate given reactions for specific scenarios involving these emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

A concern with the MEIS assessment involves the criteria that contribute to an accurate answer. It has three criteria for determining the correctness of an answer, including target, expert, and consensus criteria. All are interrelated across the ability tasks. In addition,

the MEIS shows a positive correlation with verbal intelligence within the range r = 0.35 to 0.45. The MEIS shows a negative correlation with nonverbal measures of intelligences. MEIS scores show improvement with age, which supports the notion that emotional intelligence can be enhanced with age and experience (Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey, 1999).

Emotional intelligence is now considered a real, measurable form of intelligence by meeting three criteria. The conceptual criterion explains that intelligence refers to a mental performance and should measure the emotion-related abilities in question (Carroll, 1993). Correct versus incorrect answers are based on expert, target, and consensus measures. The correlational criterion explains that intelligence describes a group of distinct closely related abilities (Carroll, 1993), as in IQ tests such as the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS), which has a set of scales consisting of related tasks such as identifying similarities and differences in concepts, recognizing word meanings, comprehension, arithmetic, etc. These abilities are moderately inter-correlated, meaning the scores vary across people at approximately r = 0.40 level (Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey, 1999). Emotional intelligence should then identify a set of abilities that are moderately inter-correlated. The third criterion, development, implies that intelligence grows over time and with experience (Francher, 1985).

To summarize, all intelligences that are considered genuine are abilities, reveal correlational patterns compared to other intelligences, and can be enhanced over time with experience (Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey, 1999). A study that focused on the first two criteria, conceptual and correlational, supported the belief that emotional intelligence truly exists. This study was based on 12 ability-test measures relating to the four domains described by Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (1997). The first, perceiving emotions, included tasks that measured emotional perception of faces, music, designs, and stories. The next, assimilating

emotions, measured synesthesia judgments and feeling biases. The third domain measured four tests ascertaining the understanding of emotions, which included blends, progressions, and transitions between and within emotions as well as relativity of emotional perception. Domain four included two assessments of emotion management in self and others. Data analysis and scoring to determine the accuracy of responses involved the convergence of the following three methods: group consensus, expert identification, and target assessment. Consensus scoring and expert rating proved to be inter-correlated across tasks: Stories: $r = 0.70$, Feeling Bias: $r = 0.64$, Relativity: $r = 0.61$ and Managing Feelings: $r = 0.80$. All r values were significant at the $p < 0.0001$ level, suggesting that the criteria are closely related. The consensus criteria correlated more with the target criteria. For example, in the music task, the consensus $r = 0.61$ and 0.52 for expert. On the whole, the three criteria showed moderately high correlations, which suggests that some answers were more reliable than others. Comparing consensus, expert, and target scoring, the results showed that participants' scores across abilities were positively correlated with r between -.16 and 0.95 but with one half of the scores above $r = 0.52$.

A second study that focused on operationalizing emotional intelligence used the criteria concerning performance to demonstrate that emotional intelligence develops with age and experience. Again, scoring included consensus and expert ratings and target reports. The main purpose was to determine whether adults possess a higher level of emotional intelligence than adolescents. This study found that this was the case and also that emotional intelligence in youth participants showed similar relationships to verbal intelligence and empathy as in adults.

Concerns regarding the reliability of the MEIS came from Davies, Stankov, and Roberts (1998), who were primarily focused with an earlier version (1990) of the MEIS, which measured only one aspect of emotional intelligence. At this point in the development of emotional intelligence theory, the researchers (Mayer et al., 1990) were simply seeking to demonstrate the psychometric existence of emotional intelligence and not necessarily operationalize it as a true intelligence. The researchers also understood that reliability could be improved by elongating the test (Mayer, Salovey¸ Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001). In 1999, Davies, Stankov, and Roberts demonstrated a full-scale MEIS reliability of r = 0.96. However, they were concerned about the reliability of individual components of the test, which ranged from very good to excellent in terms of reliability. Davies, Stankov, and Roberts (1998) wanted assurance that the scores on the MEIS for individuals at each task level accurately reflected intelligence ability. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (1998) recognized this as a significant concern.

Although making the test longer could have addressed these concerns, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso decided to shorten it to strengthen reliability at the task level. This was accomplished by carefully selecting items and dropping four tasks. They argued that "a short, efficient test that provides reliable scores at the branch and total-test levels, like the MCEIT V2.0, would simulate research better and faster than can a longer, more unwieldy and inefficient test that has optimized reliability for every individual task" (Salovey, Bracket, & Mayer, 2004, p. 173). To demonstrate this point, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2001) compared the MSCEIT V2.0 with the original Welchsler Adult Intelligence Test (WAIS), which had 11 subscale scores ranging from r = 0.6 to 0.96 (Matarazzo, 1972). These results are very similar to those on the MSCEIT V2.0.

Roberts, Seidner, and Matthews (2001) had concerns about the true meaning of emotional intelligence. They stated:

> Some features of the psychometric analysis support Mayer, Caruso and Salovey's (1999) claim that EI meets criteria for an intelligence. We replicated the finding of a positive manifold between subtests of the MEIS, and, generally, the pattern of correlations corresponded well to the Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) findings. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis showed broad similarities with Mayer et al.'s factor solutions, although there were some differences in detail, and in exploratory analyses subscale commonalities were often low. In fact, the confirmatory analyses tended to support Mayer et al.'s initial conception of four branches of EI, rather than the three-factor that has subsequently been derived.

In essence, the MEIS was found to be a good tool for measuring emotional intelligence. The Roberts et al. (2001) and Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) studies correlated well in several areas.

Roberts et al. (2001) found that there are ongoing issues with the reliability and the conceptual nature of the MEIS. A major concern focuses on the idea that the answers to this emotional intelligence test are not necessarily objective in nature. The answers are scored using group consensus, which may indicate conformity to a group rather than emotional intelligence being an intelligence on its own. Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, and Sitarenios (2001) provided theoretical and research-based data to help defend their assertion that emotional intelligence does exist.

The MCEIT is a 141-item assessment that measures specific emotional intelligence skills organized into four branches. Perceiving emotion is measured with faces and pictures. Using emotions to facilitate thought is measured with sensations and facilitations tasks. Understanding emotion is measured with blends and changes. Finally, managing emotions is measured with tasks related to the management of relationships.

Issues concerning the MCEIT which focus on adequate levels of reliability (as with earlier forms) and comparable psychological tests were examined by Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, and Sitarenios (2001). The researchers noted that branch scores are not homogeneously organized and stem from different tasks for different item forms on the assessment. Therefore, split-half reliability coefficients are used to systematically assign the various items to opposing halves of the assessment (Nunally, 1978). The MCEIT test-retest reliability has been documented at $r(60) = 0.86$ (Brackett & Mayer 2001).

The debate concerning emotional intelligence as a logical, unified idea can be understood with factor structure, which shows the number of dimensions of emotional intelligence that the assessment measures. Confirmatory factor analysis of the MSCEIT V2.0 which tests one- , two- , and four-factor models was completed to obtain the range of factor structures that demonstrate adequate representations of the emotional-intelligence domain. In this study, general and expert consensus scoring was completed for both paper and pencil versions of the test. Two sets of reliability were reported, depending on general and expert criteria. The MCEIT V2.0 reliabilities were $r = 0.93$ for general scoring and $r = 0.91$ for consensus scoring. The four-branch scores, including perceiving, facilitating, understanding, and managing emotions, ranged from $r = 0.76$ to 0.91 for both expert and general reliabilities. Individual-task reliabilities ranged from 0.55 to 0.88. Branch-level reliabilities were

adequate, and total-scale and branch-level reliabilities were excellent. The reliabilities were generally higher on the MCEIT than the earlier MEIS test (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenious, 2003). The researchers emphasized that the total-scale and branch-scale interpretations are recommended at the individual task levels. The findings of Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, and Sitarenious (2003) indicate that the MCEIT is an adequate tool to assess emotional intelligence.

The validity of a tool refers to its trustworthiness or its correctness in measuring what the researcher intends to find out and can be determined (Yin, 2009). Instrumental validity can be shown by observing whether observations are similar to those generated by an alternative instrument (Kirk & Miller, 1986).

For the MCEIT this means answering the question, Does the MSCEIT provide an appropriate measurement of emotional intelligence, meaning that it is a valid tool for measuring emotional intelligence? Validity of the MSCEIT can be shown by comparing the MSCEIT to two self-report tools measuring emotional intelligence, including the Emotional Quotient Itinerary (EQ-I) (Bar-on, 1997) and the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT) (Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, et al., 1998). In addition, these three tools for measuring emotional intelligence can be compared to well-studied measures of personality, well-being, and verbal intelligence. In this study, the researchers employ the MSCEIT's a mental ability measurement in which emotional intelligence refers to being able to reason using emotions, and self-report inventories, which are based on mixed-model measurements of emotional intelligence. The EQ-I specifically measures "an array of cognitive abilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (Bar-on, 1997, p 14.) The SREIT includes a

measurement of emotional intelligence based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) concept of emotional intelligence as an ability. The MSCEIT shows little correlation with the EQ-I and the SREIT, which may be caused by the discrete definition of each construct. For example, some of the items on the self-assessment tools relate to personality traits such as optimism and emotional stability. These do not correspond to the four ability measures measured by the MSCEIT. The two self-reporting emotional intelligence tests did possess a moderate correlation with each other. The MSCEIT was also discernible from personality and well-being measures. EQ-I and SREIT showed great variance in these measures and was predictive of life criteria, such as drug use and academic achievement. The MCEIT was indicative of social defiance when personality and verbal intelligence were held constant. At the same time, the EQ-I was predictive of alcoholism, and SREIT scores were inversely related to academic success. Overall, the study demonstrated that EI when measured with the MSCEIT is weakly related to emotional intelligence as measured by self-report tools which yield varying outcomes for the same person (Brackett & Mayer, 2003).

These studies show that the MSCEIT is an appropriate tool for measuring emotional intelligence based on the ability model described by Mayer and Salovey (1997). The validity and reliability of MCEIT shows that it is measuring one's ability to appraise, facilitate, understand, and manage emotions. Therefore, the MCEIT was the instrument of choice for this study to measure the emotional intelligence of school leaders, namely principals.

Measuring School Climate: The R-SLEQ

School climate can be defined as the set of internal characteristics that distinguish one school from another and influence the behaviors of the school's members (Hoy and Miskel, 2005). Studying the school environment can be useful as it provides insight into the functioning of a school, and therefore improvement procedures can be adopted. In this study, the researcher looked at school climate in connection with the emotional intelligence of the school leader. The tool used was the Revised School Level Environment Questionnaire (R-SLEQ).

The SLEQ is an instrument designed to measure the psychosocial dimensions of a school environment as perceived by teachers. It stems from a previously used tool, the Work Environment Scale (Moos, 1981).

According to Moos (1974), there are three basic ideas that help with conceptualizing the dimensions that make up diverse psychosocial environments such as in hospitals, prisons, military groups, and various work clusters. These include relationship dimensions, which refer to the nature of the relationships in the work environment, development dimensions, which refer to the presence and development of personal growth and enhancement, and system maintenance and system change, which include the orderliness of the environments, the presence of clear expectations, and reaction to change.

The SLEQ was designed specifically for school environments, is easily accessible, and is very economical to use because it does not take a lot of time to complete and score (Fraser & Fisher, 1990). The SLEQ assessment includes 56 items that are scored on a five-point Likert scale. The items are grouped into eight scales including (1) student support, (2)

affiliation, (3) personal development including professional interest, (4) staff freedom, (5) participatory decision making, (6) innovation, (7) resource adequacy, and (8) work pressure (Fraser & Fisher, 1990).

Fraser and Fisher validated the SLEQ in a study of three Australian schools. The SLEQ was given to 226 teachers at the elementary and secondary levels to obtain their perceptions of their school environments and compare them to their preferred school environment. Rentoul and Fraser (1983) have suggested several validation procedures for existing school environment instruments such as the WES and SLEQ. Fraser and Fisher (1990) found that the following validation procedures were necessary:

1. Relevant literature was consulted and dimensions included in the SLEQ were chosen to characterize important aspects in the school environment such as relationships among teachers and between teachers and students and the organizational structure (e.g. decision making).
2. Dimensions chosen for the SLEQ provided coverage of Moo's three general categories of dimensions: Relationship, Personal Development, and System Maintenance and Change.
3. Extensive interviewing ensured that the SLEQ's dimensions and individual items covered aspects of the school environment perceived to be salient by teachers.
4. Only material which was specifically relevant to the school was included.
5. As a number of good measures of classroom environment instruments already exist, the SLEQ was designed to provide a measure of school-level environment which had minimal overlap with these existing measures.

6. In developing the SLEQ, an attempt was made to achieve economy by developing an instrument with a relatively small number of reliable scales, each containing a fairly small number of items. (p. 21)

These criteria were met using an instrument that consisted of seven scales in three primary areas. For the SLEQ, these are Relationship Building, including *support* and *affiliation*; Personal Development, including *professional interest*; and System Maintenance and Change, including *centralization*, *innovation*, *resource adequacy*, and *work pressure* (Fraser and Fisher, 1990).

The correlations among SLEQ scores of three sample populations ranged from 0.64 to 0.91, suggesting internal consistency along the seven-item scale. Discriminant validity shows the mean correlation of one scale with other scales ranges from 0.05 to 0.44 between all samples, indicating that the SLEQ measures a unique aspect of the school environment (Fraser and Fisher, 1990). The data from this study show that the SLEQ possesses internal consistency and discriminant validity.

Johnson, Stevens, & Zvoch (2007) revised the SLEQ and created a 21-item questionnaire organized into five scales, namely collaboration, student relations, decision making, instructional innovation, and school resources. A U.S. study of the revised version was completed by Johnson et al. (2007). In this study, exploratory factor analysis was used with a teacher population from a large district. Upon statistical analysis, five factors emerged that accounted for a total of 63% of the variance of the original items on the RSLEQ and include collaborations (33.9%), student relations (10.4%), school resources (8.0%), decision making (5.9%), and instructional innovation (4.8%). The researchers found inter-factor correlations of 0.29 to 0.63, validating use of the five-factor, 21-item Revised RSLEQ. The

21 SLEQ items were arranged under each of the factors in the confirmatory factor analysis model. Goodness-of-fit indices (.93) indicated that a reasonable fit existed between the model and the data. In addition, the comparative fit index (CFI; .94) was closely aligned with the recommended criterion value of .95. This study showed that the RSLEQ is a valid instrument for measuring school climate and can be used at the elementary, middle, and high school levels.

In terms of reliability coefficients, Johnson, Stevens and Zvoch (2007) demonstrated adequate levels of reliability, with r = 0.77 to 0.86. They found that the R-SLEQ measured school climate with an alpha-reliability coefficient of 0.90, and the five scales' alpha-reliability coefficients ranged from 0.77 to 0.86. These were similar to those of Johnson and Stevens (2001).

Evaluation of the Literature

Summary of the Review

Studies show a connection between emotional intelligence and leadership success (Moore, 2009; Williams, 2008). Positive models provide a framework for school leaders to understand the best practices that lead to leadership success and successful school climate (Jacobson, Johnson, & Yimaki, 2005; Leithwood, 2005; Leithwood, Anderson, & Strauss, 2010). The research on emotional intelligence focuses on specific competencies including self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management of emotions (Mayer et al, 1990). Studies have shown that leaders who display these characteristics are viewed as more effective by their staffs than those who do not (Goleman, 2002; Meisler et al., 2010; Reynolds & O'Dwyer, 2008). Moreover, IQ alone does not

ensure success in leadership positions, and possessing emotional intelligence in addition to cognitive ability increases the likelihood of professional success (Goleman, Boyatzis, & Mckee, 2002; Jantzi, 1997; Leithwood, 2005). Researchers have found that a positive school climate is related to student success and the overall success of the organization (Childs and Hansen, 1998; Peterson and Deal, 2002). However, there is a lack of literature that has examined the relationship among emotional intelligence, leadership effectiveness, and school climate. At this time, research examining the cross-cultural aspect of these potential relationships is lacking. For example, South Korean schools have undergone reform efforts and have evolved along with globalization to compete with other countries and strive to be superior. This study examines the relationship between the emotional intelligence of school principals and the climate of the school as perceived by the teachers. The researcher also compares the nature of this relationship in American and South Korean schools.

Avenues for Further Inquiry

The study of emotional intelligence and leadership has been a focus of many researchers (Barsade, 2002; Goleman, 2002; Mesler et al 2010). Sergiovanni (1994) and Leithwood (1995) emphasized the importance of a productive school climate on student success. In addition, studies concerning school climate have focused on student achievement (Goddard, LoGerfo, & Hoy, 2000; Uline & Tschannen-Moran, 2008). Studies focusing on effective leadership make connections between leadership and climate and the characteristics of positive climates and those of effective school leaders (Leithwood, 2005; Leithwood, Anderson, & Strauss, 2010). It is advantageous to make connections among these variables

with a focus on emotional intelligence to determine whether there is a correlation between the emotional intelligence of school leaders and the climate of the school.

Chapter Summary

Being an effective leader requires many behaviors and characteristics. Among them is creating and maintaining positive relationships and a positive school climate. This may very well be more attainable by a leader who possesses emotional intelligence. Those who possess emotional intelligence have been determined to be more successful in achieving personal and professional goals (Barsade, 2002; Goleman, Boyatzis, & Mckee, 2002; Meisler & Vigado-Gadot, 2010). Investigating the connection between the emotional intelligence of a principal and the school climate as perceived by the teachers the principal leads is a worthwhile and informative endeavor. The methodology of this study is reviewed in detail in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Overview of the Study

Emotional intelligence has been deemed a significant component of leadership effectiveness (Goleman, 2002). The condition of a school's climate has also been linked to leadership effectiveness. The effectiveness of a school leader can be attributed to specific traits or characteristics he or she possesses (Northouse, 2001), and one of these traits may be emotional intelligence. Therefore, the emotional intelligence of a school leader may have a significant impact on his or her ability to create and maintain a positive school climate.

A leader possessing emotional intelligence has a better ability to maintain positive relationships and manage both his or her emotions and those of others (Goleman, 2002). Empathy, self-awareness, social skills, and motivation are other components of emotional intelligence that may make a leader successful. Research concerning emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness has been undertaken in both business and public sector institutions (Barsade, 2002; Goleman et al., 2002; Shipper et al., 2003; Tang et al., 2010). But studies linking emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness in educational settings are few. One such study conducted in an urban educational environment by Williams (2008) found that specific emotional intelligence competencies, including self-confidence, self-control, conscientiousness, achievement orientation, initiative, organizational awareness, developing others, influence, analytical thinking, leadership, collaboration, catalyzing change, and conflict management were significant characteristics distinguishing identified outstanding principals from those deemed ordinary. A study conducted by Curry (2009) investigated the emotional intelligence of school leaders and the

climate of the schools they headed. Qualitatively, this study found that in practice school leaders believe their own use of emotional intelligence helps them to manage the school climate as they encounter and deal with normal everyday logistics and issues as well as unforeseen problems. Skills such as listening, communicating, and maintaining positive relationships were important, as was modeling necessary and desirable character traits.

This mixed-methodology study focuses on the emotional intelligence of public-school principals to ascertain whether emotional intelligence is linked to school climate. The findings of the research may indicate that it is necessary for school leaders to hone their emotional intelligence skills to improve their school environments. The study investigated the relationship between the emotional intelligence of school administrators and the climate as perceived by the teachers in the schools that they led. The study utilized the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) to gather data from school principals concerning their emotional intelligence levels and the Revised School Level Environment Questionnaire (R-SLEQ) to collect data about the school climate. The data was then quantitatively analyzed to determine the correlation between the emotional intelligence of the school leaders and the school climate. In addition, qualitative data was collected through principal interviews to gain a better understanding of their use of emotional intelligence in managing the school climate at their schools.

Problem

The intent of this study was to ascertain whether there was a correlation between the emotional intelligence of a school leader and the school climate. This comparison was undertaken in overseas United States and South Korean public schools. The participating United States schools were located on sovereign United States territory in Korea. The

Korean schools were located in northwestern South Korea. This study undertook a cross-cultural comparison by comparing the correlations found in the two groups, namely United States and South Korean cultures. The researcher collected data about the emotional intelligence of school principals using the MSCEIT and data concerning school climate, as perceived by teachers, using the R-SLEQ. The researcher implemented correlation and regression analysis to determine whether there is a correlation between the data collected using these two instruments. For this study, the Null hypothesis states that greater emotional intelligence of school principals will not be related to school climate. Finding a relationship might suggest that school leaders could develop their emotional intelligence and possibly improve school climate. According to Goleman, Boyatzis, and Mckee (2002), when leaders have an understanding of the role of emotions in the workplace, they will have better business results and retention of talent and, more importantly, improved intangible assets such as higher morale, motivation, and commitment of staff.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate how the emotional intelligence of school leaders affects the school climate as perceived by the teachers. Possessing high EI is associated with having respect, compassion, and understanding for others, as well as the ability to read emotions of others (Mayer and Salovey, 1993). Therefore, it is apparent that a principal can use EI to communicate and collaborate with teachers to solve problems, attain goals, and maintain a constructive school climate. Measuring the EI of school leaders as well as the school climate as perceived by teachers they lead provides insight into how EI affects school climate.

Questions/Hypothesis

The research questions below were developed to determine whether a relationship exists between emotional intelligence and school climate. The qualitative and quantitative findings were intended to add to the existing information, knowledge, and theories

The researcher reviewed the literature concerning emotional intelligence, leadership effectiveness, and school climate and formulated the following research questions:

1) Is there a correlation between the emotional intelligence of school leaders and the school climate as perceived by the teachers?
2) Is the emotional intelligence of school leaders related to age, gender, or years of experience?
3) How do American public schools compare to South Korean public schools in school climate, emotional intelligence, and the relationship between the two?

Research Design

The research design for this study was of a mixed-factors type including gathering quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data was collected using two surveys: the R-SLEQ, which was given to teachers, measured school climate, and the MSCEIT survey, which was administered to school principals, measured emotional intelligence (Appendix A).

The MSCEIT was administered to school leaders to gather data concerning their emotional intelligence. This survey can be taken in a paper and pencil or an online format. The researcher used the online version of the survey for the American administrator participants. The paper and pencil version was administered to the Korean administrators since the survey is not available online in the Korean Hangeul language. These surveys were purchased through Multi-Health Systems (MHS) at www.mhs.com. Sample questions can be viewed at the website. These questions fall under the four-branch ability model of emotional intelligence developed by Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000). This test measures emotional intelligence via a series of objective and impersonal questions. It specifically tests the ability to perceive, use, understand, and regulate emotions in others and self. The four branches/abilities include perceiving emotions, facilitating thought, understanding emotions, and managing emotions. The survey uses a variety of tasks to measure a person's reasoning regarding emotional information and creates situations for the test taker to manifest positive impressions for each given situation. These branches/abilities are specifically assessed using the following tasks: (1) perceiving emotions with faces, pictures, and other stimuli; (2) using emotions to facilitate thought with sensation and facilitation tasks; (3) understanding emotions with blends and task changes; and (4) managing emotions measured with emotion management and emotional relationships tasks. The MSCEIT is an effective and appropriate assessment for corporate, educational, and research purposes (retrieved from www.mhs.com, October 3, 2012).

The researcher ordered the MSCEIT online and paper-pencil questionnaires needed for the study from Multi-Health Systems, which set up a password and code for each online test. The researcher created a PDF document with all passwords and codes to be used by

the respondents. After the participants completed the online questionnaire, the researcher collected the raw data from the website database and then transferred it to an Excel spreadsheet for statistical analysis. The researcher entered the paper-pencil survey data into the MHS Website. For an additional fee, Multi-Health Systems provided the researcher with all data for each school leader participant. The data from the MCEIT yielded a total, or global, score for emotional intelligence and two area scores, which included experiential emotional intelligence and strategic emotional intelligence. In addition, four branch scores for perceiving, facilitating understanding, and managing emotions were calculated. Under each of these four branches, eight subtasks were scored. The following diagram illustrates the score categories:

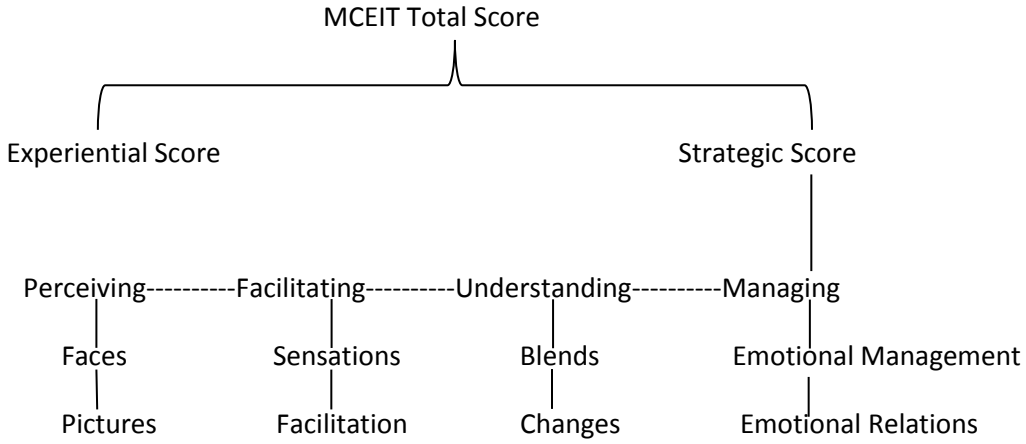

Figure 1. MSCEIT score categories.

The MCEIT score is determined by comparing the individual's score against a normative sample rather than the general population. The total scores for the MCEIT are reported so that the average score is 100, with a standard deviation of 15. One hundred represents an average score, while a score of 115 would be one standard deviation above average and 85 one standard deviation below. Scores for the area, branch, and task

categories are calculated and reported in the same manner. Since the global score is considered a summary of all sub-scores and is based on the performance of the individual compared to the normative sample, it is a good place to start when analyzing a person's emotional intelligence. Analyzing the area, branch and task scores provides a more detailed picture of MCEIT performance (retrieved from www.mhs.com, October 3, 2012).

The RSLEQ was administered to the teachers working under each of the participating principals who completed the MSCEIT. This survey instrument was developed from the School Level Environment Questionnaire (SLEQ) and is considered suitable and useful for group administration because it specifically assesses teachers' perceptions of the school environment and can be easily scored by hand or with a computer. The RSLEQ has been extensively tested and is considered a valid and reliable tool (Freiberg, 1999) and therefore was ideal for this study. The RSLEQ consists of 21 Likert-scale questions composed of five scales including six items in the collaboration category, three in the decision-making category, four in the instructional-innovation category, four in the student-relation category, and four in the school-resources category (Johnson, Stevens, and Zvoch, 2007). Analysis of the RSLEQ data included internal reliability testing. The correlation between school climate measured by the RSLEQ and the emotional intelligence of school leaders was determined using regression analysis.

The researcher provided teachers with the protocol for completing the RSLEQ as described in Appendix D. The researcher scheduled times to meet with the faculties of the school leaders during regularly scheduled faculty meetings. If this was not possible, the researcher identified and contacted a teacher or administrator faculty member who

explained the study and survey to the faculty. Teachers were then given the paper copy of the R-SLEQ survey and given one to two weeks to complete and return it to the designated faculty member, who placed the surveys in an envelope provided. The researcher or participating teacher was responsible for handing out and collecting the surveys. After collecting the surveys, the researcher recorded the data in an Excel spreadsheet and coded it to cross-reference with the participating school leaders. Coding was done to ensure confidentiality. Because both the MSCEIT and the R-SLEQ had to be completed, the participation of teachers taking the R-SLEQ had to be completed before the school leader took the MSCEIT. The researcher ensured that at least 50 percent of the faculties under each school leader were willing to participate. All participating schools were given permission by their governing bodies to participate: the school superintendent and, in the case of the Korean public schools, the school administrator.

The researcher was responsible for the cost of the research tools and procedures, with no monetary expense to the participants. The data collected for the MSCEIT questionnaire, which measured the emotional intelligence of the school principals, and the R-SLEQ, which measured the school climate as perceived by the teachers, was analyzed statistically using correlation coefficients and regression analysis to reveal whether the level of emotional intelligence possessed by school leaders was linked to the school climate as perceived by the teachers they led. The data was also analyzed to determine whether there are significant differences between school climate ratings and the emotional intelligence of school leaders in the two cultures.

The qualitative component of the study interviews of school principals or leaders. The interview questions were specifically designed to answer the research questions to determine whether there is a correlation between the emotional intelligence of a school principal and the climate of the school. The interviews were conducted at each participating school location or, if distance made personal interviews impossible, by telephone. All participating school administrators took part in the qualitative portion of the study. All data was recorded and coded for confidentiality purposes, and the tapes were destroyed after the data was analyzed and the study was complete. The qualitative research component included questions relating to both emotional intelligence and school climate (Appendix B).

The researcher piloted the qualitative component with seven -principals and/or vice-principals. The proposed interview questions were sent electronically to the selected professionals. They were asked to review the questions and responded with feedback including questions and clarifications via phone, in person, or in writing. The researcher used this feedback to make the necessary changes to the questions.

The qualitative data from the actual interviews was digitally recorded, and the researcher took notes during the interviews, recording responses and any other questions or details that arose. This information was used to help determine an overall theme and framework for the data collected. The interviews were then transcribed and analyzed by the researcher.

The data obtained from the interviews was reviewed, summarized, and organized into categories using the grounded-theory approach. Grounded theory is considered a

naturalistic, inductive approach to research in which the researcher makes sense of data obtained through methods such as interviews. The researcher has the opportunity to ask the human subject to clarify or summarize atypical or idiosyncratic statements and ideas with the intent to gain a better understanding of the data being collected (Lincoln and Guba, 1981).

The researcher categorized the data into specific identified groups based on trends, using the coding process. The primary reason for coding, according to (Strauss, 1987, p. 29), is to analyze and break apart the data first, and then to reorganize and blend it into groups, themes, or concepts so that comparative analysis can be done to help synthesize theoretical concepts. The researcher used a set of procedures for the analysis of data and development of categories. These procedures, described by Corbin and Strauss (1990), include open, axial, and selective coding. In the open-coding phase, the researcher examines the initial data obtained and distinguishes distinct elements. The next phase, axial coding, involves identifying categories of interest and a central phenomenon of interest as well as exploring interrelationships between categories and how they relate to the central phenomenon. The final process, selective coding, is described by Johnson and Christensen (2008) as re-examining the open and axial coding to refine the identified theme. The process continues as more data is analyzed and cycles back to the grounded theory from which it was derived.

Methods of Verification

Creswell (1999) describes his view of verification of the data as "a process that occurs throughout the data collection, analysis, and report writing of a study and standards

as *criteria* imposed by the researcher and other after a study is completed" (p. 194). According Lincoln and Guba (1985), this means establishing trustworthiness in the data, which entails the researcher's ability to persuade the audience and self that the research findings have merit and are worth observing and pondering.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) posed four questions that the researcher should take into account to establish trustworthiness, and these include:

1) How can one establish confidence in the "truth" of the findings of a particular inquiry for the respondents and the context in which the inquiry was carried out?

2) How can one determine the extent to which the findings of a particular inquiry have applicability in other contexts or with other respondents?

3) How can one determine whether the findings of an inquiry would be repeated if it were replicated with the same or similar respondents in the same context?

4) How can one establish the degree to which the findings of an inquiry are determined by the respondents and conditions of the inquiry and not by the biases, motivations, interests, or perspectives of the inquirer? (p. 290)

Ensuring that these questions are answered increases the researcher's ability to establish internal and external ability, validity, reliability, and objectivity.

The methods the researcher employed to establish and ensure trustworthiness of the data included (1) validation of the data; (2) referential adequacy; (3) peer review; (4) persistent observation; and (5) member checks.

Validation of the Data

Validation of the data involves collecting data from a multitude of individuals and settings through various methods. These include quantitative surveys and qualitative interviews. By employing quantitative and qualitative measures, the researcher reduces the risk of chance associations and systematic biases that would occur when utilizing a single method or procedure (Maxwell, 2005). The researcher in this study utilized two quantitative surveys including the MSCEIT for measuring emotional intelligence and the R-SLEQ for measuring school climate. In addition, digitally recorded interviews and note taking with school principals concerning the school environment were conducted. Using these multiple sources of data increased trustworthiness and enhanced the verification process and the correlation between school climate and emotional intelligence.

Referential Adequacy

Sage and Guba (1985) refer to referential adequacy as the use of recorded data as a benchmark from which to later critique and analyze data. The method allows the researcher to slowly and meticulously analyze the data, refer to it at any time for clarification, and to archive it for later use. The researcher in this study used digital recordings for interviews and took notes during the interview recordings. This eliminated relying on recollections and helped to preserve the data as it was initially presented.

Peer Review and Member Check

Cresswell (1998) states that the use of peer review enhances external verification of the data. Lincoln and Guba (1985) note that the peer reviewer takes the role of the "devil's advocate" and therefore keeps the researcher honest about methods, procedures, and data collection and interpretation. The peer reviewer should be a good listener and receptive to the researcher's feelings and concerns. A written account of the peer reviewer and researcher meetings should be kept by both parties. The researcher in this study used professionals who had experience with quantitative and qualitative research. These individuals included professionals with earned doctorates, the researcher's committee, and paid editors.

External Audits

According to Cresswell (1998), external audits involve an outside consultant to review and examine the process and the product of the study to assess accuracy. This auditor should have no direct connection to the study. This process provides inter-rater reliability of the study. The researcher in this study continually invited professionals to review the research procedures and data and provide feedback to enhance the study.

Sample Population

The sample population that represented United States schools included school principals of several American elementary, middle, and high schools located in South Korea that specifically serve children of military families. The sample population that represented

Korean schools included school principals from elementary, middle, and high schools located in the northwestern area of South Korea that educate children of Korean nationals.

School administrators were defined as principals at the elementary, middle, or high school level. School-leader job descriptions are similar in the two cultures. In South Korea, the principal is considered the top manager of the school. The role, responsibility, and authority of a school principal are clearly defined by Article No. 20 of the Elementary and Secondary School Education Law of South Korea (The Korean Educational Development Institute). It states:

> The role of principal is supervision of school affairs, guidance and supervision of school staff, and the education of students. Principal's tasks include: 1) deciding school days, academic year and semester, and holidays, 2) deciding class size and enrolment, 3) acknowledging curricular subjects, examination, and course completion, 4) deciding admission, re-admission, special admission, transfer, school leave, withdrawal, completion, and graduation, 5) deciding early grade-advance and early graduation, 6) collecting tuition, admission fees, and other miscellaneous expenses, 7) deciding student awards and disciplinary actions, 8) organizing and managing students' self-governing activities, and 9) supervising the procedure of revising school regulations.

The leadership positions in American public school systems, represented in this study by American schools located in South Korea that serve children of military families, are similarly defined. The principal's role includes administering a school program that enhances the educational development and advancement of the students. This includes

using data-driven decision-making to increase student achievement, establishing and maintaining professional programs and activities, promoting a professional learning community, and assessing educational programs. Other responsibilities include educational administration, managing the teachers and other support staff, public relations, managing the facilities, and managing the fiscal, human, and material resources.

In essence, in both Korean and American cultures, the school administrators, namely the principals, have the students' best interest as the core of their responsibility and must work directly with teachers to ensure that this happens. It was therefore relevant to study the relationship between principals and teachers working under administrators in both cultures and determine whether there is a correlation between the emotional intelligence of the leader and the school climate as perceived by the teachers. In addition, the researcher investigated the relationship between the correlations in the South Korean and United States schools to explore similarities and differences.

Non-random purposive sampling was used to acquire school-leader participation. This sampling method allowed the researcher to discuss and explain the study to prospective participants before the study began. Non-randomness in determining the sample population also allowed the researcher to work with principals and teachers to coordinate participation between them. School leaders and teachers were invited to participate in the study and informed that their participation was completely voluntary and any participant had the option of withdrawing at any time. All research protocols were followed and were presented and described in an introductory letter (Appendix F). School leaders also completed a School Leader Consent Survey (Appendix G). The researcher

used an interpreter to schedule, visit, and coordinate the solicitation process and the implementation of the research protocol at all participating South Korean schools.

The researcher first solicited participation from at least five United States schools in South Korea that serve children of military spouses. Prior to contacting these schools, the researcher obtained permission from the authority governing these schools. These schools included the 11 with enrollments of no fewer than 150, including elementary, middle, and high schools.

The researcher also solicited participation from at least 10 South Korean schools located in northwestern South Korea. The researcher attempted to match the school populations of the South Korean and United States schools so that they were similar size and educational level. The minimum 150 student enrollment in each school, South Korean and American, ensured that there would be enough teachers at each participating school to adequately measure the school climate.

The researcher conducted the qualitative interviews with all of the participating principals of the American schools and with the administrators of the South Korean schools. The researcher used an interpreter to communicate with the South Korean principals when necessary.

Instrumentation

The quantitative component of this study included the R-SLEQ and the MSCEIT V2.0. The MSCEIT consists of a self-administered performance-based assessment measuring emotional processing and social cognition. It is organized into four emotional

domains named emotional perception, emotional understanding, emotional facilitation, and management of emotions. Rather than self-reporting one's emotional status, this Likert response-scale ability test requires the subject to solve several problems laden with emotional issues (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, 2003). The R-SLEQ is a commonly used tool developed by Johnson, Stevens, and Zvoch (2007) that measures teachers' perceptions of the climate of their school. It consists of 21 Likert-scale items in five scales including collaboration, decision making, instructional innovation, student relations, and school resources (Appendix A).

For this study, the researcher invited participants by sending a letter containing information explaining the study (Appendix F). The letter was sent to the school district superintendent of the U.S. school serving children of military families. After gaining permission from the superintendent, the researcher then solicited participation from elementary, middle, and high schools by sending a letter explaining the study (Appendix E). The researcher solicited participation by contacting individual school principals from South Korean public elementary, middle, and high schools. The purpose of the initial contacts was to obtain permission to initiate and complete the study in each school. The researcher sought to obtain at least five participating principals or vice principals in each of the United States and South Korean populations, with at least fifty percent of the teachers under each principal willing to participate by taking the R-SLRQ survey. The information in the introductory letter was composed in English and translated into Hangeul for the South Korean schools. The method used for selecting schools was non-random sampling.

The teachers completed the R-SLEQ, a 5-point Likert-scale response of 21 questions. Specific directions for administering the R-SLEQ were given to school leaders, requesting their voluntary participation and also guaranteeing confidentiality for the teachers. The researcher or a school staff member distributed the paper survey to the teachers. Teachers were given one to two weeks to complete and return the survey. If more time was needed, an extension was coordinated with school contacts at each of the participating schools. The researcher arranged for a school staff member to collect and hold surveys in a sealed envelope until the researcher returned to collect them. The postal system was used if distance did not permit the researcher to collect the envelopes in person. The surveys collected were counted and the total teacher population was noted, to ensure that the researcher obtained at least a fifty percent return rate. The percentage of teacher participation at each school was calculated and recorded.

With increasing interest in the personal skills necessary to deal with processing emotionally relevant information, the MSCEIT V 2.0 and its earlier versions examine with how emotional intelligence involves problem solving with and about emotions. The MSCEIT V. 2.0 is a 141-item questionnaire that tests a person's ability to perceive, facilitate, use, and manage emotions. The scores for the MSCEIT include (a) a total emotional intelligence score called the EIQ, (b) two area scores called experiential and strategic scores, and (c) four branch scores which reflect the four-branch ability model including perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions, and (d) eight task scores. The researcher scheduled the tests to be taken on line by the American principal population through Multi-Health Systems. The researcher purchased the paper and pencil version of the MSCEIT in Hangeul to administer to the participating Korean administrator

population. Administrators were given approximately 30 days to complete the MSCEIT. If extra time was needed, it was arranged with the administrator or teachers and through a translator for the South Korean principals. The researcher collected the MSCEIT surveys and entered the responses into an MHS data sheet for scoring. The MSCEIT was automatically graded and filed by MHS, and MHS notified the researcher when each administrator participant had completed his or her survey.

Both the R- SLEQ and the MSCEIT were presented in Standard English to participating American public schools serving children of military families. Participants in the South Korean public schools were given the choice of taking the surveys in either English or Hangeul. When necessary, interviews of the South Korean participants were conducted with a translator.

Data Collection

Along with the two quantitative instruments that were used in this study, via a letter the researcher solicited volunteer teacher participation to measure school climate. This letter accompanied the letter inviting school administrators to participate by taking the MSCEIT. The letter explained how teacher participation in the R-SLEQ would be instrumental in determining whether emotional intelligence is correlated with school climate. The researcher also included an explanation of how this study and its findings could be helpful to the participants (Appendix F).

Data collection of the MSCEIT was completed through Multi-Health Systems (MHS) and the data was returned to the researcher. The researcher purchased a user name

and password for each administrative participant and a time frame of 30 days was given for each administrator to complete the online survey. If there was an issue with an administrator completing the survey in the time frame, the researcher adjusted the time frame.

Before administering the survey, the researcher explained the directions following a specific protocol (Appendix C). The school administrators were given an Informed Consent form explaining the purpose, procedures, benefits, duration, confidentiality, and rights of the participants in the study (Appendix H). School leader participants also completed a School Leader Consent Questionnaire giving the researcher to ascertain specific information including names, districts, and schools, which were coded by the researcher to ensure confidentiality. This form also gathered demographic information including years of educational experience, age, gender, and ethnicity (Appendix G). Completed and returning the form to the researcher implied that consent to participate in the study had been given.

The R-SLEQ was given to the participating teachers. Before they took the survey, the researcher provided every participant with an Informed Consent form explaining the purpose, procedures, benefits, duration, confidentiality, and the rights of the participants in the study (Appendix I). They completed the paper and pencil version of the 21-question R-SLEQ survey to rate the school climate. The researcher explained the directions following a specific protocol (see Appendix D) and arranged a time to explain it during school faculty meetings with each principal or superintendent's approval. The researcher explained the

time frame for completing and handing in the survey. To ensure confidentiality, names were used.

After the quantitative survey data was collected, it was transferred to an Excel spreadsheet and linked via a code system. Teacher survey data from the R-SLEQ was coded to match the data collected from each school leader so the relationship between school climate and emotional intelligence of the school leader could be determined at each school site. The data was also grouped according to the two cultures being studied, American and South Korean, to determine how each group correlated.

The participating school principals were interviewed, and the interviews were audio recorded and transcribed. On the recordings, the school leaders identified themselves by name as well as by the school they currently led. All of the school leaders was assigned a code name to protect their identity and confidentiality.

Following the completion of the surveys, the principals were given the opportunity to meet with the researcher and review the MSCEIT and the R-SLEQ data from their schools. The purpose for sharing the data was to validate the results, make participating school leaders aware of the current status at their schools concerning the climate and emotional intelligence, and provide closure to the research study.

Data-Analysis Procedures

After the data was collected, a multitude of statistical analyses were conducted to determine the correlation between emotional intelligence and school climate for the South Korean and United States sample populations. In addition, statistical analysis compared the

correlations of emotional intelligence and school climate *between* the two cultures. The use of both quantitative and qualitative research helped determine this relationship. The researcher used the SPSS program to calculate correlations, inter-correlations, and regressions. Pearson correlations and regressions were used to quantitatively analyze the MSCEIT and the R-SLEQ scores and determine any variance that might be due to emotional intelligence, gender, years of administrative experience, and age. This information was collected from the School Leader Consent Questionnaire (Appendix G). According to Gay et al. (2006), the goal of correlational research is to determine whether a relationship exists between two quantifiable variables. The variables in this study that may have had significant impact include, gender, years of experience, age, and the emotional intelligence of the school administrator. The statistical analysis revealed which variable or variables were significant.

Interviews with all participating school administrators were used as the qualitative component of the research. The initial interview questions were piloted with seven principals and/or vice-principals of the American schools that serve military families as well as principal and vice-principals from other continental United States schools. Modifications to the interview questions were made based on the feedback and advice of these educational specialists. The researcher then contacted the participating administrators and explained the protocol for the qualitative component of the study, which coincided with the information provided in the introductory letter for the study. Appointments for interviews were then scheduled. The qualitative questions for the administrators are listed below:

1) Based on your experiences with teachers, think of both positive and

negative confrontations you have had with teachers in your school. What emotions did you feel in these in situations, and what impact did they have on the outcome of your confrontation?

2) Given the definitions of emotional intelligence and school climate, how do you think your level of emotional intelligence affects your relationships with the teachers you lead and the overall climate of your school?

3) What do you think is the most important or imperative thing an administrator can do to create and maintain a positive climate? What do you think is the most imperative thing to avoid doing to prevent a negative climate? What is the most difficult thing to do to maintain a positive climate?

4) After gaining more knowledge about your own emotional intelligence level and the school climate in your building, what are your strengths? Weaknesses? And what specific changes do you think you need to make to improve your school climate?

These questions were digitally recorded with the consent of the interviewees. In addition, the researcher took notes to record the responses of the school leaders. The data gathered was coded for confidentiality purposes and then transcribed word for word by the researcher. Following data transcription and analysis, the recorded information was destroyed. The written record of the data and the notes taken during the interviews were

analyzed using inductive reasoning. The data was then categorized into themes that coincided with the research questions posed by the researcher.

Sharing Results with School Leaders

Following data collection and analysis, the participating school administrators were contacted and informed about their emotional intelligence test scores including overall score, branch scores, and differences among branch scores. The researcher then discussed R-SLEQ scores and results with each participating school administrator. This information included both positive and negative information based on the results. All information obtained in the study was considered informational and a form of constructive criticism from which to learn and grow. The researcher explained how emotional intelligence scores are obtained, what their implications are, and how a school leader can use this information for his or her personal improvement and/or school improvement.

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Goleman, Boyatzis, and Mckee (2002) believe "leaders have always played a primordial emotional role" (p. 5). In essence, they gained leadership roles because their leadership was emotionally compelling. Caruso and Salovey (2004) state, "[E]motion is necessary for us to make good decisions, take optimal action, solve problems, cope with change, and succeed" (p.9). Anderson (2004) explains that development of positive reciprocal relationships between school leaders and teachers is an asset in a school functioning successfully. The success of these relationships may be a direct result of what Mayer and Salovey (1997) believe, which focuses on developing personal traits including

empathy, motivation, self-awareness of personal emotions, the ability to understanding the emotions of others, social skills, and the ability to monitor and regulate one's own emotions, qualities that staff seek in their leaders. These are part of the interpersonal and intrapersonal skills that make emotionally intelligent leaders forge the relationships that allow them to be sought out for their positions.

Emotional intelligence is sometimes thought to be an innate genetic component. It is considered by others to be a skill, trait, or characteristic that can be learned or honed. Goleman, Boyatzis, and Mckee (2002) believe that experience plays a key role and therefore emotional intelligence can be improved with time. Mayer et al. (2004) suggest that emotional intelligence increases with age.

This study has several limitations. One is that it included volunteers who had several years of experience with their leadership position and therefore may have possessed more developed emotional intelligence. This study used only the present ages of the administrative volunteers and therefore growth in emotional intelligence over time is not considered.

Another limitation to this study is the time it takes to complete the MSCEIT survey. Administrators were informed of the length of the on-line test and were given 30-days to schedule a time to complete it. The researcher made every effort to inform the subjects that they should schedule a time to complete the survey in a relaxed and attentive manner.

The MSCEIT is a self-assessment, and it may provide unwanted negative feedback to the participating principals, which may have presented another limitation. The

administrators may have been apprehensive about learning their negative attributes and traits. This could have caused them to be less honest when taking the test, and moreover, they may have decided they did not want to participate at all as they may not have wanted to deal with identifying and improving the skills associated with their own emotional intelligence.

Teachers who agreed to complete the R-SLEQ were providing information that made a statement about the climate of their schools. The survey is not lengthy; however, the mood of the teachers at the time of the survey may have influenced their responses. For instance, a bad day, a negative confrontation with a colleague or administrator, or even a long-term hostile relationship could have affected the information provided by the subjects. The participating teachers' assessment of the school climate may also not have represented the opinions of the teachers who decided not to participate. It can only be assumed that the opinions of the nonparticipants were similar to those of the participating teachers.

Finally, there is a limitation concerning the sample size. Correlation coefficients are more applicable with larger sample sizes. Few American schools serve the children of military personnel located in South Korea; therefore, generalizations should probably not be drawn from the results of this study.

Time Frame

This study began in the fall of 2013. The initial contact with the district superintendents and school principals was made in early fall 2013. This included obtaining

permission to complete a research study using volunteer administrators and teachers from American and South Korean school populations. Once the volunteers were identified, the researcher arranged for the administration of the online MSCEIT test with codes and usernames and prepared the paper and pencil version of the R-SLEQ. The researcher provided a brief time frame for the participants to take these surveys. The qualitative component of the study included the researcher piloting the interview questions with experts in the field, followed by interviews with school leaders in January and February of 2014. Both the quantitative and qualitative components of the study were completed by October, 2014.

Summary

The purpose of this mixed-methodology study was to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and school climate as perceived by teachers and compare this relationship between two different cultures, namely the United States and South Korea. The premise that to be an effective and successful leader requires possessing emotional intelligence leads to the belief that developing emotional intelligence skills is necessary for school improvement and specifically for improving school climate.

Leithwood (2005) describes successful principals as being skilled communicators, avid listeners, open-minded to the ideas and concerns of others, motivational, holding high expectations of others and self, and possessing lateral thinking skills to solve problems. Goleman (1998) describes specific emotional traits that make leaders effective. These include self-awareness of emotions, self-regulating emotions, the ability to motivate

oneself and others, empathy, and social skills. It therefore could be inferred that possessing these traits is integral to the successful school leader.

The MSCEIT and the R-SLEQ are the instruments use in this study to determine the connection between the emotional intelligence of administrators and the school climate of their schools, as determined by their own teaching staff. Both instruments are trustworthy, reliable, and valid.

The MSCEIT measures emotional intelligence according to the four-branch model described by Mayer et al. (1997) including awareness of emotions, regulation of emotions, perceiving emotions, and reacting and dealing with emotional situations. The R-SLEQ was the instrument used to measure the teachers' perception of school climate. This 21-item Likert-scale survey evaluates how much teachers agree or disagree with specific school-climate factors. These factors relate to collaboration, school resources, decision-making, student relations, and instructional innovation.

The resulting data and interpretation of data led to implications concerning emotional intelligence and school climate. This research study was conducted scientifically with valid and reliable instruments, and the data collected with these instruments was statistically analyzed leading to salient results, which were intended to enhance the existing body of knowledge about these topics. The results of this study are intended to spur other questions and concerns for further investigation.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

Introduction and Purpose

The intent of this research was to determine whether a relationship exists between the emotional intelligence of school leaders and the school climate as perceived by the teachers. In addition, the researcher explored whether that relationship was similar or different between American and South Korean Schools. The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (2002) was used to quantify the emotional intelligence level of school leaders. The MSCEIT is based on the four-branch model described by Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso (2002) which includes perceiving emotions, facilitating thought, understanding emotions, and managing emotions. The Revised School-Level Environment Questionnaire (2007) was used to measure school climate. This survey consists of five components, namely collaboration, student relations, school resources, decision making, and instructional innovation. The researcher interviewed principals to obtain qualitative data, which was used to elaborate on the data collected from the surveys. In addition, the researcher explored whether differences existed in the emotional intelligence of school leaders and their school climates between a South Korean sample population and an American sample population.

Possessing high emotional intelligence is associated with having respect, compassion, and understanding for others, as well as the ability to read the emotions of others (Mayer and Salovey, 1993). This suggests that a principal with high emotional intelligence can communicate and collaborate with teachers to solve problems, attain goals,

and maintain a constructive school climate. Measuring the emotional intelligence of school leaders as well as the school climate as perceived by the teachers they lead will provide insight into how emotional intelligence may relate to school climate.

It is evident that a school leader must take on the task of creating an environment that promotes the success of the institution as a whole. To promote a positive school climate, the leadership role requires possessing emotional intelligence (Moore, 2009). As educational institutions around the world develop and enhance their educational policies and practices, keeping a positive and productive school climate is paramount (Childs & Hanson, 1998). Observing the relationship between the emotional intelligence of the school leader and the school climate is a worthwhile venture because it may provide pertinent insight concerning the essential leadership qualities needed to maintain positive relationships and growth toward achieving goals in schools anywhere in the world.

Research Questions

The research questions address the relationship between the emotional intelligence of school principals and the mean school climate ratings provided by the teachers they lead. The research questions also address the differences between an American school system and a South Korean school system with regard to the relationship between the emotional intelligence of school principals and their school climates as well as school climate and emotional intelligence alone. The resulting data and analyses will add information to the existing literature. The researcher investigated the following questions:

1) Is there a correlation between the emotional intelligence of school leaders and the school climate as perceived by the teachers?

2) Is the emotional intelligence of school leaders related to age, gender, or years of experience?
3) How do American public schools compare to South Korean public schools concerning school climate, emotional intelligence, and the relationship between emotional intelligence and school climate?

Quantitative Data Analysis

The participants in this study consisted of 10 principals from elementary, middle, and high school levels. Five of the principals were from American schools that serve the children of military families located in South Korea. The other five principals are from South Korean schools located in the northwestern region of South Korea. The demographic make-up of the participating principals is listed in Tables 1 and 2. The participants were coded for confidentiality purposes, and these codes are listed in the tables as A100 through A500, representing the American principal participants, and K100 through K500, representing the South Korean principal participants. The American principals include three females and two males, two of whom were at the elementary level, one at the middle-school level, one at the middle-school/high-school level and one at the high-school level. The five South Korean principals included two females and three males, four at the elementary level and one at the high-school level. The American principals' ages ranged from 38 to 63, the average being 47.4. The South Korean principals' ages ranged from 50 to 58, the average being 53.4. The years of experience in education for the American principals ranged from nine to 24 years, with an average of 14.6. The years of experience in education for the South Korean principals

ranged from 6 to 33, with an average of 20.4. The total sample population including both American and South Korean principals was represented by five females and five males. Female and male perspectives concerning emotional intelligence were therefore balanced.

Table 1

School Leader Demographic Data for American Principals (N = 5)

Principal Assignment	**School Leader Number**	**Age**	**Gender**	**Years of Experience**	**Culture**
Elementary	A100	46	F	13	American
Elementary	A200	47	M	9	American
Middle School	A300	43	F	14	American
Middle/High School	A400	63	F	24	American
High School	A500	38	M	13	American

Table 2

School Leader Demographic Data for Korean Principals (N = 5)

Principal Assignment	School Leader Number	Age	Gender	Years of Experience	Culture
Elementary	K100	50	F	25	Korean
Elementary	K200	52	M	6	Korean
Elementary	K300	54	F	33	Korean
Elementary	K400	58	M	25	Korean
High School	K500	53	M	13	Korean

The participating principals completed the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) to measure their emotional intelligence. The teacher populations for each respective principal were asked to complete the Revised School Level Environment Questionnaire (R-SLEQ). The percentage of teachers directly supervised by each of the participating principals who responded ranged from 51 to 100 percent including both American and South Korean principals. For the American population, the percent of participating teachers under each principal who responded ranged from 51 to 83 percent. For the South Korean population the percent of participating teachers under each principal ranged from 54 to 100 percent (Table 5). The participating teachers for each participating school met the minimum requirement of 50%, deemed by the researcher as necessary to obtain meaningful data concerning school climate.

Table 3

Guidelines for MSCEIT Scores Measuring Emotional Intelligence

EIQ Range	Qualitative Range
69 or less	Consider Development
70 – 89	Consider Improvement
90 – 99	Low Average Range
100 – 109	High Average Range
110 – 119	Competent
120 – 129	Strength
130 +	Significant Strength

The MSCEIT measures emotional intelligence using the four components of the ability model of emotional intelligence as described by Mayer and Salovey (2002). MSCEIT total scores are computed as empirical percentiles and have an average score of 100 percent, with a standard deviation of 15. Therefore a total score of 100 reflects an average score for emotional intelligence. A score of 115 reflects a score within one standard deviation above the mean, and therefore this score is considered above average, whereas a score of 85 is one standard deviation below the mean and is considered below average. The guidelines for the MSCEIT total scores are listed in Table 3. The total MSCEIT score is a good place to start when analyzing one's emotional intelligence because the total score

compares a respondent's performance to that of a normative sample (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso 2002).

The emotional intelligence total scores for all of the participating principals are displayed in Table 4. Collectively, the scores ranged from 56.7 (consider development) to 118.0 (competent). Three of the principals scored in the "consider development" range, two in the "consider improvement" range, three in the "low average" range, one in the "high average" range, and one in the "competent" range. When comparing the two cultures, American and Korean, the American principals' scores included two in the "low average" range, two in the "consider improvement" range, and one in the "high average" range. The mean total MSCEIT score for American principals was 84.0. The South Korean principals' scores included two in the "consider development" range, one in the "consider improvement" range, one in the "low average" range, and one in the "competent" range. The mean total MSCEIT score for the South Korean principals was 83.0 (see Table 4). The mean MSCEIT scores between the American and South Korean principals were very similar and indicate that on average it is in the consider improvement range (see Table 5)

The R-SLEQ survey consists of 21 Likert-scale statements divided into five areas including collaboration, student relations, school resources, decision making, and instructional innovation (Johnson et al, 2007). The respondents replied to each statement by choosing to strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree with the statement. Total R-SLEQ scores were derived by assigning a numerical value to each of the responses and include strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neither agree nor disagree = 3, agree = 4, and strongly agree = 5 (see Appendix A). Reliability testing was

performed on the R-SLEQ data and suggests that the items have relatively high internal consistencies with Conbrach Alpha level of 0.821.

The percentage of teachers taking the R-SLEQ under each participating principal varied from 51 percent to 100 percent, with those in the American schools ranging from 51 to 82.5 percent and those in the Korean schools ranging from 54 to 100 percent (see Table 5). The average American teacher participation was 66.6%, while the average South Korean teacher participation was 77.6 percent (see Table 5).

Table 4

Comparison of Mean EI Scores (MSCEIT) and Mean Teacher Participation (R-SLEQ)

Culture	**Mean EI Score (MSCEIT)**	**Mean Teacher Participation**
American	84.0	66.6%
South Korean	83.0	77.6%

Table 5

Emotional Intelligence of School Leaders from MSCEIT and Teacher Participation

School leader	EI score	EI rank	Total Possible	Teacher participation	Percent participation
American Principals N = 5					
A100	90.2	Low average range	40	26	65%
A200	90.8	Low average range	40	33	82.5%
A300	73.2	Consider improvement	17	12	70.6%
A400	60.8	Consider development	37	19	51.4%
A500	105.0	High average range	22	14	63.6%
Korean Principals N = 5					
K100	79.0	Consider improvement	15	15	100%
K200	95.4	Low average score	27	26	96.3%
K300	118.0	Competent	30	18	60%
K400	56.7	Consider development	49	38	77.6%
K500	65.9	Consider development	50	27	54%

The first research question was intended to determine whether there is a correlation between the emotional intelligence of school leaders and the school climate as perceived by the teachers for the entire sample (N = 10). The results of the linear regression models for the five school climate factors--collaboration, student relations, school resources, decision making, and instructional innovation--are given in Table 6. The independent variable for each of the five regression models was the emotional intelligence summary score. None of the five regression models was significant, indicating no linear relationship between emotional intelligence and the school climate factors (Collaboration: $p = 0.70$, Student

Relations: p = 0.69, School Resources: p = 0.64, Decision Making: p = .26, Instructional Innovation: p = 0.76). This study found that there is no significant correlation between the school climate as perceived by the teachers and the emotional intelligence of the principal. Therefore, emotional intelligence was not a predictor of school climate in this study. The researcher acknowledges that the lack of correlation between the two variables in this study may be due to the small sample size of 10 participating principals and their participating teacher faculties.

Table 6

Linear Regression Models for School Climate Factors and Emotional Intelligence

Dependent Variable	*B*	*SE B*
Collaboration[1]		
Intercept	3.256	1.103
EI	0.001	0.003
Student Relations[2]		
Intercept	3.643	0.800
EI	-0.001	0.002
School Resources[3]		
Intercept	3.989	0.897
EI	-0.001	0.002
Decision Making[4]		
Intercept	1.209	1.422
EI	0.005	0.004
Instructional Innovation[5]		
Intercept	3.930	0.872
EI	-0.001	0.002

Note. $N = 10$. *B* = unstandardized beta coefficients. *SE* = standard error of beta. β = standardized beta coefficients.
[1]$F(1,8) = 0.16$, $p = .70$; [2]$F(1,8) = 0.18$, $p = .69$; [3]$F(1,8) = 0.23$, $p = .64$; [4]$F(1,8) = 1.47$, $p = .26$; [5]$F(1,8) = 0.10$, $p = .76$.

The second research question investigated the relationship between the emotional intelligence of school leaders and the variables of age, gender, and years of experience on school climate. Because of the small sample size, age, gender, and years of experience were not included in the regression models. Separate analyses were conducted to address the impact of these variables on the school climate factors. Table 7 gives the results of the Mann-Whitney *U* test for the comparison of the five school climate factors on gender. The nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* tests were conducted for these analyses because of the small sample size. There were no significant gender differences across any of the five school climate factors including collaboration (p = .92), student relations (p = .18), school resources (p = .12), decision making (p = .92) and instructional innovation (p = .06) (see Table 6). Therefore, the findings show that gender is not a predictor of school climate ratings. The researcher acknowledges that non-significant results may be influenced by the small sample used size in this study.

Table 7

Mann-Whitney U Tests for Comparison of School Climate Factors on Gender

Factor	P – value
Collaboration	.92
Student Relations	.18
School Resources	.12
Decision Making	.92
Instructional Innovation	.06
Note. N = 10 for all tests	

Correlations were conducted to examine the relationship between the five school climate factors and age and years of experience for the total sample. The results of these

correlations are given in Table 8 and show no significant associations between age or years of experience and any of the five school climate factors. Therefore, age and years of experience are not predictors of school climate ratings. As noted before, the researcher acknowledges that the non-significant results may be influenced by the small sample size used in this study.

Table 8

Inter-correlations among School Climate Factors, Emotional Intelligence, Age, and Years of Experience

	Col	SRel	SchRes	DM	II	EI	Age	YOE
Col	--	.34	.60	.91**	.66*	.14	.14	.40
		.33	.07	.00	.04	.70	.64	.24
SRel		--	.49	.22	.68*	.15	-.18	.12
			.15	.54	.03	.69	.61	.74
SchRes			--	.49	.90**	-.17	-.00	-.01
				.16	.00	.64	.99	.98
DM				--	.48	.39	.40	.32
					.16	.26	.26	.37
II					--	-.11	-.00	.29
						.76	.99	.41
EI						--	.63	.29
							.05	.42
Age							--	.52
								.13
YOE								--

Note. $N = 10$ for all correlations. Col = Collaboration; SRel = Student Relations; SchRes = School Resources; DM = Decision Making; EI = Emotional Intelligence; YOE = Years of Experience. Numbers in second row are correlation *p*-values.
$^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Research Question Three investigated the similarities and differences between an American school system and a South Korean school system concerning emotional intelligence and school climate. The results in Table 8 show that there were significant differences between South Korean and American school systems on two of the five school climate factors: collaboration ($p < .001$) and decision making ($p < .001$). For both factors, South Korean schools scored significantly higher that did United States schools.

Table 9

School Climate Differences between American and South Korean Schools

Factor	N	M	SD	t-Score	F-Ratio
Collab	124	3.91	0.48	5.30***	27.36***
	104	3.44	0.77		
SR	124	3.92	0.54	0.53	0.24
	104	3.96	0.54		
SchRes	124	3.56	0.60	0.56	7.25**
	104	3.50	0.77		
DM	124	3.26	0.66	6.25***	8.76**
	104	2.59	0.90		
II	124	3.63	0.56	0.12	0.79
	104	3.62	0.64		

Note. Collab = Collaboration; SR = School Relations; SchRes = School Resources; DM = Decision Making; II = Instructional Innovation. The first line for each factor represents the statistics for South Korean schools, and the second line is for United States schools. The *F*-Ratios are values for the tests for variance homogeneity between the group levels (South Korea or United States).
$^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Because of the small sample size, the data was analyzed using the Mann-Whitney *U* test for comparison of emotional intelligence across the two cultures (Table 10). The results

show that there was no significant difference (p = .84) between the two cultures and the emotional intelligence of school leaders.

Table 10

Mann-Whitney U Test for Comparison of Emotional Intelligence on Culture

Factor	p-value
Emotional Intelligence	.84

Note. N = 10. Culture divisions are South Korea and United States.

Explanation of Quantitative Data

The quantitative data analysis leads to several noteworthy findings that need to be clarified. While the number of participating teachers under each principal was substantial, the number of principals participating (N = 10) was rather small and may have impacted the data analysis leading to the correlations, whether significant or non-significant, found in this study. Research Question One was intended to find whether there is a correlation between the emotional intelligence of the school leader and the climate as perceived by the teachers. Analysis of the data reveals that that there is no statistical relationship between principal's emotional intelligence and school climate when collectively analyzing the 10 participating principals and their faculties. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected since the findings did not support the hypothesis correlating emotional intelligence to school climate.

Research Question Two was intended to determine whether correlations exist between other variables that may affect school climate including the gender, age, and years of experience of the participating principals. Statistical analysis of the data reveals that there

is no significant relationship between the variables of gender, age, and years of experience of school leaders on school climate. Therefore, gender, age, and years of experience are not considered predictors of school climate ratings in this study.

Research Question Three set out to determine whether there are cross-cultural differences in school climate ratings or emotiona1 intelligence of school leaders between the participating American and the participating South Korean samples. The data analysis shows significance for school climate, with the Korean schools scoring significantly higher on the school climate factors of collaboration and decision making. No significant differences were observed for the other three school climate factors: student relations, school resources, and instructional innovation.

Summary of Quantitative Data

The following findings answered the research questions posed: (1) There was no significant correlation between the emotional intelligence of school principals and the school climate as perceived by the teachers in their schools; (2) there was no statistical significance between the variables gender, age, and years of experience on school climate; and (3) significance was found between the two cultures when analyzing differences in school climate factors including collaboration and decision making. These findings collectively address and answer the research questions.

After addressing the research questions quantitatively, the next step was to complete the qualitative component of the study. This involved interviewing the participating principals to gain descriptive data concerning their emotional intelligence and the climate of

their schools. Five interview questions were used to collect data to elaborate on the quantitative results. The questions elicit information about the principals' perceptions of their emotional intelligence and the school climate of their schools (see Appendix B).

Qualitative Study

The statements and insight provided by the school leaders both reinforce and contradict the quantitative analysis. The interview questions include:

1. Based on your experiences with teachers, think of both positive and negative confrontations you have had with teachers in your school. What emotions did you feel in these in situations, and what impact did they have on the outcome of your confrontation?

2. Given the definitions of emotional intelligence and school climate, how do you think your level of emotional intelligence affects your relationships with the teachers you lead and the overall climate of your school?
3. What do you think is the most important or imperative thing an administrator can do to create and maintain a positive climate? What do you think is the most imperative thing to avoid doing to prevent a negative climate? What is the most difficult thing to do to maintain a positive climate?
4. After gaining more knowledge about your own emotional intelligence level and the school climate in your building, what are your strengths? Weaknesses? And what specific changes do you think you need to make to improve your school climate?
5. What research do you consider helpful in improving your ability to lead effectively and to create and maintain a productive school climate?

The principals in this study were all asked to complete the interview portion of the study. A purposeful sampling method was used to select the American and Korean school leaders. Maxwell (1996) notes the usefulness of purposeful sampling because the researcher deliberately chooses certain places, persons, or events because they will provide the most meaningful data. Once school leaders were selected, they completed the quantitative portion by taking the MSCEIT, followed by the qualitative portion, the interviews.

All five American and five South Korean principals (five female and five male) answered the interview questions (see Tables 1 and 2). The American principals interviews were tape recorded and the researcher took notes. The researcher then transcribed the recorded data and reviewed the notes for accuracy. Due to cultural and language barriers, the South Korean principals chose to answer the interview questions in writing; therefore the researcher left the questions with the principal and allowed up to three weeks before collecting the responses. The responses were returned to the researcher and then translated from Hangeul to English. The researcher had three different translators complete the task of translating the responses to ensure accuracy.

The information from the interviews and the written responses was reviewed to help determine an overall theme and framework for the data, which were determined from analysis of the data, using the grounded theory approach. Reviewing the data was done by carefully transcribing the interviews verbatim and comparing the final transcriptions to the detailed notes. The digital recordings were destroyed to preserve confidentiality. The researcher identified the interviewees and organized the transcripts by assigning each principal or vice-principal an identification number. The identification numbers also distinguish between the two groups, namely American and Korean administrators (see

Tables 1and 2). Data analysis yielded several themes and subthemes that are related to both emotional intelligence as described by Mayer and Salovey (1997) and school climate as described by Johnson, Stevens, and Zvock (2007). The researcher organized the resulting themes and subthemes of each interview question. They are presented as they relate to the branches of emotional intelligence, domains of school climate, and leadership styles and behaviors (Tables 11 and 12).

The first interview question was, *Based on your experiences with teachers, think of both positive and negative confrontations you had with teachers in your school. What emotions did you feel in these situations, and what impact did they have on the outcome of your confrontation?* This question focused on emotional intelligence and sought feedback concerning emotions during both positive and negative confrontational situations. The responses of both the American and Korean principals showed both similarities and differences (Tables 11 and 12).

For the American school leaders, two major themes emerged. The first was understanding emotions, with two underlying subthemes, personal improvement/growth and reflection. The second theme for the American principals was managing emotions, with the sub-themes of effective demeanor, including voice and listening skills, and empathy, motivation, and emotional detachment (see Table 11).

The first theme derived from the American principals' responses focuses on understanding emotions for personal improvement, including both inter-personal and intra-personal skills. Mayer and Salovey (1997) describe understanding emotions with the ability model of emotional intelligence as having the adeptness to understand relationships among various emotions, perceive the causes and consequences of emotions, understand

complex feelings, emotional blends, and contradictory states, and understand transitions among emotions. The principals interviewed described several situations when they wanted to make sense and understand their emotions so that a negative confrontational situation would not arise again in the future or to ensure that positive situations would happen more often. Principal A100, a female elementary administrator, verified the need to understand and make sense of her personal interactions by stating:

> I feel bad when there is confrontation. I am not confrontational. I have to look beforehand to see what has to be done and then always go back and reflect to make it better the next time or to understand what could have prevented the situation from happening.

Principal A100 described her inter-personal skills and considers herself an open and understanding person. She implements an open-door policy and invites people to come to her office and discuss situations or problems. Her intent is to work with the teachers and understand their issues so she can make decisions that make sense. As she has done this over the years, her ability to deal with situations has improved because she has gained more experience in understanding people and how to deal with their positive and negative demeanors. Principal A100 relies on her inter-personal and intra-personal skills to help her make decisions, and she continually monitors her emotions to help her make the best decisions concerning her emotions and the emotions of others. Since she does not like negative confrontation, she seeks a calmer approach and appreciates the results when things go well. Principal A100 said:

> I feel joy and a sense of pride for myself and for my staff and for the school when confrontations or problems are resolved. This allows us to move forward and push ahead so we can strive for more and celebrate.

Reflection is an important component in improving emotional intelligence for the American principal population. Principal A400 relies on understanding emotions for personal growth. This female administrator feels a sense of accomplishment when she resolves conflict; however, when conflict is not resolved, it leaves her dissatisfied with negative feelings. Principal A400 said:

> I feel satisfied and proud of myself that I made an impact when my emotions are positive. The impact that positive emotions have is that it makes me feel like my hard work paid off because I became more effective and looked forward to repeating my behaviors and actions to create more similar instances.

Principal A400 noted that listening was one of the specific behaviors that influenced positive outcomes in confrontational situations. She also explained that negative confrontations lead to a feeling of sadness. This impacts her well-being:

> After a negative confrontation, I feel frustration, and my feelings get hurt. The impact is often loss of sleep. I try to think of the others' points of view and understand their approaches. It's a lot of soul searching. I try to apply how they see me so I can make changes.

Principal A400 notes the importance of searching for truth with her emotional decisions. She reflects and thinks about her approaches to dealing with confrontations and wants to repeat the actions that have positive outcomes and avoid the actions that have negative ones.

Understanding emotions was an underlying factor in maintaining a positive climate for the American principals. Most wanted to understand how their emotions played a role in the outcomes of both positive and negative confrontations. They wanted to understand them so they could develop their inter-personal and intra-personal skills with the intent to eliminate negative situations in their schools. Principal A300, a female, stood out, as she believes that understanding emotions does not have a place when managing confrontations. She stated:

> Leaders must take out emotions during confrontation. It is the situation that needs to be dealt with, not the feelings.

Although Principal A300 made this statement, she also described her own feelings during confrontations as feeling joy, excitement, and celebration during positive situations and anger, frustration, puzzlement, and an eerie feeling during negative confrontations.

The second theme that emerged from question one was managing emotions. All principals mentioned the need to manage emotions for effective communication and decision making. The need to manage emotions coincided with Mayer and Salovey's (1997) definition of emotional management, which states that managing emotion includes the ability to be open with feelings, both positive and negative, monitoring and reflecting on personal emotions and the emotions of others, and engaging, prolonging, or detaching oneself from an emotional state. Several sub-themes emerged under managing emotions. One was possessing an effective emotional demeanor including body language, voice, and listening skills. Other sub-themes are empathy, motivation, and emotional detachment.

Principal A500 mentioned that he has learned to control his emotions and maintain a calm demeanor. He said that he was not always able to do this and at one time he let

emotions take control of this situation. He noted the importance of a calm voice and maintaining appropriate body language, specifically not showing negative emotions. He said:

> There were a few years of more anxiety, and I let my emotions get hold of the situation. Staff members were able to sense my anxiety because of my negative body language and feedback.

Principal A100, a female, mentioned the importance of turning the situation around and making it positive. She liked to give accolades and celebrate. She found this practice motivational in that it allowed the staff to focus on the positive and move forward. Principal A200 as well as A400 felt that listening skills were most important. A400 said the following about her staff: "I try to think about how they feel, and I need to listen to their points of view to help me understand concerns, misunderstandings, and even the good things that are happening."

Body language was also mentioned by three of the five principals, who all pointed out that that tone of voice and eye contact were important to maintain during confrontations and discussions. In addition, three of the five principals interviewed mentioned empathy and motivation as important to help maintain positive relationships and work through conflict. Principal A200 stated that he liked to focus on the positive and make positive comments because they are motivational and tend to direct the conversation forward and away from the problem. Principal A100 talked about the importance of understanding the emotional state of others and that there are reasons why people to behave as they do. She stated:

> I have difficult times in my life. During these times, I am not always rational, and I do not necessarily make the best decisions regarding relationships and communication. I like to keep this in the back of my mind when I am in a confrontational situation. I try to see their points of view and understand that there may be other things outside of school that are affecting their emotions and behavior.

Principal A300 stood out as having a different way of managing emotions, which was through emotional detachment. She said:

> There is little or no effect of emotions on the outcome of a confrontation. You can't make decisions based on emotions. Decisions must come from data–both qualitative and quantitative–and the procedures and guidelines set forth by the school.

For the South Korean school leaders, two major themes emerged for the first interview question. The first theme was understanding emotions, with two underlying subthemes relating to responsibility of the school principal to maintain a safe and happy school environment and the principal's commitment to the school's mission. The second theme for the South Korean principals was managing emotions, with the sub-themes of implementing a problem-centered approach, and urgency, openness, fairness, and empathy (see Table 12).

The South Korean principals seemed to be concerned with understanding emotions. The experiences these principals had with positive and negative confrontations led to both positive and negative emotions. Happiness, awe, and appreciation were common responses to positive interactions, while anger, feeling upset, and avoidance were responses to negative confrontations. No matter what feelings resulted from an interaction, a common

sub-theme with understanding emotion for Korean principals was to maintain a safe and happy environment. Korean principal K100 said:

> When confrontations happen, I feel responsible for the confrontations. I try to accommodate the teachers' feelings and analyze the reason for the confrontation and the factors leading up to the confrontation. I want teachers to be happy and feel safe.

This statement relates to the climate of the school and the principal feeling that it is his actions and guidance that will help facilitate a safe and happy climate. Principal K300 also mentioned the importance of having happy teachers. She stated:

> If the teachers are happy, then the students will be happy. If the students are happy, the teachers will be happy. This happens when problems are resolved.

Principal K300 related this statement to the school's mission, which is educating its students. Principal K400 also mentioned the importance of educating the students and providing a positive and safe environment for student success.

As understanding emotions was important to the Korean principals, they described that they managed emotions by understanding them. The Korean principals felt that a positive environment means teachers and students need to feel happy and safe. To accomplish this, the Korean principals explained how they manage their emotions and those of their staffs and students.

Openness was a common sub-theme under managing emotions. Being open also involves listening to the perspectives of others. Female Korean principal K200 stated:

> Most people in confrontational situations are thinking about avoiding them. However, I urge that they let the nature of the problem be known. They should listen and communicate and focus on the problem.

The use of openness and being truthful were also expressed by female Korean Principal K300: "I feel responsible for solving the problem. I need to be truthful so the problem will be solved quickly."

All Korean principals referred to understanding all sides of a confrontation. Three of the five mentioned empathy as an important characteristic for themselves as well as others. In addition, all but one mentioned the need to solve the problem right away. This was mentioned by Principal K500, who felt a sense of urgency to avoid lingering negative feelings:

> Upon confrontation, I sometimes felt upset and angry. I also felt responsible for the problem. I want to solve problems right away so there will be no negative feelings.

Three of the five principals also mentioned the problem-solving approach not only being a priority, but also involving the principal being fair. Principal K400, a male administrator, said:

> The school is always exhibiting accepting behavior, and business is taken care of fairly. There is no discrimination, and encouraging words are exchanged instead.

The first question led to showed similarities between the two cultures. Both focus on understanding and managing emotions. However, the focus of their efforts differs slightly. The American principals sought to understand and manage emotions for more personal growth, although they acknowledge the importance of inter-personal relationships and the need to improve on them through reflection. Korean principals understand and

manage emotions because they feel responsible to maintain a safe and happy environment so staff members and students can stay committed to their schools' missions. Managing emotions for the American principals included proper body language and voice, being motivational, but emotional detachment for one principal. The Korean principals displayed openness and urgency in solving problems as important. Empathy was a common factor for managing emotions in both cultures.

The second interview question was: *Given the definitions of emotional intelligence and school climate, how do you think your level of emotional intelligence affects your relationships with the teachers you lead and the overall climate of your school?* This question was used to get a more in-depth understanding of how the principals felt their emotional intelligence affects school climate. The themes that emerged from both the American and Korean principals was that they all felt their emotional intelligence played a key role in setting the school climate and that it can be developed and improved over time. For the American principals, three sub-themes emerged. These included that emotions are contagious, they must be stable, and they must be addressed. The sub-themes that emerged from the Korean principals included that good relationships require open communication as well as positive feedback and interactions (see Tables 11 and 12).

All American principals felt that emotional intelligence affects school climate through relationships and interactions with staff members. Emotional contagion is described by Caruso and Salovey (2004) as how a positive or negative mood in a group of people can be influenced by one person. This phenomenon was mentioned by the American principals as a predictor of the collective happiness and productivity of the staff. Principal A100 stated, "Collectively, emotions come together. I have to manage them into

a cohesive unit for the betterment of the school." With this statement she explained that there are stressful times when teachers can become sour grapes and get other teachers to buy into the negativity. During these times she felt that she needed to intervene and do some emotional mending. She had to address the negativity, misunderstandings, and misperceptions. She believed if it was allowed to continue, the negativity would spread and get worse. This leads to the second theme described by the American group, which was that emotions must be stable. For Principal A100 this meant that she needed to intervene. This meant finding out what the teachers heard and what they perceived. Principal A100 commented that this meant "really thinking--just true thinking." With this in mind, she noted the importance of making informed decisions for the improvement of the group without having personal emotions influence them (see Table 11).

Principal A200 also focused on his emotional intelligence as a factor to school climate. He also stated that the climate of the school on any particular day influenced him. He said:

> The overall climate helps to determine if it is a bad day or a good day for myself. Emotions are contagious and set the tone for the school.

Principal A200 asserted his need to address and stabilize the school climate when there was a negative vibe. He noted that this negativity could stem from one person or an event or decision coming from himself, the superintendent, or the garrison commander. Principal A200 stated:

> I like to spread positive emotions and must be aware when my emotions are negative. I do not want those negative emotions to be contagious. I have to intervene and make sure positive emotions are spread. When a teacher is spreading

> rumors or expressing unhappiness with school business, I like to speak with the teacher and get the teacher back on track. This means reminding them of the school mission and why they are here.

Principal A200 explained that interactions with teachers needed to be positive. When he did intervene and discuss problems with particular teachers, he knew he needed to help by changing their feelings and getting them back on board with the rest of the staff. Principal A300 noted the impact of emotional contagion on school climate:

> My emotional intelligence highly affects school climate. My emotions breed into and play into the school climate. Joy breeds joy. Anger breeds anger. My stability to hold emotions affects school climate.

Principal A300 mentioned interactions in which her negativity led to more negativity and hard feelings. She described a situation where she dealt with a teacher who needed to take on another class due to high student enrollment and transfers into the school. When the teacher came to her upset and angered at the news, Principal A300 also became agitated as they discussed the issue. Looking back, the principal noted that it was her emotions that caused the confrontation to escalate. She met with the teacher again later in a calmer and more positive mood. Although the teacher was angry, the principal was able to reduce that anger through positive comments, gestures, and gratitude for her compliance.

Principal A400 understood that her personal emotions needed to stay at home because if she brought negative emotions to school and expressed them, the negativity, whether anger or sadness, would spread to her staff:

> I see myself [a former counselor] very in tune with feelings and seeing others' feelings. I check my own emotions and feelings at school. I make sure my personal emotions from home are not brought to school.

Principal A400 felt her staff saw her as having high emotional intelligence because she was easily approachable since she was a good listener and always happy. That made it easier for her to solve problems. She mentioned that teachers often came to her to help with resolving their problems.

Four of the five principals made some reference to how their emotional intelligence had changed for the better over time. These references to improvement often came after a negative situation and much reflection, which was a significant finding and sub-theme arising from the first interview question regarding understanding emotions through reflection for personal improvement. Principal A500 explained:

> You become more aware of your own emotions and your strengths and weaknesses. You gain coping strategies with experience. You become more in control of yourself.

All Korean principals, just like the Americans, felt that emotional intelligence affects school climate through the relationships and interactions with staff members. The sub-themes that emerged with this theme include the need for open communication and the use of positive feedback and interactions with staff members. Collectively the Korean principals felt that their ability to engage in open communication with positivity led to a good school climate (see Table 12).

Principal K200 focused on the students and the need to make decisions in the best interest of the students. He emphasized that for this to happen there must be honest

communication. He explained that trust and respect must be built among the administrator, teachers, and students and that communication and collaboration are necessary. Four of the five Korean principals, both male and female, noted that they had open communication with their staffs and frequent discussions with them. Principal K500 stated, "I try to listen and to be understanding. I like to look at different points of view." Principal K400 said, "I don't not discriminate. Encouraging words are exchanged instead." Principal K100 explained that for administrator and teachers to be able to communicate better, they need to sympathize with the others' feelings and praise each other. Principal K300 explained:

> When supporting and applauding the instructors' educational activities, my emotional intelligence makes me able to strengthen the ability to lead the teachers and students. Additionally, the instructors' open communication is a positive factor in having an effective climate and educational program.

The third interview question asked, *What do you think is the most important or imperative thing an administrator can do to create and maintain a positive climate? What do you think is the most imperative thing to avoid doing to prevent a negative climate? What is the most difficult thing to do to maintain a positive climate?* This question sought to ascertain what a principal thinks he or she can do to make the school climate effective. The overarching theme that arose was that school principals use a mix of leadership behaviors to improve and maintain a positive school climate (see Tables 11 and 12).

Several components are associated with the phenomenon of leadership. According to Northouse (2001), leadership is a process that occurs within a group context and involves the attainment of goals through influence. In addition, Kotter (1990) notes that leadership also involves building and maintaining visions, communicating and

collaborating with people, as well as being motivational and inspiring. For principals to be effective leaders, they must communicate effectively with staff (Sergiovanni, 1998). The use of emotional intelligence, specifically inter-personal skills, helps leaders lead effectively (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). The principals in this study revealed that they used several leadership behaviors that require inter-personal relationships as well as intra-personal well-being. Therefore, the subthemes that emerged can be described as the leadership behaviors displayed by the principals. For the American principal participants, supportive and participative leadership were apparent, as well as the consideration for individuals. The Korean principal population was similar, with the addition of servant leadership (see Tables 11 and 12).

Supportive and participative leadership are both components of the Path-goal Theory of leadership style. The premise behind Path-Goal Theory is that the leader should help subordinates maneuver through obstacles and challenges to attain objectives or goals. This involves defining what the goals are, clarifying the path to achieve them, and removing obstacles or distractors while providing support to subordinates.

The supportive leadership behavior refers to the leader as being approachable by being friendly and helpful and concerned about the well-being and needs of the staff. Supportive leaders are attuned to what needs to be done to improve the work environment and make it productive. In this environment, everyone is treated as equals and respected (Northouse, 2001). The participative leadership behavior includes the need for collaboration and shared decision making. The participative school leader values teacher ideas and opinions and takes them into consideration when making decisions (Northouse, 2001). Individualized consideration is a behavior that refers to leaders who provide a

supportive climate by listening to individual needs. This principal would act as a coach or counselor and place people in situations where they are challenged and can grow personally and professionally (Northouse, 2001).

Several American and Korean principals explained behaviors and beliefs indicative of supportive and participative leadership styles and individualized consideration. For example, Principal A200 felt the need to understand the emotions of the staff; however, he considered it difficult. He noted the importance of getting to know the staff:

> I need to get to know the staff as a whole, but at the same time I need to know the cliques and how they influence and interact with the rest of the staff. But it is also very important to get to know the teachers individually because then I have the ability to guide them in the right direction.

American principal A300 felt that open communication and the willingness to hear both the positives and negatives from the staff are important. The principal stated the necessity to ask himself, "What worked or did not work?" He also noted the need to be open to change while respecting opinions and taking them into consideration when making decisions. Principals A300 and A400 affirmed the importance of having an open-door policy and being truthful and honest so staff members were willing to communicate with them regularly. Principal A400 said, "I get frustrated when people just see me as a manager, rather than a leader that is willing to communicate and who encourages staff participation."

Principals A500 and A100 mentioned the need to focus on attaining goals and making sure that a plan of action is in place and taking the needs of everyone into consideration including teachers, parents, and students. Korean Principal K200 mentioned realizing that there is no guarantee that a decision is logically sound and that what is good

for one, will not always work out for the rest. Therefore, K200 found it impossible to make everyone happy all the time. Three of the five American and four of the five Korean principals mentioned respect and equality and valuing staff members. Principal K300 said:

> In order to create and maintain a positive atmosphere, the administrator should regard the communications between faulty members as most important. The administrator should support and consult the faculty with any difficulties and also resolve their personal issues in order to prevent the formation of a negative atmosphere. The difficult part is the individualistic actions and behaviors of the teachers – but this can be overcome by a community-type mindset.

Principal K100 found it difficult to manage in a democratic way and to have empathy for all members of the school community:

> To gain empathy, school administrators need use customized school-management skills based on the characteristics of the background of the school and members and community. This will help them create a culture that every staff member believes, and then they will be able to communicate with each other.

These responses show that both the American and South Korean principals desire to be supportive to their staffs and communities and they emphasize the importance of participation through collaboration and shared decision-making to reach goals.

The responses of the Korean principals showed an additional tendency toward servant leadership. The servant-leader approach involves behaviors that show the leader's attentiveness to the issues and concerns of staff members. These principal leaders would value the teachers and empathize with them. The servant leader also focuses on the

inequalities and social injustices within the institution and tries to remove them to create a community based on trust, respect, and unity (Greenleaf, 1997).

Korean principals mentioned servant leadership as part of their approach to creating a positive climate. Principal K200 asserted that management, meaning himself, needs to be transparent. He explained that teachers must understand the expectations of the administrator. The administrator must communicate the culture he wants to create and make well thought-out decisions, but to do this and create a positive climate, consensus is necessary. Therefore, communication and collaboration are necessary. The principal stated:

> The administrator needs to realize his duty and put aside his power. He cannot use power the wrong way. He needs to choose words wisely. He needs to communicate with his teachers, parents, and students.

Principal K500 felt the need to communicate with all staff members regularly, and he liked to discuss their personal concerns. He respected their opinions and wanted to hear them so they knew they were part of the school community. He said, "When a few staff members are sad, this creates more sadness; mad makes more madness." He mentioned the need for teachers to work on their own emotions and move on from the bad situations. Principal K300 felt similar in that she was concerned with the negative feelings of staff members and wanted to accommodate them by listening and helping them work through their issues so they were not left out or felt isolated. She wanted everyone to feel valued. Korean Principal A200 specifically mentioned servant leadership by saying,

> When the principal is a servant leader and has the attitude of a servant leader, not a boss, then the climate will be positive because the teachers will feel appreciated. It

is most important to have and model a positive mind, positive thinking, and a positive attitude.

The responses from the Korean principals show the need to build community through awareness of what is going on in the school, the ability to listen, empathize, and become aware of what is making the climate better or worse, and finally commit themselves to improving the climate for the benefit of the group.

Interview question four asked, *After gaining more knowledge about your own emotional intelligence level and the school climate in your building, what are your strengths? Weaknesses? What specific changes do you think you need to make to improve your school climate?* This question sought to ascertain in what area or areas of emotional intelligence principals felt they needed to improve, if any. In addition, information was also gained concerning the areas of school climate in need of improvement. The responses led to similar findings in the two cultures. For the Americans, emotional management was a common theme. The Korean principals also had emotional management as an area in need of improvement, with the addition of using emotions. As for the domains of school climate, the American principals noted collaboration, student relations, decision making and instructional innovation. The Korean principals mentioned collaboration and decision making in their responses.

Managing emotions includes openness to both positive and negative feelings in both oneself and others. It also includes the ability to monitor and reflect on emotions. Four of the five American principals made comments related to difficulty with managing emotions. American Principal A100 explained that teachers often had to slow her down because she was very global and assumed that other people knew what she was thinking

and feeling. She did not always take the time to observe her surroundings, ask questions, and pay attention to the comments and feelings of others. Without observing the emotions of others, she ran into situations where she sometimes upset or agitated someone or a group of staff members. American Principal A400 noted her weakness as taking the actions and comments of others too personally and then becoming frustrated. She stated that this often led to loss of sleep. She also wanted her staff members to feel they were a part of the school and therefore felt she needed to engage in more open conversations.

American Principal A200 knew he needed to improve in negative conversations, meaning instances when he had to reprimand a teacher or correct undesirable or inappropriate behaviors or actions. He said, "Sometimes you can't wait and you just need to get it done with and out of the way." American Principal A500 described his area in need of improvement as trying to determine where the individual's personal feelings are and trying to figure out their reactions and what they mean and not letting this control the situation. He also noted the difficulty with trying to not let his own personal feelings and emotions interfere with his decisions. He mention a specific incident when he needed to terminate an employee. He contended with empathy versus reality to determine the best response to the employee's offense. He stated, "It was hard not to let personal feeling get in the way. The teacher has a family, a house, and bills to pay. His livelihood is in my hands. But I have to do what is the best for all. And often that means doing something that is emotionally challenging."

Korean principals also revealed difficulties with managing emotions. Korean Principal K500 brought up that his weakness is in helping teachers improve their emotional intelligence. He stated, "I think the emotional intelligence of teachers affects their

performance in school including teaching and as well as their relationships with peers." Korean Principal K200 pointed out that he needed to be more confident with his emotions and work on not becoming too assertive or powerful. Korean Principal K400 wanted to work on accepting both positive and negative feedback from teachers, parents, and students and wanted to be able to use this information to make good decisions to benefit everyone.

Three Korean principals mentioned that they needed to improve using emotions, including the ability to observe mood changes and the feelings of others to understand and value different points of view (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Principal K100 mentioned that although she practiced good listening skills, she sometimes relied on herself and her own opinions based on her feelings and emotions. Korean Principal K300 said she would like to see more of a community mindset which uses emotions more effectively to encourage participation and collaboration. Korean Principal K400 also wanted to be able to use her emotions to motivate staff. She stated, "If I am positive and encouraging, this tends to make the teachers and students behave the same way."

American principals mentioned four domains of school climate that they felt were in need of improvement. These included collaboration, student relations, decision making and instructional innovation. Principal A400 mentioned that she needed to be out of her office more often to see what the teachers and students were doing and how they were interacting. She wanted to observe instructional practices and behaviors and speak with the teachers and students to find out their needs and what they like and/or dislike. Principal A100 noted that her organizational skills were lacking, causing her to be scattered which impacted her relationships with teachers and her ability to work with them effectively. Principal A500 stated his issues with making decisions and that his decisions had to be

thought out carefully because they affected the well-being of the students. Principal A200 referred to professional development as being an area he needed to focus on. He noted the need for professional development, especially at the beginning of the school year, for teachers to have a common understanding about professional conduct and the code of ethics. He said, "Teachers how to conduct themselves as professionals and must display professional behaviors not only for each other but also for students and parents." In addition, four of the five American principals mentioned that they needed more collaboration and communication among teachers. This also meant that everyone had to improve listening skills and be more open to sharing and improving instructional practices.

Korean principals found that collaboration and decision making were the areas of school climate in need of improvement. Korean Principal K100 described that school management needs to change from the top-down model, which she described as government at the top and then, in descending order, administrators, teachers, students. She described the best model would include a reciprocal relationship with collaboration and decisions making among all constituents. She also believed that other factors influence decision making and must be taken into account. These involve social background, including social communities and teacher and student characteristics. Principal K200 wanted to continue to improve his ability to facilitate communication and collaboration between the staff and ensure that the teachers also had this expectation. Korean Principal K500 stated, "I am trying to improve our school's climate by eating with teachers and having small talks with them." He went on to say that he believed his emotional intelligence and that of the teachers influences the relationships between peers. Korean Principal K300 also emphasized that the school needed to have an active community

mindset through discussions and the sharing of information to reach its goals. The focus should be on the students.

Question five asked, *What research do you consider helpful with improving your ability to lead effectively and to create and maintain a productive environment.* This question sought to determine what principals do to make the improvements they know they need regarding their emotional intelligence and/or the climate of their schools. The responses resulted in three themes regarding improvement. In both populations, the focus was on self-improvement, staff improvement, or making changes within the organization (see Tables 11 and 12).

American principals felt that they needed to help themselves by engaging in specific activities or behaviors. For the American principals, these included (1) reading books from their own educational preparation concerning effective administrational practices, (2) reading professional journals such as ASCD and ASCD Smartbriefs concerning improving school climate, (3) searching the Internet for best practices including administration and student learning, (4) researching how to reduce stress and anxiety and balance the responsibilities between work and home, and (5) contacting other schools to see what they are doing to improve and maintain a productive climate. Korean principals mentioned the following ways to help themselves improve school climate: (1) self-training through books concerning school management, humanity, psychology and best practices for elementary education; (2) joining educational communities for communication and collaboration concerning school effectiveness; and (3) researching emotional intelligence concerning teachers and administrators. Both American and Korean principals found that

they needed to focus on themselves to help improve the effectiveness of their school climates.

American and Korean principals felt that they could improve school climate by helping the staff improve in specific areas. The American principals mentioned the following: (1) collaborative research and team-building exercises; and (2) professional-development opportunities for best teaching practices, student learning, and school climate. The Korean principals mentioned data-driven decision-making as an intervention for the staff to improve school climate which entails the following: (1) surveying staff members to gain information for implementing best teaching practices and programs and creating a productive atmosphere, and (2) providing staff professional development as a response to survey results.

Finally, both American and Korean principals felt that there are organizational improvements that would help them create and maintain a productive school climate. Members of both cultures mentioned finding ways to improve the policy making, procedures, and regulations that make the school run effectively. American Principal A300 said that she needed to find ways to communicate the regulations and procedures more effectively. Principal K100 believed that changes needed to be made to improve policymaking and procedures. He elaborated by saying that this cannot be the principals' sole responsibility and that collaboration between the school community members is necessary.

Table 11

Qualitative Themes and Sub-themes (American School Population)

Interview Question	Theme	Sub-theme
Question 1	Understanding emotions	Personal improvement Reflection
	Managing emotions	Effective demeanor (voice body language, listening skills) Empathy, motivation Emotional detachment
Question 2	School leader emotional intelligence affects relationships and school climate and can be developed and improved over time	Emotions are contagious Emotions must be stable Emotions must be addressed
Question 3	Leadership styles/behaviors	Supportive Leadership Participative Leadership Individualized consideration
Question 4	Improving emotional intelligence	Managing emotions
	Improving school climate	Collaboration, student relations, decision making, instructional innovation
Question 5	Self-improvement	Reading books, professional journals, Web searchers, observing other schools
	Staff improvement	Collaborative research and team building exercises, Professional development opportunities
	Organizational improvement	Policy making, procedures and regulations

Table 12

Qualitative Themes and Sub-themes (South Korean School Population)

Interview Question	Theme	Sub-theme
Question 1	Understanding emotions	Responsibility Safe School Environment Commitment School Mission
	Managing emotions	Openness, empathy, urgency, problem centered approach
Question 2	School leader emotional intelligence affects relationships and school climate and can be developed and improved over time	Open communication Positive interactions
Question 3	Leadership Styles/behaviors	Supportive Leadership Participative Leadership Servant Leadership Individualized consideration
Question 4	Improving emotional intelligence	Managing emotions, using emotions
	Improving School climate	Collaboration, decision making
Question 5	Self-improvement	Reading books, joining educational communities, researching emotional intelligence concerning teachers and administrators.
	Staff improvement	Surveying staff needs and providing professional development
	Organizational improvement	Policy making, procedures and regulations

Clarification of Qualitative Results

The qualitative findings help answer Research Question One: *Is there a relationship between emotional intelligence of school leaders and the school climate as perceived by the teachers?* The qualitative results suggest a positive relationship between the emotional intelligence of the principal and school climate. The themes and sub-themes derived from the interview questions demonstrate that principals use emotional intelligence to help improve and/or maintain a positive school climate. The themes and sub-themes relate to ability model of emotional intelligence described by Mayer and Salovey (1997). Understanding and managing emotions was a theme that emerged as principals described the emotions they feel during positive and negative confrontations. The principals also acknowledged that their own emotional intelligence affects their relationships and school climate. Moreover, the principals acknowledged that they needed to improve certain areas of their emotional intelligence, namely managing emotions. A theme that emerged concerning improving school climate took into account that relationships are necessary to improve and maintain it. Mayer and Salovey (1997) note that relationships involve interpersonal skills, which are a component of emotional intelligence.

Although emotional intelligence was supported as a factor that affects school climate according to the principals interviewed, it was also observed that other factors also influenced school climate. Leadership styles and behaviors were mentioned, among them regulations, policies, and procedures that govern the school. Finally, the teachers' knowledge and skills concerning instruction and their ability to collaborate and work as a

team were considered factors. Collectively, these factors, along with the principal's emotional intelligence, create a positive or negative climate.

Research Question Three sought to find the similarities differences between the American and Korean principals concerning the relationship between the emotional intelligence of the principal and the school climate. Understanding and managing emotions was a common theme involving using emotional intelligence to forging and maintain positive relationships and improve school climate. The most apparent difference between the two cultures concerns responsibility for the overall climate of the school, which was observed in the responses to interview questions one and three. Korean principals felt responsible for their schools' climate and for serving the needs of the students, teachers, and community. It is therefore the principal's responsibility to develop emotional intelligence skills that can make the school prosper or fail. American principals inclined toward believing that administrators and teachers were collectively responsible for the school's well-being.

Merging Quantitative and Qualitative Results

Analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data sets resulted in findings that were not necessarily congruent but in some instances contradictory. The researcher notes that the small sample size of principals many have impacted the results of the data analysis. The similarities and differences between the quantitative and qualitative data are explained in the next few paragraphs.

Analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data to determine whether there is a relationship between the emotional intelligence of the school leader and the school climate as perceived by the teachers was not similar. The results of the linear regression models for principal emotional intelligence and for the five school climate factors including collaboration, student relations, school resources, decision making, and instructional innovation showed no significance between a principal's emotional intelligence and school climate ratings, indicating no linear relationship between them. However, the qualitative data suggests otherwise. Every school leader mentioned that emotional intelligence affects relationships and school climate. Moreover, not only did they provide examples of how their emotional intelligence has evolved, they also mentioned that emotional intelligence can be developed and improved over time. Both American and South Korean principals responded to the interview questions with several examples of how they use their emotional intelligence to create and maintain the climate at their respective schools. Specific areas included managing, understanding and using emotions for collaboration, communication, and supportive and participative leadership. Other components of emotional intelligence were mentioned as effective practices to maintain a positive school climate including listening skills, empathy, motivation, effective voice and body language, openness, and trust. In essence, the principals realized that they needed to develop effective inter-personal skills to maintain a positive climate.

The emotional intelligence of principals was measured quantitatively with the MSCEIT and yielded scores ranging from 56.7 (consider development) to 118.0 (competent) collectively. The differences between cultures were minimal, with the American principals' scores ranging from 60.8 (consider development) to 105.0 (high average range) compared to

the South Koreans' scores ranging from 65.9 (consider development) to 118.0 (competent). Both populations scores were in similar ranges, including consider development, consider improvement, and low average. One American principal scored in the high average range, while one Korean received the highest rating in the sample, which was in the competent range. However, when calculating average score for each group, the difference was small, with the mean total MSCEIT score for American principals being 84.0 and for Korean principals being 83.0.

The quantitative data from the MSCEIT show that although some emotional intelligence skills are used by members of both cultures, the principals still have areas in need of improvement, as noted by the scores in the consider development and consider improvement ranges. The qualitative data suggests similar findings in that the principals of both cultures mentioned specific areas needing improvement, including managing, using, and understanding emotions. Furthermore, both American and Korean principals acknowledged the need to continually improve emotional intelligence through various methods such as reading books and professional journals, observing other principals and taking advantage of professional development opportunities.

The school climate was measured quantitatively with the R-SLEQ, which was completed by the teachers. This statistical analysis compared school climate ratings for collaboration, school relations, school resources, decision making, and instructional innovation in the American and the South Korean schools. The results indicated that a significant difference was observed in the areas of collaboration and decision making between the two cultures, with the South Korean schools scoring significantly higher. The

qualitative data suggests the contrary. Both cultures mention collaboration and decision making as areas for improving school climate. However, this does not necessarily indicate that there is a lack of collaboration and decision making in either culture. It just may be that one culture practices effective collaboration and decision making more than the other. In this case, quantitatively, the South Korean principals appear to be more effective in collaborating and making decisions concerning school climate. Qualitatively, both cultures indicated the need for improvement.

Summary

Chapter Four presented, analyzed, and described quantitative and qualitative data that addressed the research questions. The quantitative component of this study included regression analysis to determine whether there was a correlation between the emotional intelligence of school principals and school climate as perceived by the teachers in their schools. Non-parametric statistical analysis was used to determine whether gender, age, and years of experience had an impact on school climate factors because of the small sample size N= 10. Non-parametric statistical analysis was used to compare school climate ratings and principal emotional intelligence between the American and South Korean schools. The qualitative component included interviews with all participating principals. The interview questions were developed to help elaborate on the quantitative data. The grounded-theory approach provided the means to derive themes and sub-themes relating to principal emotional intelligence and school climate as perceived by the teachers.

The resulting quantitative analysis showed that that there is no statistical significance between principal emotional intelligence and school climate when collectively analyzing the

10 participating principals and their teacher faculties. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected for the findings that did not support the hypothesis correlating emotional intelligence to school climate. Statistical analysis also revealed that there is no significance between the variables of gender, age, and years of experience on school climate. Therefore, gender, age, and years of experience are not considered predictors of school climate ratings for this study sample. Finally the quantitative data show significance for school climate ratings, with the Korean schools scoring significantly higher on the school climate factors of collaboration and decision making. There were no significant differences observed for the other three school climate factors--student relations, school resources, and instructional innovation. The qualitative analysis suggests that principals of both cultures use emotional intelligence to develop and maintain a positive school climate through relationships with teachers. Data also revealed that principals of both cultures feel the need to improve their emotional intelligence to enhance the school climate. Specific areas for improvement in both cultures were collaboration and decision making.

The data and data analysis in Chapter Four provide information about the emotional intelligence of school leaders and school climate. Chapter Five will reflect on the data analysis and provide discussion and interpretation of the data analyses to address the three research questions. The researcher will also make recommendations for further research endeavors.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

Chapter Five begins with a restatement of the research problem and purpose as well as the methodology used in this study. A comprehensive summary of the results including a discussion of how the results relate to the research questions follows. The chapter concludes with an explanation of how the results can be used in practice, with recommendations for further research.

The study sought to ascertain whether there is a correlation between the emotional intelligence of schools leaders and the school climate as perceived by teachers. Data was collected from ten schools located in South Korea, five of them considered American schools because they educate children of United States military families and five South Korean public schools which educate children of Korean nationals. The study also focused on the differences between these two populations in terms of emotional intelligence and school climate. The researcher collected quantitative data about the emotional intelligence of participating school principals using the MSCEIT, a 141-item survey. Teacher return of the R-SLEQ ranged from 51% to 100%. Data about school climate was measured with the R-SLEQ, which was completed by participating teachers under each of the participating principals (see Table 4 for emotional intelligence scores and teacher participation). MSCEIT scores ranged from 56.7 (low average range) to 118.0 (competent).

The researcher collected qualitative data from all 10 participating principals through interview questions. The interviews sought to gain more insight concerning emotional intelligence and school climate as principals discussed their perceptions of their

own emotional intelligence and the school climate of their schools. This information helped to provide a context and describe how the principals use the four-branch ability model of emotional intelligence described by Mayer and Salovey (1997) to manage school climate. It also helped to discover which school climate factors principals focus on. A comparison of American and South Korean school cultures was achieved through both quantitative and qualitative data.

Summary of Results

This research endeavor included 10 principals in South Korea, five from the American school system and five from the South Korean, who completed the MSCEIT to measure emotional intelligence. A total of 228 teachers participated in the study by taking the R-SLEQ to measure school climate. The goal was to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence and school climate as perceived by the teachers. Interview responses from the principals provided a qualitative context regarding the relationship between the emotional intelligence of the school leaders and the school climate at their respective schools. The quantitative and qualitative data ascertained from this study are summarized as follows:

- A total of 10 principals participated in the study by taking the MSCEIT, of whom five were leaders of American schools and five of South Korean schools.
- Of the total participating principal population, five of the principals were female and five were male.

- Participating principals represented elementary, middle, and high school leaders.
- Principals' ages ranged from ages 38 to 63 with an average of 47.4 years for the American principals, and 53.4 years for the Korean.
- The years of experience for principals ranged from six to 33, with an average of 14.6 for American principals and 20.4 for the South Korean.
- The percentage of teacher participants responding to the MSCEIT under each participating principal for all principals ranged from 51% to 100%, with a range of 51% to 83% for the Americans and 54% to 100% for the South Koreans.
- Scores on the MSCEIT ranged from 56.7 (consider development) to 118.0 (competent).
- Collectively, three principals scored in the consider development range, two in the consider improvement range, three in the low average range, one in the high average range, and one in the competent range.
- When comparing MSCEIT scores between cultures, the American sample included two principals scoring in the low average range, two in the consider improvement range, and one in the high average range, whereas the South Korean principals included two in the consider development range, one in the consider improvement range, one in the low average range, and one in the competent range.
- The average MSCEIT score was 84.0 for American principals and 83.0 for Korean.

- The results of the linear regression models for the five school-climate factors including collaboration, student relations, school resources, decision making, and instructional innovation, and emotional intelligence showed no significance, indicating no linear relationship between emotional intelligence and school climate. Therefore, the emotional intelligence of the principal was not a predictor of school climate.
- The Man-Whitney U test for the comparison of the five school-climate factors on gender showed no significant gender differences for any of the five school climate factors, showing that gender is not a predictor of school-climate ratings.
- Correlations between age and years of experience with the five school-climate factors showed no significant associations between age or years of experience and the school-climate factors, indicating that age and years of experience are not predictors of school-climate ratings.
- When comparing the school-climate factors of the American and South Korean schools, there were significant differences on two of the five, with the South Korean schools scoring significantly higher than American schools on factors associated with collaboration and decision making.
- When comparing emotional intelligence of the two cultures, the Mann-Whitney U test showed that here were no significant differences between the American and South Korean principals' emotional intelligence scores.
- The qualitative interviews support the contention that there is a relationship between the emotional intelligence of principals and school climate and that

principals use emotional intelligence to improve and/or maintain a positive school climate.

- Confrontational situations elicit the need for understanding and managing emotions in both American and South Korean principals.
- American and South Korean principals acknowledge the need to continually improve their own emotional intelligence.
- Leadership styles and behaviors were noted as possible factors influencing school climate and include supportive and participative leadership and individualized consideration in both cultures, with the addition of servant leadership for the South Korean principals.
- Maintaining positive relationships and a positive climate included the need for understanding emotions and managing emotions for both the American and South Korean principals.
- The responsibility for the overall climate of the school was considered the principal's main responsibility for the South Korean principals, but more of a collective responsibility of administrators and teachers by the American principals
- The qualitative interview data in this study did not agree in all ways with the qualitative data collected on the MSCEIT and R-SLEQ.

Areas for Consideration

Before discussing the results of this study, the researcher notes some areas of consideration. One is the sample size of the participating principal population (N = 10)

when analyzing the relationship between the emotional intelligence of school principals and school climate as well as the other variables including age, gender, and years of experience. The sample size for this study was small, and therefore the statistical tests took it into consideration. A larger sample size would reduce the margin of error and increase the reliability of the statistical analysis (Vogt, 2007).

The population for this study included school principals and their respective teacher faculties. Due to location, potential participation of principals of American schools was limited to those that serve the children of military families located in South Korea. These schools are located on American military installations in South Korea, which are few in number. A solicitation for participation included a letter sent via e-mail to each potential principal and vice-principal working at an American school in South Korea (see Appendix F).

The responses from the administrators varied, with some initially accepting the request for participation while others were reluctant. A few said that they could not ensure that they would have the time to complete the MSCEIT survey. Others forbade their faculties to measure the climate with the R-SLEQ. Some principals did not reply to the request. Obtaining participants from South Korean schools was also hindered by several obstacles, including the language barrier. A translator was used to contact schools and set up a meeting for the researcher and the principal to discuss the study and the principal's participation. A translator was also used during the initial meeting with the principals to explain the study and the requirements of the study. All documents soliciting participants were translated into Hangeul and were shared with principals during the initial visits to the

various school sites. Several cultural barriers made from South Korean schools' participation difficult. Some principals agreed to participate but expressed anxiety about completing the MSCEIT survey. Some made statements such as, "This is much work," "It will be hard to find time," "I will do my best," and "I am not sure I want to take a test." The process of explaining the procedures for taking the MSCEIT survey and the R-SLEQ was extensive and took several meetings of the principal, the translator, and the researcher before an understanding was reached. The researcher had to assume that the principals understood the protocol for completing the MSCEIT and for distributing and collecting the R-SLEQ climate survey.

Another consideration in this study involves the use of the MSCEIT to measure the emotional intelligence of the school principals. Although the MSCEIT is a valid and reliable instrument for measuring emotional intelligence, other instruments are available. Using several emotional intelligence surveys, including peer and self-assessments, could provide a more comprehensive view of the overall emotional intelligence of the participating principals. It is also apparent that the MSCEIT is an assessment that measures emotions, something which many people may not be familiar or comfortable with. The MSCEIT also requires time to complete, and factors such as test anxiety, personal well-being, and circumstances influencing mood at the time of testing may impact participants' scores. A person may perform much better taking MSCEIT a second time. This comment and suggestion appear in the MSCEIT User's Manual (Mayer, et al. (2002).

The Revised School Level Environment Questionnaire (R-SLEQ) and its implementation in this study also posed some problems. The researcher hoped to have 100%

teacher participation; however, this was not the case in most schools. Therefore, since only a portion of the teachers rated the climate of their schools, these data are incomplete. Furthermore, the teachers had discretion about when to take the survey. Factors such as the time spent taking the survey, the mood of the teacher, or positive or negative interactions they may have had with colleagues or the school administrator on the day they took it may have skewed some of the teacher responses. The willingness to participate in measuring school climate may reflect the need of the teacher to express negative or positive feelings about the school and/or the administrator. The perceptions teachers possess resulting from experiences, relationships, knowledge and skills concerning educational practices, emotional well-being, and personal opinions may have influenced the teachers' school-climate ratings. For elaboration on the information provided by the school-climate survey, the RSLEQ, selected teachers could have been interviewed or asked to complete open-ended questionnaires. The information thus gained may have provided additional insight about the school climate as well as the principals' influence on it.

The school-climate survey (R-SLEQ) was translated into Hangeul for the South Korean participants, requiring that several bilingual educators translate it. Even with multiple translations, certain questions on the survey were inconsistent. This was due to the inability to make direct translations between Korean and English due primarily to differences in sentence structure, word morphology, and the absence of a significant number of cognates.

A volunteer teacher at each participating South Korean School distributed the R-SLEQ survey. Although the protocol was provided in Hangeul and discussed during the

initial meeting with the principals, the researcher had to assume that the principals did not influence the implementation or the results of the survey.

The tools for measuring emotional intelligence and school climate are both embedded in American educational culture, but it cannot be assumed that they are also embedded in Korean culture. The concept of emotional intelligence is an extension of psychological research conducted in the 1980s as psychologists explored the interactions of emotions and cognition. The term emotional intelligence was formally defined and presented as a possible measureable construct in 1990. At that time it became a considerable topic of discussion in academia as well as among the general public in the United States. In 1995, Daniel Goleman published his book *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More than IQ,* and in the years following the concept of emotional intelligence grew more popular as it was explored by psychologists, human resource specialists, and educators. Several studies were conducted to help shed light on the notion of emotional intelligence and its relation to success in life as well as leadership effectiveness. As a measurable construct, emotional intelligence was, and still is, considered controversial (Bracket et al., 2004). The researcher in this study can only assume that South Korean academics and educators are familiar with the concept. Similarly, the concept of school climate may be understood by South Korean public school educators; however, this understanding may entail a different cultural perspective. Therefore, responses on the RSLEQ may not reflect the same components of school climate that are considered integral to productive schools in the United States. The RSLEQ may not be embedded within the South Korean culture, so an instrument developed in South Korea may prove more

appropriate for measuring school climate there and determining its relationship to the emotional intelligence of the principal.

The interview portion of the study provided information that elaborated on the quantitative data. The interviews with the American principals were scheduled in person or by phone, and plenty of time was provided for discussion and clarifications. The researcher listened and recorded responses. At times, the principals were unsure of the nature of the question(s) or did not provide very detailed responses. The researcher provided prompts or guidance in these instances. The South Korean principals were reluctant to complete the interviews in person because they did not have enough time, did not know if they could get a translator, or did not feel comfortable interviewing. Because of these concerns, the researcher arranged to and let the principals respond in writing. The Korean principals gladly accepted the offer to answer the interview questions on their own time. Some feelings shared by principals included relief that they had time to think about their answers before responding in writing, and they were thankful that they could schedule this task on their own time. All interview questions were translated into Hangeul. Some responses came in English, while others needed to be translated from Hangeul to English. Translations were made by three bilingual educators to ensure accuracy and consistency. Again, there were some discrepancies involving meanings; however, these were discussed and clarified by the researcher and the translators. The shortcoming of the written interviews was the lack of opportunity for the researcher to ask for elaboration or clarification. However, most of the South Korean respondents did answer the interview questions. In addition, the principals felt comfortable as they were not rushed and did not

have the discomfort and awkwardness of interviewing in person with a translator and a time limit.

Discussion

The information and insight found in this study adds to the existing literature concerning leadership, emotional intelligence, and climate in school settings. The researcher will discuss the results of the quantitative and qualitative data in respect to the research questions.

To measure the emotional intelligence of the participating principals, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) was administered. The MSCEIT is described by Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2002) as:

> An ability-based scale: That is, it measures how well people *perform tasks* and *solve emotional problems,* rather than simply asking them, for example, about their subjective assessment of their emotional skills. The MSCEIT was developed from an intelligence testing tradition that was substantially informed by the emerging scientific understandings of emotions ads their functions. Responses to the MSCEIT represent actual abilities to solve emotional problems. This means that scores are relatively unaffected by self-concept, response set, emotional state, and other confounds (p. 1).

The possible scores on the MSCEIT are presented in categories (see Table 3), The total MSCEIT score is a good place to start when analyzing one's emotional intelligence because the total score compares a respondent's performance to those of a normative

sample (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). The results of the MSCEIT assessment for this study show a spread of emotional intelligence scores ranging from 56.7 (consider development) to 118.0 (competent). Three principals scored in the "consider development" range, two in the "consider improvement" range, three in the "low average: range, one in the "high average" range, and one in the "competent" range. The MSCEIT was used in this study because it is considered an appropriate comprehensive assessment of emotional intelligence and can be applied to an educational setting.

The quantitative data alone do not solely describe the level and use of emotional intelligence of the principals. Therefore, the researcher included a qualitative component involving interview questions to help elaborate on how the principals use their own emotional intelligence in the workplace to improve school climate.

To correlate emotional intelligence scores from the MSCEIT with school climate, teachers' perceptions of school climate were measured with the Revised School Level Environment Questionnaire (RSLEQ) which is a 21-item Likert-scale survey that assesses school climate and is considered suitable and useful for group administration because it specifically assesses teachers' perceptions of the school environment and can be easily scored by hand or with a computer (Freiberg, 1999). The RSLEQ measures school climate according to five factors including collaboration, decision-making, instructional innovation, student relations, and school resources (see Appendix A). The teachers were specifically selected to measure the climate of the school because they are most aware of the school-level environment, which extends beyond the classroom (Fisher & Fraser 1990).

Teacher participation in the R-SLEQ was critical in determining the relationship between school climate and the emotional intelligence of school leaders. All together, 228 teachers took the R-SELEQ survey. The teacher populations for each participating school ranged from 15 to 50. The percent of participating teachers for each participating school ranged from 54% to 100%. The researcher worked with a teacher contact at each school to distribute and collect the surveys. It is apparent that it would be most beneficial to obtain 100% teacher participation for the most accurate ratings. The researcher determined that the minimum number of teacher participants at each school taking the R-SLEQ should be 50%. This minimum requirement was met, and it was assumed that school climate ratings were relatively accurate.

The first research question was intended to determine whether there is a correlation between the emotional intelligence of school leaders on the school climate as perceived by the teachers for the entire principal sample (N = 10). The independent variable for each of the five regression models was the emotional intelligence summary score. None of the five regression models was significant, indicating no linear relationship between emotional intelligence and the school climate factors. This study found that there is no significant correlation between the school climate as perceived by the teachers and the emotional intelligence of the principal. Therefore, emotional intelligence was not a predictor of school climate in this study.

Female and male principals may influence school climate differently and have different methods for working through conflict and maintaining positive relationships. The researcher investigated whether gender differences influenced school climate ratings. The

quantitative data analysis showed that there were no significant gender differences for any of the five school climate factors, showing that gender was also not a predictor of school climate ratings.

The study demonstrated that school climate is not related to gender, age, years of experience, or the emotional intelligence of the school principal.

Although no correlation was quantitatively determined between the emotional intelligence of the school principal and the school climate as perceived by the teacher, the qualitative data suggest otherwise. The participating principals were asked to complete the interview portion. The information obtained from the interview questions served two purposes: (1) to elaborate on the relationship between the emotional intelligence of the principal and the climate of the school using the principals' perceptions, and (2) to compare the emotional intelligence of school principals and school climate in the two cultures studied. The researcher used the information from the research questions to elaborate on and describe how principals collectively used emotional intelligence to influence school climate and also observe and describe the similarities and differences in the responses provided by the representatives of the two cultures.

Although no quantitative relationship was determined between the principals' emotional intelligence and school climate as perceived by the teachers, the qualitative data did suggest that principals utilize emotional intelligence skills to help them create and maintain positive school climates. Therefore, qualitatively, the data indicate that emotional intelligence may be a predictor of school climate.

According to all principals interviewed, the resulting qualitative data suggest that a school leader's emotional intelligence affects relationships and school climate. This emerging theme also included the principals' belief that emotional intelligence and school climate can be improved over time. The differences observed between the cultures helps to explain some of the determining factors these principals believe need to be observed or implemented in terms of the effects of their emotional intelligence on the school climate. The American Principals tended to focus on how emotions are contagious. They also mentioned that since emotions are contagious they must be addressed and stabilized. Principals described situations where staff happiness and productivity are related to the overall mood of the staff and the principal as the leader can make the mood positive or negative. Managing the staff into a cohesive unit, intervening when necessary, stabilizing negative situations, and spreading positive thoughts and joy were some of the methods American principals mentioned for creating a happy school mood and climate. Caruso and Salovey (2004) note the power of emotions at the team level and explain the phenomenon of how emotional contagion reflects how the mood in a group of people can be either positive or negative and this state can spring directly from one person or a small group. The American principals in this study seem to understand this and are in tune with using their own emotions to spread positive vibes to the staff and to address any staff members that have counterproductive emotions or moods that might affect the rest of the staff. The emotional intelligence of the principal is a catalyst for influencing and managing the moods of others. This would be a proactive and beneficial daily practice for principals to keep the mood of the staff upbeat and stabilize a continuous positive climate.

The South Korean principals also understood the need for the leader to use emotional intelligence when interacting with staff to improve climate. However, these principals focused on open communication and positive interactions with the teaching staff to improve or maintain a positive climate. They felt that they should to engage in more open and honest communication with teachers. South Korean principals mentioned that respect is an important component of these discussions and listening to one another encourages teachers to be sympathetic and empathetic. Praise and positive words are exchanged, which leads to more productive discussions of educational programming. For South Korean principals, this means setting aside time to discuss school business. When this was done often, according to the principals, they gained a perspective on what teachers found important. According to Sergiovanni (1992), teacher isolation, competition, and privatism tend to breed negative school cultures. The South Korean principals showed that they understood the need to avoid teacher isolation.

The qualitative interview data support the relationship between the emotional intelligence of school leaders and the climate of the school and show that the emotional intelligence of school principals may be a predictor of school climate. The Principals operated in various ways to improve intrapersonal and interpersonal skills and influence the emotions of the teaching staff to improve the overall climate of their schools.

Managing and using emotions emerged as a theme. According to the principals, emotional management is implemented differently in the two cultures. Most American principals found that managing emotions meant possessing a positive demeanor including using appropriate voice and body language during personal interactions. This need to

manage emotions helped these principals to engage in effective communication and decision-making. Empathy and motivation also helped American principals to maintain a positive climate. They reflected on their own behaviors and actions to help promote positive behaviors and actions in others. Managing emotions also included seeing others' points of view. Through managing emotions American principals were able to make changes to improve school climate. However, one American principal mentioned detachment of emotions as a mechanism for maintaining school climate. This principal emphasized organizational procedures and guidelines and the need for teachers to follow them to ensure that the organization as a whole was performing optimally. This principal focused on protocol rather than her affective side in maintaining positive relationships with her peers. In her mind, the need to follow rules may supersede the desirability of maintaining a positive school climate through emotional management.

The interviews with the American principals also made it evident that through personal improvement and reflection they felt they could gain a better understanding of their own emotions and their effects on others.

Managing and using emotions was also a theme that emerged aong the South Korean principals in their endeavor to maintain a positive school climate. During positive and negative confrontations, South Korean principals felt responsible for understanding and managing emotions to improve school climate. They were concerned with creating and maintaining a safe and happy school climate and, with guidance, felt that they could achieve it.

The South Korean principals used a problem-focused approach to dealing with issues with the school. This included openness and empathy as well as urgency. All South Korean principals mentioned the need to solve problems in a timely manner, which requires open commutation and empathy. This may relate to their culture or the presumption that they do not want negative feelings to linger or spread.

Although perceiving emotions was not a theme that became apparent through the interview transcripts for the total sample population, that may be owing to the definition of perceiving emotions according to the ability model. Perceiving emotions involves identifying them in oneself and in others. It can be assumed that the participating principals were educated professionals with experience and insight gained not only from their current positions but also past professional positions in the field of education or elsewhere, and so they are skilled in perceiving emotions. Identifying emotions may not be an area of concern, but rather what to do with and about them in oneself and others may be an area in need of attention.

Employing empathy was common in both cultures to improve relationships and school climate. Good leaders have emotional empathy and strive to gain an understanding of what their employees feel. A good leader will not only do things right but will also "do the right thing," (Caruso & Salovey, p. 171). The principals wanted to create school climates conducive to a collaborative effort to solve problems and make important decisions Understanding how others feel and think and using that information to discern which leadership decisions are most beneficial for the good of the group are paramount in creating a productive and positive school climate.

In addition to using emotional intelligence to influence school climate, principals also described several leadership behaviors and styles that they use. Leadership styles and behaviors can be associated with the use of emotional intelligence. The leadership styles that were common to the two cultures were supportive and participative and included consideration of individuals.

Supportive leadership refers to leaders who are open, easily approached, truly care about the needs of the staff, and will do their best to create a positive working environment. Participative leadership involves encouraging shared decision making (Northouse, 2001). Individualized consideration goes hand in hand with supportive leadership and is a leadership practice that provides a supportive environment as the leader listens and attends to the needs of the staff (Northouse, 2001). The participative and supportive leadership styles and individualized consideration were reflected in the principals of both cultures wanting to get to know their teaching staffs. Some considered a more individual approach to knowing teachers, others preferred a collaborative team effort, and several mentioned the need for both approaches. In essence, the administrators did not want their staffs to see them merely as managers, bosses, or directive leaders. The principals demonstrated that they wanted participation to be a collective effort and to support teachers by making collaborative decisions. Principals mentioned consulting with the faculty and hearing both the "positives and negatives." Principals also mentioned the need for recognizing input from parents and community members. Acknowledging the input of the teachers, as well as other constituents, provides the opportunity for the principal to observe different perspectives, which helps them attend to the needs of the staff and school. The principals' responses indicate that they wanted to create a content and productive group of educators

and understand that mutual respect and trust are needed. This study determined that a common characteristic of the American and South Korean schools was collaboration and collective participation in decision-making. These practices provide ownership and are motivational for all staff members allowing them to "buy into" a school community that works together to reach goals while keeping the school mission in mind.

Both cultures demonstrated the use of supportive and participative leadership styles; however, the South Korean schools also used servant leadership. Servant leadership, like supportive leadership, involves addressing the needs of followers. Additionally, servant leaders become better leaders because they become more in tune with and knowledgeable about the duties and services of their followers and so can collaborate more effectively with them (Greenleaf, 1977). Servant leaders also possess an ethical and moral obligation to ensure that inequalities and injustices are removed in order to create equality (Graham, 1991). According to the South Korean principals, serving the teachers means that they need to veer away from power and control and rather focus on obtaining a consensus from all constituents concerning the culture of the school. To collaborate, the principals need to be aware of what is going on in the school and what makes it a better place. The best way for principals to become transparent and communicate expectations is to encourage teacher involvement. South Korean principals seem to accomplish this by possessing moral and ethical principles that guide their behaviors. The interview data showed that South Korean principals possess ethical and moral principles including respect, honesty, justice, and empathy. It can be assumed that possessing and using these principles aids South Korean principals in serving their teachers and build a positive and productive school climate.

The quantitative data in this study revealed significant differences in school climate ratings between the American and South Korean schools. South Korean schools scored significantly higher in the school climate factors of collaboration and decision making ($p < 0.001$). This was also observed in the qualitative data, which suggests that South Korean principals focus on communicating and collaborating with the teaching staff in making school decisions. This involved getting to know the teachers through meetings and personal discussions. It also meant valuing the teachers' ideas and opinions and creating a trusting and nondiscriminatory environment.

The American principals also mentioned the need for communication and collaboration as important factors in making decisions. However, this communication and collaboration was to enhance student relations and instructional innovation. This may be more of a focus in American schools as they are inclined to concentrate on school improvement initiatives which may be result from national, state, or district mandates or accommodating the changing needs of the students and families they serve.

All the principals in this study acknowledged the need to improve both emotional intelligence and school climate both for self-improvement and for staff growth and improvement. American and South Korean principals mentioned reading and researching educational materials dealing with emotional intelligence and school climate. Professional development for both principals and teachers creates platforms for acquiring knowledge, skills, and practices that help make the school perform as a community, with the caveat that all constituents must feel the need for the specific professional development topics and opportunities that are available.

Since the principals value staff collaboration in decision making, they should welcome the input of the teachers concerning the professional development that they would find most useful. South Korean principals mentioned surveying staff to determine their needs, and American principals spoke of collaborative research for staff improvement. According to the participating principals, the professional development would need to link development of emotional intelligence and school climate improvement. The challenge for the principals would be to use their own emotional intelligence to influence their staffs into enrolling in professional development opportunities that encompass these topics. Both American and South Korean principals also mentioned that policy-making, procedures, and regulations must be re-evaluated. This would include not just communication and collaboration among teachers but also the hierarchy of school leaders in the school and system and the policy makers.

Recommendations for Further Research

Research on the correlation between emotional intelligence and school climate should be continually explored. Although this study demonstrated contradictory findings between the quantitative and qualitative components, it cannot be concluded that emotional intelligence and school climate operate independently. The previously mentioned limitations of this study provide some insight into possible future research efforts to help explore the understandings and implications of the emotional intelligence of school leaders on school climate.

The relationship between the emotional intelligence of school principals and the school climate as perceived by teachers merits further examination. Using a larger sample

size would provide more reliable quantitative data. By soliciting more school leaders and their teacher faculties to measure school climate using the R-SLEQ, the relationship between school leader emotional intelligence and school climate may be proven significant.

This study demonstrated that the scores for emotional intelligence measured by the MSCEIT were not supported by the qualitative data collected by the interviews. It is important to note that the MSCEIT is only one psychometric performance-based method of measuring emotional intelligence and the scores represent the participants' perspectives of their own emotional intelligence. The use of other emotional-intelligence assessments may provide more comprehensive data. These include, but are not limited to, self-report tests such as the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I), the ECI, a performance-based 360-degree assessment measuring 18 emotional-intelligence competencies, and the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory, a 70-question survey that incorporates the perspective of several constituents who know the participant. These are valid and reliable methods to quantitatively describe the emotional intelligence of the person being assessed. Golemn (1998) asserts that the measurement of emotional intelligence is most effective if it relies on multiple perspectives. Therefore, a variety of instruments will provide a more comprehensive evaluation of principals' emotional abilities.

This study found that principals do use and reflect on their emotional-intelligence skills to improve their relationships and school climate. Moreover, the principals in this study acknowledged that they realize that they needed to develop and improve their emotional intelligence. Therefore, it would be beneficial to re-assess the principals' emotional intelligence to determine whether growth indeed occurred. School climate could also be re-assessed to determine whether the earlier correlation between the emotional

intelligence of the school leader and the school climate as perceived by the teachers had changed.

Another recommendation includes the using the assessments for emotional intelligence and school climate on more diverse sample populations. This study focused exclusively on the emotional intelligence of school principals and its relationship to school-climate ratings. School-climate ratings may also be influenced by the emotional intelligence of school personnel other than the school principal. It would therefore be beneficial to measure the emotional intelligence of other constituents including the vice-principal, teacher leaders, and teachers. The resulting data could then be correlated to school climate ratings. This would provide a broader understanding of the influence of emotional intelligence on school climate because it would observe the effects of various members of the organization. If professional development is provided to improve emotional intelligence, assessment can be re-administered several times to determine whether improvement in emotional intelligence skills is related to school climate. This study measured school climate as perceived by the teachers. Doing so as it is perceived by the school principal would measure school climate from a different perspective. Observing the differences in ratings of administrators and teachers and how they relate to the emotional intelligence of school leaders would be informational.

Since this study involves an international component and includes South Korean teachers and principals, it could be beneficial to pilot the quantitative instrument, the RSLEQ, with a population of South Korean educators. The purpose of the pilot study would be to identify, clarify, and rectify any misinterpretations on the survey. This would

ensure that the instrument provided valid results. Another suggestion is to include an initial briefing, before the surveys are distributed, to the potential participants concerning the two constructs being measured, emotional intelligence and school climate. This would provide the participants with some background and allow for discussion to eliminate misunderstandings and ensure greater equality among the participant populations. Finally, understanding that cultural and language barriers present limitations for collecting data with quantitative instruments, it could be beneficial to find instruments that measure both emotional intelligence and school climate that originate in the culture being studied and therefore are embedded in that culture. This would eliminate bias and provide valid and appropriate instruments.

The interview portion of this study helped to elaborate on the quantitative data concerning the emotional intelligence of the principals and the school climate. However, the qualitative interviews gained insight only from the principals. Further research might include interviews with teachers concerning the principals' use of emotional intelligence and the condition of the school climate. Although the RSLEQ provides information in five domains of school climate, the teachers' elaboration on these areas could provide a better understanding of school leaders' ability to improve school climate.

Summary

This study examined the relationship between emotional intelligence of school leaders and school climate to determine whether there is a correlation between the emotional intelligence of school leaders and school climate as perceived by teachers. The

study also examined cross-cultural differences in the emotional intelligence of school leaders and the school climate in American and Korean school systems.

The resulting quantitative data showed that the emotional intelligence of school leaders was not a significant predictor of school climate factors. Gender, age, and years of experience were also not significant predictors of school-climate ratings. Although the results of quantitative statistical data were not significant, qualitative data form interviews suggested otherwise. In practice, the school leaders did use emotional intelligence to improve school climate and felt that improving emotional intelligence would inevitably improve the climate of the school, showing a correlation does exist between the emotional intelligence of school leaders and school climate.

Quantitatively, differences between the American and South Korean schools were observed in the school-climate factors and show that the South Korean schools scored higher in the areas of collaboration and decision making. Both American and South Korean principals use emotional intelligence to influence school climate. Understanding and managing emotions were common in both cultures to manage relationships and improve the climate of schools. In addition, leadership styles common to both cultures included supportive and participative leadership. South Korean principals also had a tendency to implement the servant-leadership style. Since all these leadership styles involve communication, collaboration, and maintaining relationships, it can be assumed that they require emotional-intelligence skills. These were demonstrated by the principals in both cultures focusing on communication and collaboration between administrators and teachers. Empathy was a significant common factor in both cultures as a means to find out

necessary information about the teachers' needs, wants, likes, and dislikes and provided a guide for making decisions. This research suggests that school leaders believe a positive school climate should include reciprocal communication between teachers and administrators, collaborative decision-making, and a leader who supports the needs of the teachers by consistently being actively involved with them.

It is evident that as school leaders take on the task of creating an environment that promotes a positive school climate, the role requires emotional intelligence. Observing the relationship between the emotional intelligence of school principals and the school climate was worthwhile because it provided information and insight about the leadership qualities necessary to maintain both positive relationships and a positive school climate. Possessing and developing emotional intelligence was among these qualities. School leadership and teacher productivity in various cultures can be explored to gain a broader understanding of how the relationship between administrators and educators can ensure that the school climate is conducive to a work environment where the mission and goals can be met.

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Appendix A

Revised SLEQ – Items & Factors

Collaboration

20. Classroom instruction is rarely coordinated across teachers.
11. I have regular opportunities to work with other teachers.
6. There is good communication among teachers.
21. Good teamwork is not emphasized enough at my school.
16. I seldom discuss the needs of individual students with other teachers.
1. Teachers design instructional programs together.

Student Relations

2. Most students are well mannered or respectful of the school staff.
12. Students in this school are well behaved.
7. Most students are helpful and cooperative with teachers.
17. Most students are motivated to learn.

School Resources

18. The supply of equipment and resources is not adequate.
3. Instructional equipment is not consistently accessible.
13. Video equipment, tapes, and films are readily available.
8.The school library has sufficient resources and materials.

Decision Making

4. Teachers are frequently asked to participate in decisions.
14. I have very little say in the running of the school.
9. Decisions about the school are made by the principal.

Instructional Innovation

15. We are willing to try new teaching approaches in my school.
5. New and different ideas are always being tried out.
19. Teachers in this school are innovative.
10. New courses or curriculum materials are seldom implemented.

From Johnson, B., Stevens, J. J., & Zvoch, K. (2007). Teachers' perceptions of school climate: A validity study of the revised School Level Environment Survey (SLEQ). *Educational and Psychological Measurement 67*, 833-844.

School-Level Environment Questionnaire - Revised

The following are statements about the school in which you work and your working environment. Indicate how well each statement AGREES WITH YOUR DESCRIPTION OR VIEWS of your school environment.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	Teachers design instructional programs together.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	Most students are well mannered or respectful of the school staff.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	Instructional equipment is **not** consistently accessible.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Teachers are frequently asked to participate in decisions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	New and different ideas are always being tried out.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	There is good communication among teachers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	Most students are helpful and cooperative with teachers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	The school library has sufficient resources and materials.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	Decisions about the school are made by the principal.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	New courses or curriculum materials are seldom implemented.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	I have regular opportunities to work with other teachers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.	Students in this school are well behaved.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13.	Video equipment, tapes, and films are readily available.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.	I have very little say in the running of the school.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15.	We are willing to try new teaching approaches in my school.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16.	I seldom discuss the needs of individual students with other teachers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17.	Most students are motivated to learn.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18.	The supply of equipment and resources is **not** adequate.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19.	Teachers in this school are innovative.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20.	Classroom instruction is rarely coordinated across teachers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21.	Good teamwork is **not** emphasized enough at my school.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

From Johnson, B., Stevens, J. J., & Zvoch, K. (2007). Teachers' perceptions of school climate: A validity study of the revised School Level Environment Survey (SLEQ). *Educational and Psychological Measurement 67,* 833-844.

School Level Environment Questionnaire Revised

		Strongly Disagree 강한 반대	Disagree 반대	Neither Agree nor Disagree 찬성도 반대도 안함	Agree 동의	Strongly Agree 강한 동의
1	Teachers design instructional programs together. 교사는 교육 프로그램을 함께 디자인한다.					
2	Most students are well mannered or respectful of the school staff. 대부분의 학생들은 교직원을 존중한다.					
3	Instructional equipment is **not** consistently accessible. 교육용 장비는 일관되게 접근할 수 없다.					
4	Teachers are frequently asked to participate in decisions. 교사는 자주 의사 결정에 참여하게 된다.					
5	New and different ideas are always being tried out. 새로운 아이디어는 항상 시도되어 진다.					
6	There is good communication among teachers. 교사간 의사 소통이 원활하다.					
7	Most students are helpful and cooperative with teachers. 대부분의 학생들은 교사들과 잘 협력한다.					
8	The school library has sufficient resources and materials. 학교 도서관은 풍부한 자원과 자료들이 있다.					
9	Decisions about the school are made by the principal. 학교에 대한 결정은 교사에 의해 이루어진다.					
1	New courses or curriculum materials are seldom implemented. 새로운 교육과정은 거의 실행되지 않는다					
1	I have regular opportunities to work with other teachers. 동료 교사와 일할 수 있는 정기적인 기회가 있다.					
1	Students in this school are well behaved. 학생들의 행실은 착하다.					
1	Video equipment, tapes, and films are readily available. 비디오 장비, 테이프 등은 쉽게 사용할 수 있다.					
1	I have very little say in the running of the school. 나느 학교 운영에 대해 거의 말을 하지 않는다.					
1	We are willing to try new teaching approaches in my school.					

	우리는 새로운 교수 접근법들을 시도한다.					
1	I seldom discuss the needs of individual students with other teachers. 나는 다른 교사들과 개별 학생들의 요구에 대해 거의 토의하지 않는다.					
1	Most students are motivated to learn. 대부분의 학생들은 학습동기가 있다					
1	The supply equipment and resources is **not** adequate. 공급 장비와 자원은 충분하지 않다.					
1	Teachers in this school are innovative. 교사는 혁신적이다.					
2	Classroom instruction is rarely coordinated across teachers. 교실 수업은 교사에 의해 조성된다.					
2	Good teamwork is **not** emphasized enough at my school. 좋은 팀웍은 충분히 강조되지 않는다.					

Appendix B

Qualitative Research Questions for Administrators

1. Based on your experiences with teachers, think of both positive and negative confrontations you had with teachers in your school. What emotions did you feel in these in situations and what impact did they have on the outcome of your confrontation?
2. Given the definitions of emotional intelligence and school climate, how do you think your level of emotional intelligence affects your relationships with the teachers you lead and the overall climate of your school?
3. What do you think is the most important or imperative thing an administrator can do to create and maintain a positive climate? What do you think is the most imperative thing to avoid doing to prevent a negative climate? What is the most difficult thing to do to maintain a positive climate?
4. After gaining more knowledge about your own emotional intelligence level and the school climate in your building, what are your strengths? Weaknesses? And what specific changes do you think you need to make to improve your school climate?
5. What research do you consider helpful with improving your ability to lead effectively and to create and maintain a productive school climate?

부록 B3

관리자를 위한질적 연구문

1.당신은 당신의 학교에서 교사들 과 함께했던 경험을 바탕으로모든 긍정과 부정의 대립을 생각해봅니다. 이런 상황을 직면한 이들은 어떤 감정을 느꼈으며 당신의 결과에 어떠한영향을 미쳤습니까?

2. 감정적 사고력과 학교의분위기를감안하여정의 내릴때 , 당신의 생각은어떠한 이해 관계와 사고력이 학교와 교시, 학생들의 관계에 전반적인 영향을 미쳤다고 생각 하는가?

3. 관리자가 긍정적인 분위기를 만들고 유지하기 위해 할 수있는 가장 중요하고 필수적인 것들이 무엇이라고 생각하십니까?부정적인 분위기를 피하거나 예방할 수 있는 가장 필수적인 것이무엇이라고 생각 하십니까? 또한 긍정적인 분위기를 유지하기 위해 할 수있는 가장 어려운 점은 무엇입니까?

4. 더 많은 지식을 확보한 후, 감정적 사고력과 이해력이 학교가발전하는데 있어서무엇이 장점이고 약점입니까?그리고 그 어떤 특별한 변화가 학교 환경을 개선할 수 있도록 해야한다고 생각 합니까?

5. 어떤 연구가 학교 개선에 효과적이고유리하게 적용되는지 검토하며 발전적인 학교 분위기가 지속될 수 있도록 하려면 어떤 방법이 도움이 된다고 생각하십니까 ?

Appendix C

School Leader Verbal Instruction Protocol

1) Call school principals to solicit participation
2) Explain study (link school climate as perceived by teachers to emotional intelligence (EI) of school leaders)
3) Define rationale and aims
4) Outline measures of MSCEIT
5) Explain benefits to school leader
6) Explain potential risks to school leader
7) Explain Revised-SLEQ that teachers will need to take to school leader
8) Explain benefits for teachers
9) Explain potential risks for teachers
10) Explain withdraw or discontinue at any time of test or survey of both school leader and teachers
11) Explain protocol for administering Revised-SLEQ survey and time expected to complete the survey
12) Explain protocol for administering MSCEIT and time expected to complete the MSCEIT (Appendix D)
13) Describe consent protocol procedures and invitation to participate
14) Participants shall bear no expense in this research study
15) Ask if any questions or clarification
16) Ask permission to schedule and speak with faculty during a regularly scheduled faculty meeting

Appendix D

Teacher Verbal Instruction Protocol

1) Call school principals to solicit participation and permission to speak with faculty during a regularly scheduled faculty meeting
2) Explain study (link school climate as perceived by teachers to emotional intelligence (EI) of school leaders)
3) Define rationale and aims (as read from abstract)
4) Outline measures of MSCEIT
5) Explain benefits to school leader participating
6) Explain potential risks to school leader
7) Explain Revised-SLEQ teachers take
8) Explain benefits to teachers
9) Explain potential risks to teachers
10) Explain withdraw or discontinue at any time of test or survey of both school leader and teachers
11) Participants shall bear no expense in this research study
12) Explain protocol for administering survey and time expected to complete the test and survey
13) Ask for consent forms to be signed after both verbal and written letter of procedures and invitation to participate by school leader only
14) Ask if any questions or clarification

Appendix E

Superintendent Permission Form

Ellen I. Harney is granted permission to conduct research in the _____ school district. My signature denotes that I am informed of the research which entails school administrators including principals and vice principals in the aforementioned district completing the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test and the faculty completing the Revised-School Level Environment Questionnaire. Revised School Leader Environment Questionnaire. There will be no mention of the names of the participating school districts or the personnel participating with the surveys. Confidentiality for all participants is guaranteed. There are no known risks associated with this research endeavor.

Superintendent: _____

Date:_____

Appendix F

Principal Introductory Letter

Ellen I. Harney
HHD USAG – Casey
Unti 15543 Box 230
APO, AP 96225
Ellen.harney@pac.dodea.edu
Date

Dear School Administrator,

I am currently a doctoral student at Indiana University of Pennsylvania studying Educational leadership under the supervision of Dr. Doug Lare at East Stroudsburg University. I am contacting you to solicit your participation with my research study. My study investigates the correlation between emotional intelligence and school climate. Specifically, my study seeks to determine if there is a correlation between the emotional intelligence of school leaders and the climate of the school which they lead. In addition, I am seeking to compare this relationship between an American school system and a Korean public school system. The research outcomes will provide school leaders with pertinent information concerning how emotions correlate with school climate. The study will also help school leaders gain insight into leadership behaviors that facilitate a more productive climate. Determining this link can also help school leaders develop their own emotional intelligence and therefore they can work on improving the school climate.

Your Schools participation in this study includes the school leader(s) (principal/vice-principal) completing an online version of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) and your faculty completing the Revised-School Level Environment Questionnaire (R-SLEQ). The MSCEIT is considered a performance test for emotional intelligence and involves solving problems involving emotions. The test consists of 141 questions and will take approximately 45 minutes to complete. The R-SLEQ survey is a 21 question survey for teachers to complete that measures the school climate. This questionnaire will be available on line and should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. I will need at least 15 teachers in each participating school to participate with the R-SLEQ survey for valid and reliable results. The data I gather from these two surveys will help me to determine if a correlation exists between school climate, as perceived by the teachers, and the emotional intelligence of the leader(s) of the school. In addition, to help understand the relationship between school climate and the emotional intelligence of the principal, I will randomly interview six individual school leaders. Leaders will be randomly selected by coding leader names with numbers and drawing six of these from a hat. This will allow the school leaders to elaborate on the emotions that guide their decision making. Moreover, administrators can learn about themselves and the climate of the school they lead. All surveys will be completed online and will include a username and password. All information obtained will be confidential and no school names or personnel names will be used. I ask your permission to speak with your faculty at a convenient time such as a regular scheduled faculty meeting to explain the protocol for climate portion of the study.

Once you have committed to participate with this study, I will make arrangements with your at your convenience to discuss the specific details. Please complete the consent form implying your consent to participate with the MSCEIT. Please have your teachers complete the R-SLEQ and return it to me as soon as possible by either electronic mail or regular mail in the self-addressed stamped envelope provided.

Confidentiality is paramount and will be maintained at all times. All survey data that I collect as well as codes will be stored separately in a secure place and will be only available to the researcher. This study will absolutely NOT identify specific schools or school leaders. The data I collect will be treated with the standards held by the *Federal Policy for the Protection of Human Subjects* (Federal Register, 1991) and the *Ethical Principles in the Conduct of Research with Human Participants* (APA, 1982) There are no known apparent risks, concerns or anxieties associated with this study. Note that participation in this study to completely voluntary and it is your and well as your teachers prerogative to withdraw from at any time. There are not monetary expenses for participants in this study. Specific outcomes and finding of the MSCEIT, the R-SLEQ, and the overall study will be gladly shared by appointment as the study is completed. It is my intent to make this study as easy and convenient as possible and to minimize taking your time. Please keep this letter as correspondence regarding informed consent.

If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please contact me at 010 – 6428 – 6399 or 0505 730 6444, or via e-mail at ellen.harney@pac.dodea.edu. You may also contact my adviser at East Stroudsburg University at (570) 422 – 3431 or by e-mail at dlare@po-box.esu.edu. Thank you for your consideration and I look forward to working with you.

Sincerely,

Ellen I. Harney

Appendix G

School Leader Consent Questionnaire

Name:

School District:

School Name:

Years working as an Administrator:

Year experience working in education:

Age:

Gender:

Ethnicity:

Educational Certification(s):

Consent to participate by taking the MSCEIT and having at least 15 staff members participate by taking the R-SLEQ:

Signed:_____

Date:_____

Appendix H

MSCEIT Informed Consent Form

Title of Project: Role of school climate and relationship to emotional intelligence

1. **Purpose of Study:** The purpose of this study is to investigate the correlation between school climate and emotional intelligence (EI).
2. **Procedures to be followed:** Please take the time complete the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT).
3. **Benefits:** This study will allow the school leaders to elaborate on the emotions that guide their decision making. Moreover, administrators can learn about themselves and the climate of the school they lead. Furthermore school leaders may look into training to improve emotional intelligence.
4. **Duration:** The MSCEIT will take approximately 45 minutes to complete.
5. **Statement of Confidentiality:** Your participation in this study is completely anonymous. All data collected will be stored in a secure place under a coded name. If the research is published or presented, no personally identifiable information will be revealed.
6. **Right to Ask Questions:** You have the ability to ask questions or voice concerns about this research. Please contact Dr. Doug Lare at (570) 422-3431 (dlare@po-box.esu.edu) with questions or concerns. You may also contact Dr. Douglas Lare at (570) 422-3431 (dlare@po-box.esu.edu), Dr. Shala Davis, Chair of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at (570) 422-3336 (sdavis@po-box.esu.edu). If you feel the need to speak to a mental health professional, please call the University Counseling Services at (570) 422-3277.
7. **Voluntary Participation:** Participation in this research is completely voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at any time and you do not have to respond to any questions you do not want to answer. Participants shall bear no expense in this research study.

Upon Completing and returning this survey, it is implied that you have agreed to participate in this study. Please keep this form for your records.

Appendix I

Revised-SLEQ Informed Consent Form

Title of Project: Role of school climate and relationship to emotional intelligence

1. **Purpose of Study:** The purpose of this study is to investigate the correlation between school climate and emotional intelligence (EI).
2. **Procedures to be followed:** Please take the time to complete to complete the Revised- School Level Environment Questionnaire (Revised-SLEQ)
3. **Benefits:** This research may help school leaders determine effective training for such positions. It may also allow school personnel reflect and learn about oneself. It will also provide insight for school leaders concerning the school climate as perceived by teachers.
4. **Duration:** The Revised-SLEQ will take approximately 15 minutes to complete.
5. **Statement of Confidentiality:** Your participation in this study is completely anonymous. All data collected will be stored in a secure place under a coded name. If the research is published or presented, no personally identifiable information will be revealed.
6. **Right to Ask Questions:** You have the ability to ask questions or voice concerns about this research. Please contact Dr. Doug Lare at (570) 422-3431 (dlare@po-box.esu.edu) with questions or concerns. You may also contact Dr. Douglas Lare at (570) 422-3431 (dlare@po-box.esu.edu), Dr. Shala Davis, Chair of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at (570) 422-3336 (sdavis@po-box.esu.edu). If you feel the need to speak to a mental health professional, please call the University Counseling Services at (570) 422-3277.
7. **Voluntary Participation:** Participation in this research is completely voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at any time and you do not have to respond to any questions you do not want to answer. Participants shall bear no expense in this research study.

Upon completing and returning this survey, it is implied that you have agreed to participate in this study. Please keep this form for your record.