Examining the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction among Elementary Education Educators

by

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher job satisfaction for teachers within elementary schools in southeast Alabama. Individuals involved in educational policy making and professional preparation should take into consideration the key role teachers play in shaping the lives of children, and administrators should provide teachers with social and emotional skill development that they need to be successful in their educational endeavors. The study indicated that there was a statistical significance between an educators' ability to manage emotions and their job satisfaction level. However, the study found no statistical significance between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction with regard to gender, age, marital status, education level, or years of experience in the classroom. Two instruments were utilized in the study. The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) measured the participants' level of emotional intelligence and the Job Satisfaction Survey (an abbreviated version of the Schools and Staffing Survey, or SASS) was used to examine the participants' job satisfaction. The researcher used both descriptive and inferential statistics to analyze the data. Based on the research questions, emotional intelligence and job satisfaction were measured against the participants' gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience using multiple regression with a stepwise procedure.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction

A challenge facing elementary school principals is ensuring that students receive quality instruction on a daily basis from competent and effective educators. Teachers encounter numerous stressors on the job each day, and it is the task of the educator to plan, monitor, and adjust the emotional environment whenever it is necessary. Teachers should create a learning environment that allows students to feel safe, trusted, challenged, and motivated (Ergur, 2009).

A teacher's attitude, whether positive or negative, has an effect on the students they teach, and studies show that teachers who are satisfied with their jobs are more effective than discontented teachers (Ealias & George, 2012; Vail, 2005). The influence of a teacher is the single most important criteria for measuring academic achievement (Eklund, 2008). Educators play a vital role in the daily lives of students and have a tremendous impact on their future. School administrators benefit by implementing strategies that positively influence teacher job satisfaction due to the implications it has on student success (Connors, 2000).

According to Bolich (2001), the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) revealed that almost half of the new teachers left the state where they began teaching within five years of initial employment. Over 30 percent of new teachers in the United States leave the classroom by their fifth year (Bolich, 2001). Hargreaves (2011) pointed out that the teachers most likely to leave are often the most committed. Additionally, Milken et al. (2004) reported that the teachers who left the profession were generally the teachers who scored the highest on subject matter and pedagogy (Milken et al., 2004). What accounts for the exodus? Seyfarth (2002) argued that

boredom, interruptions, misplacement, lack of resources, and at-risk children are the primary sources of dissatisfaction among teachers. Bolich (2001) added inadequate teacher preparation, undesirable school conditions, and salary issues were also contributing factors to a beginning teacher's decision to leave.

Richin, Banyon, Stein, and Banyon (2003) argued retaining educators is increasingly difficult, despite sophisticated professional development programs. The missing component lies between the clinical practice of educating and the emotional intelligence of the school as a whole. Schools can benefit by ensuring that good clinical practice resonates with emotional intelligence (Richin et al., 2003). Vail (2005) suggested improving emotional intelligence of teachers creates a desirable workplace where the adults are happy and productive, thus producing a similar outcome for students.

According to Ramsey (2008), culture is the primary factor that can strengthen or weaken the performance of individuals or groups within an organization. Both teachers and students' success is largely determined by the way people within the school building relate, interact, communicate, and solve problems. A school's culture is more significant to the success of the organization than class size, curriculum, textbooks, or budgets. Culture can attract people to the organization or drive them away (Ramsey, 2008). Emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment erodes teachers' job satisfaction and the culture of a school (Eklund, 2008). Examining possible levels of influence that contribute to increased job satisfaction in teachers in a worthwhile undertaking (Connors, 2000).

In the 1970's Claude Steiner described emotional literacy as the ability to understand emotions, to listen and emphasize with the emotions of others, and to express emotions in a productive way (Steiner & Perry, 1997). In 1990 Mayer and Salovey proposed that emotional

intelligence includes the ability to function in the four dimensions of perceiving, using, understanding, and managing one's emotions. In 1998, Goleman defined emotional intelligence as the capacity for recognizing our personal feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing our emotions well in ourselves and our relationships.

Rogers (1983) concluded that teachers who exhibit personal qualities of genuineness, empathy, and acceptance with learners, are able to bring about expected change. In essence, they listen to the learners and effectively shape the emotional environment of the classroom. Teachers need a toolkit of strategies to incorporate active listening in their classrooms. Ergur (2009) listed skills such as paraphrasing, reflecting feelings, utilizing open-ended responses, managing silence, and clarifying as helpful approaches. However, Rogers (1983) deduced that the attitude of a teacher is more important than the procedures and techniques that he or she uses during the listening process.

Statement of Problem

While the relationships between teacher education, emotional competencies, and professional development education have been studied, the relationship between emotional intelligence and elementary education teachers' job satisfaction has not been widely researched. Social and emotional competencies of teachers have an impact on the teaching-learning process (Ergur, 2009). Anari (2012) proposed that no education system can rise above the quality of its teachers. Goleman (1995) contended:

...as knowledge-based services and intellectual capital become more central to corporations, improving the way people work together will be a major way to leverage intellectual capital. To thrive, if not survive, corporations would do well to boost their collective emotional intelligence. (p.163)

An inspection of the emotional intelligence of the teacher workforce and its correlation to job satisfaction gains significance as the results can assist administrators in curtailing the turnover rate in the field.

In addition to being well-equipped with knowledge of the content they teach, teachers should be adept with key emotional skills such as a winning sociability, self-confidence, optimism, resilience, and an easy-going nature. Teachers with these qualities create a learning atmosphere that enables students to have an autonomous working and learning environment (Goleman, 1995). Teachers can benefit if they become aware of emotional intelligence and develop their own emotional intelligence to work with students. Educators can take steps to help students achieve emotional intelligence. Some common first steps include shaping the emotional environment; effectively listening to learners; reading and responding to the feelings of individuals; developing self-awareness as a teacher; recognizing one's prejudices and preferences; improving nonverbal communication; and acknowledging and handling one's own feelings (Ergur, 2009).

Emotional intelligence affects how we manage our behavior and navigate through social encounters, but it is distinct from intellect (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Therefore, teachers and students who are aware of their emotional intelligence level and work to enhance are better able to recognize and accept the qualities that make them successful (Ergur, 2009). Individuals involved in educational policy making and professional preparation should take into consideration the teacher's role and provide teachers with social and emotional skill development that they need to be successful (Ergur, 2009).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher job satisfaction for teachers within public elementary schools in southeast Alabama. According to Goleman (1995), teachers can benefit by implementing emotional literacy programs that boost children's academic achievement by helping them become better listeners that are more focused and less impulsive in the classroom setting. Teaching emotional intelligence enhances the schools' ability to teach because students are more cooperative and responsible (Goleman, 1995).

Emotional Intelligence (EI) testing measures the ability to perceive emotions in oneself and others. EI also assists individuals to make choices about how to respond to a given situation. This skill is important, as teachers would benefit by studying emotional intelligence. Educating teachers in this matter may enhance relationships at work and simultaneously enhance environmental factors that contribute to the educators' overall job satisfaction. Ultimately, increasing emotional intelligence could lead to positive outcomes for student achievement as teachers work under less stress and develop a better understanding of how stressors can affect their work and their job satisfaction.

There is a lack of understanding of the effects intrinsic factors such as emotional intelligence have on teacher job satisfaction. Organizational values such as leadership, motivation, collaboration, and communication relate to emotional intelligence (Birol, Atamturk, Silman, & Sensoy (2009). Therefore, it is important to examine the relationship between EI and job satisfaction.

Research Questions

The following research questions were used in this study:

- 1) What is the level of job satisfaction in relation to gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 2) What is the level of emotional intelligence in relation to gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 3) What is the level of job satisfaction of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 4) What is the level of emotional intelligence of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 5) What is the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher job satisfaction of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?

Significance of the Study

A desired outcome of the study was to determine the level of emotional intelligence of elementary school teachers, and to help school administrators evaluate and implement appropriate strategies to increase teacher job satisfaction. Emotional intelligence lays the foundation for a wide range of skills that can have a positive impact on a person's life (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). No matter how high or low a person measures in emotional intelligence it can be improved because the human brain continues to shape itself throughout life (Goleman, 1995). It is crucial to educate not just the mind, but the whole person (Lewkowicz, 2007). Therefore,

schools that are comprised of highly emotionally intelligent faculty could increase teacher retention, improve student achievement, and enhance the overall culture of the school.

Murphy (2006) contended emotional intelligence is not by itself a strong predictor of job performance, but provides a person with certain competencies that are necessary for job success. Possessing high emotional intelligence results in the ability to competently process emotion-laden information, use this information to guide cognitive activities, and focus specific energy to solve problems effectively (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). A high level of emotional intelligence can be a beneficial in creative problem solving and task management, as well as enhancing one's ability to successfully respond to conflict and emotionally trying situations (Murphy, 2006).

Teachers are often viewed as transmitters of knowledge, whose sole purpose is to pass along basic content knowledge to students; however, Darling-Hammond (2005) stated that teachers "must be prepared to serve as diagnosticians, planners, facilitators, and leaders who know a great deal about the learning process and have a wide repertoire of strategies at their disposal" (p. xii). Taylor and MacKenney (2008) pointed out that teaching is not a one-size fits all process in which students are passive recipients of information, rather they believe that learning is open-ended, uncontrollable, and greatly influenced by the teacher's ability to assist students in their ability to construct and draw meaning from learning experiences. Hopkins (1990) found that teachers operating at higher psychological levels were more likely to develop or implement the novel educational ideas. Darling-Hammond (2005) ascertained that teachers should be grounded in their subject matter and pedagogy during teacher preparation years, but should continue to grow, develop, learn and perfect their teaching throughout the course of their career.

The brain is capable of early interpersonal and social relationships with others that can either advance or impede learning (Taylor & MacKenney, 2008). Teaching and learning are also highly social experiences that occur best in environments that are safe and secure (Brooks, 1999; Hart, 1983; Kottler & Kottler, 2000). Wong and Wong (1998) stated "School is not a place; school is a concept" (p. 48). Their notion centered on the idea that students and teachers should be able to simultaneously enhance their quality of life and levels of satisfaction, free of intimidation, yet supported by caring individuals. Evidence from Anari (2012) supported an underlying view that teachers with high emotional intelligence competencies are more likely than less emotionally intelligent people to gain success in the workplace. However, additional research regarding the relationship of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction is warranted.

Limitations of the Study

- 1) The results may not be representative of employees in other geographic locations since the sample for this study included 185 certified teachers from ten public schools in four different school systems in the southeast region of Alabama.
- 2) The sample selection was limited to a total of 185 employees who volunteered to have their emotional intelligence and job satisfaction measured.
- 3) Participants were self-selected volunteers who were expected to have basic computer skills and were willing to take time to participate.
- 4) It is limited in that a correlational study does not indicate causation and it only captures a moment in time.
- 5) The use of self-reports of perceived job satisfaction without supplementing with other ratings or an assessment tool.

6) Length of employment within the organization for newly hired employees could skew data since job satisfaction is often an antecedent of organizational commitment.

Assumptions of the Study

- 1) Participants would truthfully answer the questions on the instruments used.
- 2) Participants were representative teachers in the population.
- 3) The MSCEIT V2.0 was a reliable and valid instrument in measuring emotional intelligence.
- 4) The Job Satisfaction Survey adapted from Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) was a valid and reliable instrument in measuring job satisfaction.
- 5) Teachers would want to participate voluntarily and would be able to comfortably use a computer to enter the answers to the survey.
- 6) The sample size was sufficient to conduct the study.

Definition of Terms

Elementary educators. Elementary educators are defined as male and female teachers, who were at least 19 years old, held a valid teaching certificate in elementary or early childhood education, and currently taught students in kindergarten through sixth grade.

Emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is defined as the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is the extent to which motivational characteristics such as task significance, autonomy, feedback, and personal work ethic match what people value and is expected from them on the job (Perrachione, Rosser, & Peterson, 2008)

Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). The MSCEIT is designed to measure the following four branches, or skill groups, of emotional intelligence: perceiving emotion accurately, using emotion to facilitate cognitive activities, understanding emotion, and managing emotion (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003).

Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS). The SASS is a system of related questionnaires that provide descriptive data on the context of elementary and secondary education using a variety of statistics regarding the condition of education in the United States. The SASS system covers a wide range of topics from teacher demand, teacher and principal characteristics, general conditions in schools, principals' and teachers' perceptions of school climate and problems in their schools, teacher compensation, district hiring and retention practices, to basic characteristics of the student population (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012).

Organization of the Study

The material presented in Chapter 1 provides the rationale for the research to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among teachers. This quantitative, correlational study examined the relationship between elementary education educators' level of emotional intelligence and their job satisfaction. The expectation of findings that will contribute positively to elementary educators and administrators in formulating and implementing initiatives to retain effective teachers was the justification of this study. Chapter 2

contains a relevant review of the literature pertaining to emotional intelligence and teacher job satisfaction. The methods used to conduct the study, including the instrumentation of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) and the Job Satisfaction Survey are addressed in Chapter 3. Research findings and results are presented in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 provides a summary of the study, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future studies and research.

Chapter 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher job satisfaction for teachers within public elementary schools in southeast Alabama. According to Goleman (1995), teachers can benefit by implementing emotional literacy programs that boost children's academic achievement by helping them become better listeners that are more focused and less impulsive in the classroom setting. Teaching emotional intelligence enhances the schools' ability to teach because students are more cooperative and responsible (Goleman, 1995).

Emotional Intelligence (EI) testing measures the ability to perceive emotions in oneself and others. EI also assists individuals to make choices about how to respond to a given situation. This skill is important, as teachers would benefit by studying emotional intelligence. Educating teachers in this matter may enhance relationships at work and simultaneously enhance environmental factors that contribute to the educators' overall job satisfaction. Ultimately, increasing emotional intelligence could lead to positive outcomes for student achievement as teachers work under less stress and develop a better understanding of how stressors can affect their work and their job satisfaction.

There is a lack of understanding of the effects intrinsic factors such as emotional intelligence have on teacher job satisfaction. Organizational values such as leadership, motivation, collaboration, and communication relate to emotional intelligence (Birol et al., 2009). Therefore, it is important to examine the relationship between EI and job satisfaction.

This chapter examines contemporary and keystone literature related to theoretical framework, effective school environments, teacher retention, emotional intelligence and teaching, and teacher job satisfaction.

Research Questions

The following research questions were used in this study:

- 1) What is the level of job satisfaction in relation to gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 2) What is the level of emotional intelligence in relation to gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 3) What is the level of job satisfaction of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 4) What is the level of emotional intelligence of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 5) What is the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher job satisfaction of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?

Theoretical Framework

Origin of Emotional Intelligence

Throughout Western culture, there have been philosophical considerations of the relations between reason and emotion (Ciarrochi, Forgas, & Mayer, 2001; Zeidner, Matthews, & Rogers, 2009). Emotional intelligence has gained popularity in recent years, but it is not a novel idea. Its roots can be traced back to the writings in *Book II of Nicomachean Ethics* of Aristotle.

In *Book II, Moral Virtue*, Aristotle defined two types of excellence: intellectual and moral. Aristotle differentiated the two by stating that intellectual excellence came from instruction, time, and experience; whereas moral excellence was developed by training (Peters, 1886). The remainder of *Book II* of *Nicomachean Ethics* discussed emotions driven by virtues, vices, and the human struggle to develop moderation that finds pleasure and pain in the right circumstances. Aristotle wrote:

Again, both virtues and vices result from and are formed by the same acts in which they

manifest themselves, as in the case with the arts also. It is by harping that good harpers and bad harpers alike are produced: and so with builders and the rest; by building well

they will become good builders, and bad builders by building badly. Indeed, if it were

not so, they would not want anybody to teach them, but would all be born either good or

bad at their trades. And it is just the same with virtues also. It is by our conduct in our

intercourse with other men that we become just or unjust, and by acting in circumstances

of danger, and training ourselves to feel fear or confidence, that we become courageous

or cowardly. So, too, with our animal appetites and the passion of anger; for by behaving

in this way or in that on the occasions with which these passions are concerned, some

become temperate and gentle, and others profligate and ill-tempered. In a word, the

several habits or characters are formed by the same kinds of acts as those which they

produce. (Peters, 1886, p. 35)

Aristotle believed that the humans faced a challenge when dealing with their emotions.

He recognized the need for teaching and training to develop habits, whether virtuous or vicious.

It is likely that he would agree with Patti's (2006) notion that positive relationships between

teachers and students are essential for today's young to develop into virtuous adults. Research

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has identified that children learn from the actions they observe each day (Beaudoin & Taylor, 2004; Hargreaves, 2011; Hart, 1983; Haynes & Marans, 1999; Ramsey, 2008). If a teacher is consistently punitive and degrading toward students, it is likely that the students will exhibit those behaviors; whereas, if the teacher strives to be the best they can be and model appropriate social competencies, children will work toward developing appropriate competencies as well. Noddings (2002) proposed that schools benefit from a culture and ethos that provides opportunities to exhibit caring behavior, rather than a curriculum that is centered on caring. Thus, supporting the notion that cooperative learning, peer tutoring, and mentoring are techniques in which learning occurs authentically through situations that are encountered daily, rather than taught systematically. Aristotle wrote at great lengths about virtues, vices, and the difficulty of managing one's emotions in the proper way:

For instance, it is possible to feel fear, confidence, desire, anger, pity, and generally to be affected painfully or pleasantly, either too much or too little, in either case wrongly; but to be thus affected at the right times, and on the right occasions, and towards the right persons, and with the right object, and in the right fashion, is the mean course and the best course, and these are the characteristics of virtue. (Peters, 1886, p. 46)

Researchers argue that emotional intelligence is a modern version of the concepts

Aristotle wrote about years ago (Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey 1997; Zimmerman, 2015).

Zeidner et al. (2009) indicated that humans struggle to identify their emotional reactions, fail to
control outbursts, and oftentimes behave foolishly under pressure. Even though the terminology
has changed significantly over the years, the blending of the influences of cognitive and
emotional factors with human functioning is at the center of what current researchers are
defining as emotional intelligence (Cassady & Boseck, 2008).

Evolution of Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence has been defined and redefined so many times that it would be laborious to outline all of the definitions; however, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) categorized the term *emotional intelligence* as having three distinct meanings: as a zeitgeist, as a personality, or a distinct mental ability.

The first explanation, established the term emotional intelligence as a zeitgeist, or cultural movement of the times. The historic Stoic movement of ancient Greece posited that a wise person refrained from exhibiting emotions because emotions were too individualistic to be reliable (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). However, an era of emotional expressiveness began in the 1960s and continues to present day as individuals and groups share emotions to protest inequality, express viewpoints, and stand up for their beliefs, furthering the need to learn more about psychosocial development as well as social and emotional learning (Cohen, 1999). Conflict versus integration describe what Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso view to be the current societal struggle to integrate emotion with thought. Elias et al. (1997) viewed emotional intelligence as an integrative concept that explained competence in both social and emotional skills that should the taught in adolescence and strengthen in adulthood. However, in 1994, Herrenstein and Murray published *The Bell Curve* to highlight distinctions between intelligence distributions in the United States. Herrenstein and Murray wrote that intelligence was normally distributed and difficult to change, and that those with low intelligence were typically unemployed and poor, while those with higher intelligence were more likely to be employed and wealthy. A popular component of the zeitgeist view of emotional intelligence is that such controversial writings contributed to the emphasis of emotional intelligence as an equalizer. Goleman (1995) contrasted emotional intelligence to general intelligence stating that "it can be

as powerful, and at times more powerful, than IQ" (p. 34). Goleman (1995) also contended that emotional intelligence could be learned, thus producing an egalitarian view that anyone could acquire it. There has been much discussion and research in recent years regarding emotional intelligence; however, it is difficult to predict whether emotional intelligence is a passing fad or could qualify as an historic movement in years to come. In some ways, it refers to the integration between emotion and rationality throughout history, but in other contexts, it refers to a kinder, gentler intelligence that anyone can develop (Mayer et al., 2000).

A second definition of emotional intelligence refers to the term as a close synonym for personality (Mayer et al., 2000). One such interpretation of emotional intelligence came from Goleman (1995) who described emotional intelligence as a set of personality attributes. Included are traits based on motivation, emotion, and behavior that encompass how individuals navigate in the world. Goleman argued, "there is an old-fashioned word for the body of skills that emotional intelligence represents: character" (p. 285). Many scientists have treated Goleman's work seriously; however, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) believe the term emotional intelligence is "better reserved for a more focused portion of personality" (p. 105). Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso wrote that the scientific realm of personality and emotional intelligence requires clearly defined terminology. Additionally, emotional intelligence as an attribute of personality does not fit with current perspectives on personality psychology.

Finally, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) described a third meaning for the term emotional intelligence: a distinct mental ability. According to Mayer and Salovey (1997), the logic for identifying an intelligence within psychology is to define it, develop a means for measuring it, document its partial or complete independence from other known intelligences, and demonstrate that it predicts real-world criteria. In doing so, the researchers began the process of

developing their definition of emotional intelligence as "a subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189).

Mayer (2001) summarized the development of emotional intelligence into five eras. The first period covered the years from 1900-1969. During this time frame, the realm of testing for intelligence began, as did emotion research. The debate centered on whether people who encountered stressful situations would respond with a physiological reaction (such as increased heart rate) or with an emotional response. Other debates of that time period were related to Darwin's belief that emotions evolved among species, while social psychologists argued that social intelligence could vary somewhat according to different cultures. Boler (1999) contended that female teachers of the 1930s were charged with the role of developing virtuous citizens, and that a female schoolteacher's mental hygiene could be blamed for social problems. Also during the first era, educational psychologists analyzed the effect of industrialization and immigration as threats to smooth administration in schools. Cattell (1943) made the distinction between two kinds of adult mental capacity: fluid, or purely general ability, and crystallized, or long established discriminatory habits. Fluid intelligence represented the abstract thought and novel ideas, a sort of pure processing computer-like capability that could not function in isolation. The counterpart that fluid intelligence reasoned with included thoughts and memories that were already present inside the human brain, known as crystallized intelligence. If ideas were well organized and easily retrieved, crystallized intelligence was present; whereas if memory retrieval was faint and thoughts were disorganized, crystallized intelligence was compromised (Mayer, 2004).

The second period, known by Mayer (2001) as the precursor to emotional intelligence, occurred from 1970-1989. During these 20 years, the distinct fields of cognition and affect emerged. Also, the field of nonverbal communication introduced reading posture and facial expressions as ways to indicate, measure, and read emotional states. Perhaps the most widely known research during this time period was Gardner's (1983) work on multiple intelligences, in which he proposed a means to understanding the many ways in which human beings were intelligent; that is, how they process, learn, and remember information in a variety of ways. He proposed different intelligences to account for a broader range of human potential in children and adults. The personal intelligences, namely intrapersonal and interpersonal are distinguished as follows:

In its most primitive form, the intrapersonal intelligence amounts to little more than the capacity to distinguish a feeling of pleasure from one of pain and, on the basis of such discrimination, to become more involved or to withdraw from a situation. At its most advanced level, intrapersonal knowledge allows one to detect and to symbolize complex and highly differentiated sets of feelings. (p. 239)

Gardner (1983) described interpersonal intelligence as the capacity to perceive and symbolize emotions, stating:

Interpersonal intelligence involves the ability to notice and make distinctions among other individuals, especially their temperaments, motivations, moods, and intentions. At its most basic level, interpersonal intelligence is the ability for a child to detect the moods in the individuals around him or her. In its most advanced level, it permits a skilled adult to discern the desires and intentions of many other individuals, even when they are not obvious, and to potentially act on that knowledge by influencing a group to behave in a

certain manner. Political and religious leaders, teachers, and those enrolled in the helping professions, are examples of those with highly developed forms of interpersonal intelligence. (p. 239)

Lastly, empirical work on social intelligence identified characteristics such as social skills, empathy skills, prosocial attitudes, that formed the foundation for the emergence of emotional intelligence.

During the third period (1990-1993) Mayer and Salovey published several articles on emotional intelligence, thus beginning the emergence of emotional intelligence as a unique concept. In order to more accurately describe emotional intelligence, Mayer and Salovey (1997) confirmed that one must explore the two component terms: intelligence and emotion. Since the eighteenth century, psychologists have divided the brain into three distinct parts 1) cognition 2) affect and 3) motivation. Much of the cognitive sphere has been the main focus with regard to intelligence. It embodies one's ability to remember, judge, reason, and think. According to Mayer and Salovey, emotions belong to the second sphere. The affect portion of the brain is responsible for moods, evaluations, and other feeling states like energy or fatigue. Mayer and Salovey concluded that the definition of emotional intelligence should correlate with both emotion and intelligence, if the two definitions are maintained. The pair chose to avoid including the third sphere (motivation) in their definition because they believed that it referred to biological or learned goal-seeking behaviors (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Gardner (1993) provided a picture of what researchers learned regarding the educational applications of multiple intelligence theory in an effort to solicit the attention of educators around the country to redesign the way children were educated. In regard to educating the personal intelligences, Gardner (1993) reiterated interpersonal intelligence as the ability to understand and discern the feelings

and intentions of others and intrapersonal intelligence as the ability to understand one's own feelings and motivations.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) cautioned that not everything that connects cognition to emotion should be presumed as emotional intelligence. Some components more suitably fit into another branch of study known as cognition and affect. According to Mayer and Salovey emotions can alter thinking in a variety of ways, but not necessarily in ways that make a person more intelligent. Good moods bias peoples' thoughts, a process known as mood-congruent judgment (Mayer, Gaschke, Braverman, & Evans, 1992). These studies explore self-control, but they do not change the person's level of cognitive intelligence, according to Mayer and Salovey (1997).

The fourth phase of the emergence of the emotional intelligence construct occurred through the years 1994-1997. This period heightened the popularization and broadening of the term emotional intelligence. Many books, magazines, and articles were published which led to two distinct perceptions of emotional intelligence: the scholarly field and the popular field.

Time magazine used the term "EQ" on their magazine in 1995. The article entitled, Emotional Intelligence: The EQ Factor led to the rise of increased public attention and the development of many other personality scales published under the pretense of emotional intelligence. In 1995, Daniel Goleman also published a best-selling book (*Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More than IQ*) that served as the most widely known version of emotional intelligence outside of academia (Geher & Renstrom, 2004). Goleman outlined a mixed model version of emotional intelligence. He divided his work into five sections: The Emotional Brain, The Nature of Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Intelligence Applied, Windows of Opportunity, and Emotional Literacy. There were three main premises 1) through the application of intelligence to

emotion, people can improve their lives 2) emotions are habits, and like any habit can undermine our best intentions 3) by relinquishing certain feelings and developing others, people can gain control of their lives.

Goleman (1995) valued Aristotle's ideas of the difficulty of managing emotional life with intelligence and revitalized Aristotle's views for modern times as he stated, "Anyone can be angry-that is easy. But to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right reason and in the right way-that is not easy." (p. ix)

Goleman (1995) emphasized the concept Aristotle eluded to, in that emotions are not inherently good or bad, but the key lies in learning to apply them appropriately to the situations at hand, in other words, exhibiting self-control. Goleman defined emotional intelligence as a collection of social and emotional competencies "which include self-control, zeal and persistence, and the ability to motivate oneself" (p. xii). Goleman also coined the term "emotional hijackings" (p. 14) to describe the moment when a center in the limbic brain reacts to an emergency and signals the rest of the brain to react before the neocortex (or thinking brain) has a chance to fully process what happened.

In 1997, Mayer and Salovey critiqued the work of Goleman (1995) who defined emotional intelligence as "self-control, zeal and persistence, and the ability to motivate oneself" by reminding the reader that this definition involved motivation (one of the three separate components of the brain intelligence) and is perhaps better suited in alternative definitions that fall into the category of motivational intelligence.

The fifth and final period in the evolution of emotional intelligence began in 1998 and continues to present day. Further research and institutionalization of emotional intelligence characterized this period. According to Mayer (2001), the concept of emotional intelligence will

continue to be refined as new measures of the concept produced. One such division come from Bradberry and Greaves (2009) who divided emotional intelligence into 4 skills that can be paired under two primary competencies: personal competence and social competence. Within the realm of personal competence, the two areas of focus are self-awareness and self-management. Self-awareness is related to the ability to accurately perceive one's emotions and understand typical reactions to specific events. People who are self-aware have an optimal understanding of what they do well in, what satisfies them, and what triggers negative reactions. Self-awareness is known as a foundation to emotional intelligence. Once you develop self-awareness, it makes the other competencies easier to acquire or improve. According to research, 83 percent of top performers scored high in self-awareness, while just two percent of the bottom performers are high in self-awareness (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009).

Another key ability in the personal competence area of emotional intelligence, according to Bradberry and Greaves (2009) is self-management. Self-management is the ability to use one's self-awareness to be flexible and choose positive behaviors. Often, this means that a person exercises self-control and is able to tolerate uncertainty. People who showcase the ability to self-manage can put momentary needs on hold while they are working toward larger goals.

The final two competencies that Bradberry and Greaves described as desirable components of emotional intelligence are social awareness and relationship management. Social awareness is the ability to read the emotions of others and accurately determine their thoughts and feelings. The two most important elements of social awareness are listening and observing. The final component of emotional intelligence, according to Bradberry and Greaves is relationship management. This ability unites all three of the previous skills. Effective relationship management is achieved when a person is able to use their self-awareness, self-

management, social awareness techniques to interact with others over time. Relationship management allows one to manage conflict appropriately so that one can initiate a direct, constructive conversation and remain calm in the midst of a stressful situation (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009).

According to Bradberry and Greaves (2009) effectively handling emotions is important to the human condition because the human brain is hard-wired to give emotions the upper hand. Everything that a person sees, smells, hears, touches, or tastes travels as electric signals through the body from the spinal cord as it journeys to the rational area of the brain, the electric signals pass through the area known as the limbic system. The limbic system is the part of the brain that "feels" emotions. The way that the limbic system and the rational section of the brain communicate and interact with one another is the physical sources of emotional intelligence (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009).

The physical pathway for emotional intelligence starts in the brain, at the spinal cord. Your primary senses enter here and must travel to the front of your brain before you can think rationally about your experience. But first they travel through the limbic system, the place where emotions are experienced. Emotional intelligence requires effective communication between rational and emotional centers of the brain. (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009 p. 7)

Bradberry and Greaves (2009) recognized emotional intelligence as the "ability to recognize and understand emotions in yourself and others, and your ability to use this awareness to manage your behavior and relationships" (p. 17). They explored emotional intelligence as something that was separate and distinct from intellect. Bradberry and Greaves believed that cognitive intelligence or IQ, is not flexible. A person's IQ is their ability to learn, and it is the

same (barring injury) throughout one's life. However, emotional intelligence, or EQ, is a flexible skill that can be developed and increased.

In addition to intellect and emotional intelligence, Bradberry and Greaves addressed personality as the third piece of in individual's disposition. They argued that one's personality is the style that defines their preferences, such as introversion or extroversion, and they believed that one's personality style emerges early in life and rarely changes. When cognitive intelligence, emotional intelligence, and personality are considered, emotional intelligence is the only ability that can be improved upon (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Many years of research has been dedicated to the development and assessment of the emotional intelligence, as well as numerous attempts to resolve the controversy as to whether emotional intelligence is a skill, trait, or an ability.

The last characteristic of the final era of emotional intelligence research is the addition of peer-reviewed research articles. Mayer cautioned that the field is complicated because it encompasses both scientific and popular aspects. Kristjansson (2007) dispelled misconceptions of Goleman's model arguing that there are physiological, conceptual, and psychometric reservations. Kristjansson contends that there was a lack of research to support Goleman's claims that individual differences with the normal range correspond to any systematic variations in brain function; if so, a cognitive model, opposed to Goleman's physiological model, would be better suited. From a conceptual standpoint, Kristjansson believes that emotional intelligence is a matter of conceptual redundancy, offering only positive mental qualities that IQ test fail to measure, which currently abound in the field of differential psychology. The final two fold argument from Kristjansson is from a psychometric point of view. First, EI may be too elusive to be operationalized as an independent construct, and secondly, the reliance on self-report

instruments to measure EI is an inherent concern of all self-report assessments due the likelihood of evaluators to misjudge their abilities, whether deliberately or self-deceptively (Kristjansson, 2007).

Boler (1999) offered criticism of emotional intelligence, arguing that it capitalizes on a repackaged version of industrial psychology and democratic participation, authorized by cognitive science. Boler also viewed emotional intelligence as serving capitalism in several ways. First, if workers and schoolchildren were conversational in emotional literacy the labor system would profit, while the self-help industry would profit by providing information consumed due to human's self-obsession. Boler also viewed emotional literacy curricula as a cost effective method of teaching students to be more responsible and exhibit self-control. She provided a compelling portrait of how the emotional literacy programs are an attempt to replace costly policing of schools. According to Boler, emotional literacy curricula represent a Pandora's box. When opened, they can either invite analysis of the social and cultural underpinnings of emotion, or they can shut down the discussion and merely teach a skill in an individualistic method. Secondly, they can provide an opportunity for growth and enlightenment, or as a way to shift blame to an individual. Also, the quality of such programs is difficult to measure. Teachers' relationship to the material varies greatly and the teachers' sense of expertise could be offended by the imposition of a new curriculum. Finally, while most programs are well-meaning, they are institutionalized, thus producing behavioral modifications outside of the advertised effect. Despite the risks, Boler wrote "we owe it to our teachers and students to be explicit about what values we are teaching and create opportunities for collective self-reflection and evaluation of emotional rules and conduct which are inevitably a part of school curricula" (p. 104).

Measuring Emotional Intelligence

There are two basic types of emotional intelligence measures: performance tests and self-report questionnaires. Performance tests gather responses that can be evaluated against objective, predetermined scoring criteria, while self-report questionnaires rely on respondents to report their own level of emotional intelligence. Ciarrrochi, Forgas, and Mayer (2001) point out five key differences between performance tests and self-report measures:

- 1) Performance tests assess actual EI, whereas self-report measures assess perceived EI.
- 2) Performance tests are generally more time consuming to administer than self-report measures.
- 3) Self-report measures require people to have insight into their own level of EI, while performance measures do not.
- 4) Self-report measures allow respondents to distort their responses to appear better (or worse) than they actually are.
- 5) Performance measures of EI tend overlap with traditional intelligence measures and are less related to personality measures than self-report measures.

A brief overview of a self-report questionnaire and a performance test will follow.

The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) is the most comprehensive self-report measures of EI available (Ciarrrochi et al., 2001). It was developed by Reuven Bar-On, who is considered one of the pioneers in the measurement of emotional intelligence (Gowing, 2001). Bar-On (2000) proposed that emotional and social intelligence is a multifaceted array of emotional, personal, and social abilities that impacts one's ability to cope with daily demands and pressures, that can best be examined using the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i). He coined the term emotional quotient (EQ) for his measure, as a parallel to the term intelligence

quotient (IQ) used with cognitive measures (Gowing, 2001). Initial groundwork for the tool began in the 1980s. Initially, key factors that related to emotional and social functioning were identified and precisely defined. Then a psychometric instrument was constructed that was later normed and validated across various cultures. The instrument was first published in 1997, and it is best described as a self-report measure of emotionally and socially competent behavior that provides an estimate of the participant's emotional and social intelligence (Bar-On, 2000). The factorial structure of this construct contains the following ten components: (1) self-regard, (2) emotional self-awareness, (3) assertiveness, (4) empathy, (5) interpersonal relationship, (6) stress tolerance, (7) impulse control, (8) reality testing, (9) flexibility, and (10) problem-solving. To supplement the key factorial components, five facilitators of emotionally and socially intelligent behavior (optimism, self-actualization, happiness, independence, and social responsibility) were believed to enhance one's overall ability to effectively cope with daily demands and pressures (Bar-On, 2000). Bar-On affirmed that these noncognitive intelligences were important factors in determining one's ability to function successfully in the world. The Emotional Quotient Inventory has been translated into twenty-two languages, and normative data have been collected in more than fifteen countries (Bar-On, 2000). Bar-On refined the EQ-i over the years and created a version specifically for adults, as well as a youth version for children and adolescents (Gowing, 2001).

According to MacCann, Matthews, Zeidner, and Roberts (2004) the most current, comprehension instrument corresponding to the ability-based paradigm is the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), pronounced "Mes-keet." The MSCEIT is a 141-item performance scale that measures how well respondents perform tasks and solve emotional problems, rather than asking them for their own personal assessment of their emotional

sensitivity. The instrument yields an overall performance level of the participant's emotional intelligence, as well as a more detailed report using a Four-Branch Model of emotional intelligence. According to Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, (2002):

This is the first measure that reports valid scores in each of the four central areas of emotional intelligence: the ability to (1) accurately perceive emotions; (2) use emotions to facilitate thinking, problem solving, and creativity; (3) understand emotions; and (4) manage emotions for personal growth. (p. 1)

The main features of the MSCEIT include a demonstrated reliability and validity, a psychometric development history, a standardization of 5,000 respondents, as well as consensus and expert reference scoring (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). Scores are awarded based on the proportion of a large pre-tested sample that endorses a particular response.

The MSCEIT provides 15 main scores: Total EIQ, two Area scores, four Branch scores, and eight Task scores, as well as three supplemental scores. An overview of the main scores and supplemental scores of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)

User's Manual (2002 p.17) is below:

- Total Emotional Intelligence score-This score provides an overall index of the respondent's emotional intelligence.
- Area scores-An Experimental Emotional Intelligence score provides an index of the
 respondent's ability to perceive emotional information, to relate it to other sensations
 such as color and taste, and to use it to facilitate thought.

A Strategic Emotional Intelligence score provides an index of the respondent's ability to understand emotional information and use it strategically for planning and self-management.

 Branch scores-A Perceiving Emotions score indicates the degree to which the respondent can identify emotion in himself, herself, or others.

A Facilitating Thought score indicates the degree to which the respondent can use his or her emotions to improve thinking.

An Understanding Emotions score indicates how well the respondent understands the complexities of emotional meanings, emotional transitions, and emotional situations.

An Emotional Management Score registers how well the respondent is able to manage emotions in his or her own life and the lives of others.

The eight Task scores were designed to provide supplemental test information. Each branch is measured by two tasks. Given that the Task scores are less reliable than the Total, Area, or Branch scores, Task scores need to be interpreted with a great deal of caution.

Effective School Environments

More than any other single factor or influence, the school culture determines the ultimate success or failure of a school; culture is responsible for promoting or limiting the performance of individuals and groups within an organization (Elbot & Fulton, 2008; Ramsey, 2008). The students and adults in a school either make it, or do not, largely because of culture. The culture of a school is shaped by how people relate to one another, communicate with each other, and solve problems together. Ramsey (2008) suggested that cohesiveness is a greater determiner of a school's success than class size, curriculum, text book selections, or budgets. Eklund (2008) agreed by claiming that a positive work climate for teachers is crucial for student success. Eklund noted that people tend to frame education issues in terms of the students, overlooking the impact decisions have on the educator. For example, a common complaint among teachers is class size. The difference, between teaching 25 or 35 students might seem insignificant to the

average citizen, but teachers see a dramatic difference. The increased number of students can cause the educator to feel increased fatigue and decreased job satisfaction. This supports the idea that a positive school climate for teachers is a central solution to many problems that occur within the walls of the school (Eklund, 2008).

The climate of a school building is largely determined by the culture, and when climate is synchronized with culture numerous hours can be saved on planning and implementation of programs (Brucato, 2005). However, when teachers feel overworked and pressured, negativity can infect the culture of the school, as well as the teacher-student relationship. Beaudoin and Taylor (2004) found that when staff cohesiveness is negativity impacted, nothing functions properly and adults and children suffer. Reksten (2009) asserted when teachers feel unsuccessful, even the more capable students in a class do not achieve what is possible.

Culture can be affected by numerous sources. According to Beaudoin and Taylor (2004) gossip, cliques, divisive attitude, resentment and negativity, scarcity of time, hierarchy, and competition are the most common detriments to positive school culture. However in a recent job satisfaction survey, conducted by Beaudoin and Taylor (2004), the four best predictors of teachers' job satisfaction were collaboration, relationship with principal, appreciation by colleagues, and general connection with staff which creates a shield against problems and fosters a nurturing environment. Smith and Scott (1990) viewed complacency as the biggest obstacle to collaboration in schools. They believed that teachers and administrators must view the isolation of teachers in their classroom and top-down management that neglects teachers' expertise as counterproductive practices that are damaging to both teachers and students (Smith & Scott, 1990).

Adults play critical roles in facilitating an early stimulating environment for children. If caregivers are unable to provide early stimulation, children stagnate and brain activity is limited (Taylor & MacKenney, 2008). Schools are the ultimate cradle of socialization for children, and teaching is one of the most social professions among adults (Beaudoin & Taylor, 2004). However, when a school's culture is in jeopardy, teachers and students can feel isolated. A connection between teachers and students that promotes a healthy climate-open and accepting of diversity at all levels, including ethnicity, religion, age, interests, and experience is needed (Beaudoin & Taylor, 2004; Haynes & Marans, 1999). Teachers desiring to increase learning opportunities for all students must be knowledgeable about the social and cultural contexts of teaching and learning (Banks et al., 2007). However, Howard (1999) wrote that the process of healing problems of persistent inequalities across racial differences is difficult given a teacher population that is predominately white and culturally isolated. Humans want and need to feel safe and secure in their world, but dealing with differences often challenges ones' ability to meet those needs. Gardenswartz, Cherbosque, and Rowe (2008) used a model known as Four Layers of Diversity to illustrate the various levels of diversity that are encountered when dealing with others. An individual's personality is center to the model and the concentric circles are shaped by internal, external, and organizational dimensions. Internal factors include superficial indicators such as race, age, ethnicity, gender, or physical ability, while the external dimension is shaped by factors such as parental status, work experience, educational background, religion, income, geographic origin, marital status, and personal habits. The final realm displays diversity that accounts for organizational dimensions such as management status, departmental unit or group, seniority, work location, or union affiliation. The model is useful to dissect and understand the complexity people face when dealing with others, and also as a tool analyze

differences that may cause irritation or awkwardness (Gardenswartz, Cherbosque, & Rowe, 2008). The ability to admit and understand feelings helps people respond in an appropriate and effective way, and an appropriate ensuring response to a perplexing situation can have a positive, dramatic effect on the workplace and its culture. However, when feelings and responses are haphazard and careless, counterproductive and even destructive behavior can result (Gardenswartz, Cherbosque, & Rowe, 2008). Adults must be mindful of their language, attitudes, and behaviors, as they send messages of respect or intolerance to students (Haynes & Marans, 1999).

Teacher Retention

According to the National Center for Education Statistics, there were 3,377,900 teachers during the 2012-2013 school year. Of those, 259,400 or roughly 7.7%, left the teacher profession after the first year (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012). Attracting competent candidates to the teaching profession, retaining highly qualified teachers, and ensuring students' access to well trained professionals remain central issues in education (Akiba & LeTendre, 2009; Bartell, 2005; Katzenmeyer, 2004; Menter, Hutchings, & Ross, 2002; Richin et al., 2003). Teachers are required to deal with a variety of issues that children bring from their home environment to the classroom each day. Some students come having just left a warm, loving environment where parents recognize and appreciate the value of an education; others show up after escaping from an empty house filled with empty promises and an empty refrigerator (Connors, 2000). How a teacher handles both types of students contributes to what sociologist Arlie Hochschild (2013) described as emotional labor, an effort to seem to feel and try to feel the right feeling for the job while also attempting to induce the right feeling in others. Basically, it is the labor involved in managing one's emotions to meet the demands of the job.

Hargreaves interviewed 50 elementary and secondary teachers and found that teachers exercise emotional labor countless times in their work. For example, when they present an enthusiastic lesson after a sleepless night, while they remain calm when communicating with an agitated parent, when they resist the urge to confront a coworker. Some emotional labor was a labor of love, when teachers were able to inspire their students and take time to get to know them well, but other times it was debilitating for teachers. Many teachers reported a negative effect of emotional labor when they lacked adequate time to care for people properly (Hargreaves, 2011). When Hargreaves continued his research in 2003 by interviewing 200 teachers about the taxing effects of standardized education reforms, prescribed programs, assessments, and cutbacks in resources, he found that teachers felt that there was less creativity, loss of purpose, and an exodus from the profession due to such stressors (Hargreaves, 2011).

Failure to focus on the needs of teachers has devastating consequences (Eklund, 2008; Kaprive, 2013; Ramsey, 2008; Strong, 2009). Eklund (2008) proposed that a "three-pronged definition of burnout" (p. 19). He cited emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment as the decisive traits that determine whether an educator's day was good or bad, and ultimately whether they stay or leave the profession (Eklund, 2008). The majority of teachers are hard-working professionals that feel the pressure to work long hours in the name of dedication (Beaudoin & Taylor, 2004). Beaudoin and Taylor (2004) found that 83% of teachers sacrificed personal time to complete their job which could prove to be costly to family relationships as well as self-care activities.

According to Bolich (2001), the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) reported that almost half of the new teachers left the state that they began teaching within five years of initial employment. Over 30 percent of new teachers in the United States leave the classroom by

their fifth year (Bolich, 2001). Hargreaves (2011) pointed out that the teachers most likely to leave are often the ones who are the most committed. Seyfarth (2002) argued that boredom, interruptions, misplacement, lack of resources, and at-risk children are the primary sources for dissatisfaction among teachers. Bolich (2001) added inadequate teacher preparation, undesirable school conditions, and salary issues were also contributing factors to a beginning teacher's decision to leave. According to Riegle (1985), poor human relation skills were more detrimental to teachers' career than lack of knowledge about their subject matter.

High teacher turnover rates have a damaging effect on schools and students, as well as creating a financial burden on school districts and states. Bartell (2005) reported taxpayers lose approximately \$50,000 when a teacher exits the profession. The No Child Left Behind Act, stated that by 2005-2006 all children would receive instruction from a highly qualified teacher. In doing so, many alternate-route teachers entered the profession; however, while being highly qualified many were underprepared in their knowledge of pedagogy and left shortly after they commenced. According to Bartell (2005), the paradox illustrates the complexities of generating alternate routes into the profession while maintaining professional standards. Perhaps more intricate induction or mentoring programs could facilitate higher retention among teachers.

The Four-Mind-Set Model depicts how schooling can be approached via four distinct mind-sets: dependence, independence, interdependence, and integration (Elbot & Fulton, 2008). The mind-set of dependence is comprised of acceptance, respect, and humility. Independence embodies initiative and responsibility, while interdependence occurs when people act in caring ways with a heightened awareness for the collective welfare of the group. While teaching training programs adequately prepare future educators for working with children, there is a deficiency in teaching teachers to work with adults. Little emphasis is placed on developing team

membership or leadership skills (Wheelan, 2005). Teachers who perform much of their work in isolation may find it taxing to balance all four mind-sets. Elbot and Fulton (2008) argued that establishing and maintaining relationships with colleagues and parents is tiresome, and often educators struggle to heal themselves from tribulations of daily school life. Students rely heavily on teachers to transmit knowledge. They sit dutifully in class, and maintain appropriate behavior, but the same students may lack a commitment to learning. Thus, the students fail to see how taking responsibility for their own learning could promote the well-being of the school and enhance the overall school culture. Students and teachers benefit from transitioning from dependence to independence and interdependence. Relinquishing hardships by achieving integration (a healthy balance of the other three mind-sets) provides insight to building an intentional school culture and negating the aforementioned struggles (Elbot & Fulton, 2008).

Katzenmeyer (2004) maintained that teacher isolation, the absence of career ladders, low salaries, and the lack of leadership responsibilities were to blame for teacher attrition. Providing a workplace that empowers teachers to function as leaders and participate in a community of learning will entice more educators to remain in the field (Katzenmeyer, 2004). Empowering teachers to lead stems from an enabling school culture, likewise, when a teacher leader's identity is at odds with the identity perceived by the dominant culture, the would-be leader hesitates (Gonzales, 2004). Children thrive academically when they feel that teachers and administrators take a positive, personal interest in their education (Sennett, 2005). Likewise, teachers flourish when they feel adequately supported and encouraged by the stakeholders they serve.

Emotional Intelligence and Teaching

According to Sener, Demirel, and Sarlak (2009) people with high emotional and social capacity that are able to understand and manage emotions are at an advantage in their personal and professional lives.

Zeidner et al. (2009) reported that EI is continuing to be evaluated as being:

...an important and valuable potential personal resource for coping with threats,
challenges, and affordances of organizational settings, purportedly related to the tasks
where there is clear emotional skill required for successful performance (e.g., sales,
customer relations, helping professions, and school teaching). Enhancing EI is
potentially an important strand of workplace interventions for organizational stress. (p.
301)

In educational settings, teachers are the most important component of student success. Eklund (2008) indicated that teachers who are fatigued and melancholy create a difficult environment for students to prosper. Therefore, improving the work life of educators would decrease the educational burnout of teachers while enhancing the academic achievement of the students (Eklund, 2008). Zeidner et al. (2009) proposed that academic learning could be enhanced by emotional skill development that promotes motivation and self-control, along with social skills supporting teamwork and the avoidance of damaging antisocial behaviors. Over the past several decades, schools have been flooded with countless youth development courses to promote competence and prevent an array of health problems but few have been targeted at teachers (Elias et al., 1997). Eklund (2008) proposed:

If educators focus exclusively on building strengths in students, the effect on their own job satisfaction and professional development is oftentimes secondary and haphazard.

But what might happen if we apply the same strength based, positive development model intentionally and consistently in the lives of educators? (p. 23)

If teachers wait for conditions to improve, they may not sustain themselves for long (Eklund, 2008).

Training and development of emotional intelligence could have a positive relationship to job satisfaction since emotional intelligence facilitates an increased understanding and management of emotions (Ealias & George, 2012). Mayor and Salovey (1997) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in self and others. Elias et al. (1997) discussed similar thoughts regarding social and emotional competence (SEL) as the ability to understand, manage, and express the social and emotional aspects of one's life in ways that enable the successful management of life tasks such as learning, forming relationships, solving everyday problems, and adapting to the complex demands of growth and development, to include self-awareness, control of impulsivity, working cooperatively, and caring about oneself and others.

Corcoran and Tormey (2012) found evidence that suggests having a high level of emotional intelligence is likely to benefit teachers and students. They conducted a survey and found that pre-service student teachers had levels of emotional intelligence below the norm. Given the comparatively lower levels of emotional intelligence found among student teachers, Corcoran and Tormey (2012) suggested that it is worth considering including a focus on such emotional competences within pre-service education programs. Understanding the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher satisfaction could help with successful recruitment and teacher retention.

Reissman (2006) suggested that new teachers are in need of emotional intelligence training to deal with day-to-day stress. Teachers are important components to maintaining positive learning environments; however, Fleming and Bay (2004) pointed out that teachers frequently receive little or no instruction in the development or exposure of social emotional learning programs until they are required to implement them in their own classroom instruction. Even though some teachers are extremely knowledgeable of their subject matter and teaching methods, Elias et al. (1997) suggested that emotional intelligence is the missing part of the system that could bridge the gap and allow students to be actively engaged, eager to take risks, creative in their endeavors, and more willing to cooperate with their peers and teacher.

Kaprive (2013) argued that teachers need support as they strive to meet the demands of teaching and offered daily encouragement and specific action steps to assist them in educating students. Her background in educating at-risk students and special needs children allowed her to develop a broad appreciation for the challenges educators face on a daily dose basis. Each daily dose contains a concept, practical classroom application, a personal note, an action step, and a final reflection that is intended to enhance the educator's resiliency, humility, knowledge, and emotional intelligence. Kaprive (2013) proposed that the more content a teacher is, the better able the teacher will be to educate students.

Panju (2008) argued that workplaces are becoming more specialized, and therefore, the need for employees to collaborate, communicate, and problem solve is increasingly more important. She proposed that teachers are among the most influential people in the lives of students because their actions are readily observed by their students each day. After researching advancements in neuroscience, Panju (2008) concluded that children's learning centers are obstructed when they experience distressing emotional thoughts. She argued that research

showed there is a direct link between emotion and learning. Panju further contended that the feelings people have regarding themselves and others can dramatically affect their ability to concentrate, remember, think, and communicate. As a result, learners that lack emotional intelligence have difficulty following directions, working cooperatively, and staying on task.

Lewkowicz (2007) proposed that students who are angry, anxious or unhappy are difficult to teach. Teachers that attempt to teach these students find that it is time consuming and frustrating. Advocates for developing emotional intelligence believe that helping people meet their needs in positive, healthy ways will make class time more productive, build character, prevent behavioral problems, and increase academic achievement (Lewkowicz, 2007). Character development should no longer be viewed as a goal separate from student achievement, rather character education should be recognized as a valuable tool that facilitate students' pathways through life (Seider, 2012). Brooks (1999) argued that strengthening self-esteem and selfconfidence provide groundwork to increased learning and the ability to deal effectively with mistakes. William Glasser (1998) discussed the idea of control theory, which is based on the premise that people make choices based on attempts to have their needs met. He believed that actions, thoughts, and feelings were primarily results of unconscious choices. In order for individuals to make the best choices in a given situation, Glasser argued that people should examine and reformulate their thoughts. Deci's self-determination theory has evolved over the past two decades, yet the premise that learners are more likely to confront and persevere in tasks where three criterion are present: autonomy, competence and relatedness, remains the same (2000). Deci articulated that individuals need to experience relatedness, advising that students are more likely to thrive in an environment that is welcoming and nonthreatening. Students also need to feel autonomous and have a sense of self-direction. In short, students' motivation is

heightened in an environment that provides ownership and student choice. Finally, students need to feel competent. Caution should be exercised to avoid false praise, rather, feedback should be focused on competencies related to actual accomplishments. Deci argued that the presences of absence of the aforementioned needs could either facilitate or undermine student learning (Deci, 2000). These findings support the benefits for developing effective decision making skills to enhance one's emotional intelligence.

A deficit in emotional intelligence undermines the efforts of the teacher and the learner (Panju, 2008). Given this argument, Panju asserted that developing emotional intelligence has the potential to assist schools in teaching and learning. Teachers should develop an understanding of emotional intelligence so that they can seek to grow the abilities in themselves and their students, thereby strengthening their overall effectiveness. Panju's ideas are sectioned into three parts 1) an introductory explanation of the roots of emotional intelligence and an overview issues that pertain to teaching it in the classroom 2) a framework for understanding emotional intelligence competencies and an understanding of how to developing the capabilities in the classroom, and 3) seven strategies (which form the acronym ELEVATE) to assist teachers in promoting emotional intelligence while improving academic achievement. Panju (2008) provides a way for educators to integrate emotional intelligence into the classroom and no longer leave emotional education to chance.

Gardner (1999) compared formal education to a lengthy highway, along which students travel from one place to another. However, he viewed social and emotional learning as entrances and exits along the way. Gardner (1999) explained:

Unless students feel part of a community, unless they feel motivated to work, struggle, master, they will never be able to benefit from formal education. A few students may, for

whatever reason, simply accept the agenda of school and sail along the highway. But for most children, it is essential that they be able to participate in the school, interact appropriately with teachers and peers, and locate themselves within the often perplexing agenda of formal schooling. In some cases, this social and emotional undergirding may be provided by primarily family, religious training, or the overall community; in most cases however, it has become the burden of the school to provide the support, so that the student can begin to travel smoothly along the highway of literacies and disciplinary mastery. (p. x)

Gardner believed that schools play an active role as socializing agents to ensure that individuals proceed skillfully in life as citizens, workers, and family members with a welldeveloped understanding of themselves and others. Teaching emotional intelligence was traditionally seen as a parental responsibility, but now this responsibility seems to have shifted largely to the school system (Zeidner et al., 2009). Boler (1999) noted that the overlap of the private, internal space of emotions and the public workplace or school marks a dramatic shift in Western culture where the private space of the family is no longer the only site expected to deal with emotion and its training. Evidence supports that teachers who exhibit emotional intelligence competences are better able to meet the needs of the students they teach. Likewise, how students understand and give meaning to learning, determines the degree of learning that actually takes place (Cohen, 1999). In conclusion, emotional intelligence has been positively related to academic achievement and productive experience in the world (Elias et al., 1997). Teachers must shift from the view that teaching academic content is separate from promoting students' emotional and social well-being. Instead the two should be seen as indistinguishably interwoven pieces of the same fabric (Cohen, 1999). This viewpoint enhances meaning and

purpose for educators while serving as a catalyst for a more positive school climate.

Furthermore, research conducted to better understand the relationship of emotional intelligence to teachers' job satisfaction could be beneficial to school administrators and policy makers.

Teacher Job Satisfaction

Lencioni (2007) believed that people, regardless of their industry, will be miserable if they suffer from anonymity, irrelevance, or immeasurement in their workplace. Although Lencioni's notion was originated from a managerial stance, it has implications for teachers. The first sign of a miserable job was anonymity. Research has been conducted regarding the importance of collaboration and support systems for teachers (Darling-Hammon, 2005; Menter, et al., 2002; Partin, 2005; Ramsey, 2008; Wheelan, 2005). Eklund (2008) wrote that it was essential for "staff members to feel that they are supportive of, and supported by, their colleagues, administration, and the larger school community" (p. 29). Wheelan (2005) credited teamwork among teachers as having a positive effect on student learning and behavior.

The second sign of a miserable job, according to Lencioni (2007) was irrelevance, meaning workers lacked knowledge of who their work impacted and how others were affected by their work each day. Again, Eklund (2008) agreed with Lencioni; he believed that job satisfaction is cultivated when workers feel empowered in their daily tasks. Workers thrive if they believe they are valued by the school community and are able to make decisions and solve problems that directly impact the lives of others.

Lencioni (2007), identified the final sign of misery at work with the word immeasurement, which he defined as the inability for an individual to assess their own progress or success. Eklund (2008) believed that well-defined boundaries and expectations are key components of a satisfied teacher. However, he extended the notion to include constructive use

of time. When boundaries, expectations, and effective use of time are combined, Eklund's components of job satisfaction provides a way to measure an employee's effectiveness, which counters the miserable attributes Lencioni described using the term immeasurement. Lencioni and Eklund offered two perspectives on job satisfaction that could prove to be valuable strategies for increasing productivity, decreasing turnover, and building morale within an organization.

Duke (1994) observed two detriments to teaching: drift and detachment. Lacking clarity about what needs to be done and feeling that daily work is meaningless and burdensome are common characteristics of teachers drifting through their daily routines. Others may suffer from detachment, a term used to describe educators who understand the task at hand, but were insufficiently motivated to accomplish it. According to Duke (1994), stress and burnout may be symptoms of detachment, as well as feelings of helplessness or hopelessness. Both drift and detachment diminish meaning and importance; therefore, teachers infected with either may deem their work increasingly insignificant as their job satisfaction deteriorates.

Sources of satisfaction in teaching relate to three attributes of one's adaptability and expectations: career resilience, career insight, and career identity (Seyfarth, 2002). Resilient individuals adapt easily to new situations and work well independently or cooperatively. Those who possess career insight are realistic about the career they have chosen and accurately assess their possibilities. Career insight allows workers to establish attainable goals that take into account one's strengths and weaknesses. Beginning teachers typically have lofty aspirations of what they will be able to accomplish and soon temper their expectations to match the realities of their current situation or become disheartened and leave the profession. The final attribute, career identity, is the extent that an individual is defined by their work. Intrinsic rewards, such as reaching a difficult student or knowing students grasped a new concept are sources that provide

the most satisfaction among educators (Seyfarth, 2004). Once the attributes of resilience, insight, and identify fade, teacher job satisfaction diminishes as well.

Weil (2011) discussed human education as a method to keep teachers committed and inspired as they work to develop change agents. Young people yearn for knowledge that helps them find a purpose and feel valued. No matter what field or life course students take on as adults, they must be prepared to transform systems that are unsustainable and destructive into ones that are healthy and just. Weil further argued that humane education is the most effective way to create a peaceful, sustainable, and humane world. Committed educators stay focused by infusing innovative programs into their school and taking approaches to spark curiosity in their students and engage their hands, hearts, and minds in work that is purposeful and satisfying. Weil (2011) reasoned:

Those teachers who spend each day infusing their courses with such meaning, who engage their otherwise bored students, who reignite their inborn passion for learning, who hold the bar high for each child based on that child's capacities and watch the same children exceed their expectations, cannot help but stay burned in because the rewards of such achievements are huge. (p.100)

The desire for dedicated students and a brighter future seems trite; however, maintaining that desire is crucial to maintaining job satisfaction. Hargreaves (2011) maintained that burnout has little to do with an attritional process of aging, but is an emotional process of being overloaded and undervalued.

Cobb's (2004) study most closely resembles the current research study; however, there are critical differences that should be noted. Cobb surveyed teachers using the Bar-On EQ-i Self-Report Scale the Job Descriptive Index. The sample (n=101) consisted primarily of females

(n=92). Of the participants, 62 taught elementary, 4 taught middle school, and 35 taught high school. The mean years of experience were 12.37 with a standard deviation of 8.43, and the mean age of participants was 40 years. The emotional intelligence scores ranged from a low 73 (extremely underdeveloped emotional capacity) to 126 (extremely well developed emotional capacity). The mean intelligence scores fell within the average range, which indicated that the teachers, as a collective group, possessed normal emotional capacity. Correlations among emotional intelligence scores subscales of intrapersonal EQ, self-actualization, and reality testing and the dependent variables of teaching enjoyment, job enjoyment, present job satisfaction, supervision satisfaction, and coworker satisfaction were examined. The results indicated that teachers who were better self-actualizers reported greater teacher enjoyment, r=.376. As intrapersonal emotional intelligence increased, teachers also reported greater levels of job enjoyment, r=.294. Finally, as reality testing increased, coworker satisfaction increased, r=.295. Data analyses revealed that emotional intelligence played a role in teachers' perception of their overall job satisfaction. The results of the study also indicated that emotional intelligence was positively correlated with years of teaching experience (Cobb, 2004).

Although research regarding emotional intelligence and job satisfaction of teachers was limited, other fields where EI correlates with job satisfaction were found. Ceballos (2014) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among nurses in a community hospital setting using the Jobs in General Scale, along with the MSCEIT V2.O. Out of the initial sample (n=71), only 57 participants completed all parts of the study. Missing data elements or abandonment of the study was reflected in 14 participants. The survey consisted primarily of females (n=55). Compared to the normative data set, the sample scored lower than average EI. Thirty-five of the participants scored in low average or below average range, while

22 respondents scored in the high average and above average categories. The total score for the experiencing emotion branch ranged from 61.77 to 123.57 with a mean of 94.57 (*SD*=15.99). The total strategic use of emotions branch ranged from 65.21 to 122.24 with a mean of 93.51 (*SD*=11.04). Further analysis with inferential statistics were conducted; however, the results showed no significant correlation between emotional intelligence and nurse job satisfaction, no significant correlation between years of experience and experiential emotional intelligence, and no significant correlation between strategic emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. The inadequate sample size prohibited the use of regression analysis (Ceballos, 2014).

Summary

The review of literature addressed job satisfaction and emotional intelligence. The literature review provided a theoretical framework for emotional intelligence, to include information regarding the origin and evolution of emotional intelligence, as well as definitions, models, and measures of emotional intelligence. Additionally, the literature review addressed effective school environments and teacher retention. Literature regarding emotional intelligence and teaching was also reviewed. The section concluded with a summary of concurrent literature that addressed the importance of the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.

Chapter 3. METHODS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher job satisfaction for teachers within public elementary schools in southeast Alabama. According to Goleman (1995), teachers can benefit by implementing emotional literacy programs that boost children's academic achievement by helping them become better listeners that are more focused and less impulsive in the classroom setting. Teaching emotional intelligence enhances the schools' ability to teach because students are more cooperative and responsible (Goleman, 1995).

Emotional Intelligence (EI) testing measures the ability to perceive emotions in oneself and others. EI also assists individuals to make choices about how to respond to a given situation. This skill is important as teachers would benefit by studying emotional intelligence. Educating teachers in this matter may enhance relationships at work and simultaneously enhance environmental factors that contribute to the educators' overall job satisfaction. Ultimately, this could produce positive outcomes for student achievement as teachers work under less stress and develop a better understanding of how stressors can affect their work and their job satisfaction.

There is a lack of understanding of the effects intrinsic factors such as emotional intelligence have on teacher job satisfaction. Emotional intelligence has been linked to organizational values such as leadership, motivation, group work, communication (Birol et al., 2009). Therefore, it is important to examine the relationship between EI and job satisfaction.

Individuals involved in educational policy making and professional preparation should take into consideration the key role teachers play in shaping the lives of children, and administrators should provide teachers with social and emotional skill development that they need to be successful in their educational endeavors. The examination of these two concepts can lead to a better understanding of the impact of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction in elementary educators.

This chapter describes the sample selection of the study, data collection methods, and a discussion of the instruments that were utilized: the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) and the Job Satisfaction Survey (an abbreviated version of the Schools and Staffing Survey, or SASS). The projected research methods for data analysis and interpretation, as well as a summary conclude the chapter.

Research Questions

The following research questions were used in this study:

- 1) What is the level of job satisfaction in relation to gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 2) What is the level of emotional intelligence in relation to gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 3) What is the level of job satisfaction of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 4) What is the level of emotional intelligence of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?

5) What is the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher job satisfaction of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?

Methods

The researcher initiated the research process by completing the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI) models as a prerequisite for obtaining approval from Auburn University's Institutional Review Board. The researcher reviewed several instruments and selected the MSCEIT as the most appropriate instrument to measure emotional intelligence.

After selecting the MSCEIT, the researcher contacted a representative from Multi-Health Systems' Research and Training Division to inquire about obtaining permission to use the MSCEIT V2.0 for dissertation research. In order to acquire permission from MHS, the researcher completed a student research application. The application packet contained an outline of the proposed study, a letter confirming the use of the instrument for research purposes only, and a qualification form signed by the researcher and a supervisor that agreed to oversee the administration of the assessment and assist with interpretation of the results. The packet also included an order form with payment information indicated. The researcher privately funded the study. Results were scored by MHS and sold to the researcher as a dataset in Excel which would contain each respondent's results. The researcher agreed not to disclose individual results and to use the data solely for research purposes.

The instrument to measure Job Satisfaction was adapted from the National Center for Education Statistics' Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS). The researcher contacted the creators of SASS for permission to use a portion of the survey. The spokesperson clarified that the survey was public domain, so additional authorization was not warranted. The survey in its entirety was too lengthy for the current research study, so with the assistance of a professor of

statistics at Auburn University it was gleaned to 20 Likert-type items with an additional opportunity for one written response. The items were entered into Qualtrics: Online Survey Insight & Platform, which would export into SPSS Predictive Analytic Software for analysis and interpretation. A brief section for demographic information was also added to the beginning of the Qualtrics survey to obtain information regarding the participants' gender, marital status, age, education level and years of experience.

After instruments for measuring emotional intelligence and job satisfaction were selected, the researcher created a participant information letter which described the nature and purpose of the study, along with providing a description of the instruments that were used to collect data, and the approximate length of time it would take to complete the instruments. The letter was included as the first page of the Qualtrics survey, and the researcher made plans to have hard copies available to participants per request. Copies of both instruments as well as letters of consent were included in the application packet for university approval.

Once the Auburn University Institutional Review Board for the Use of Human Subjects in Research (IRB) approved the study (See Appendix A), the researcher made plans to seek participants and begin administration of surveys. The researcher also created access cards (See Appendix B), containing a web address to enter demographic information and take the Job Satisfaction Survey assessment in Qualtrics, which was linked to the MSCEIT online assessment. The access cards allowed each participant to be assigned a unique identifier to protect their identity, while enabling the researcher to correlate the responses from the two instruments. The participants were coded using a number scale. The unique identifier was also used as the first and last name on the MSCEIT on-line test. After the participants completed the survey, they were instructed to close their web browser, thus ensuring their responses were

securely stored in the on-line database. Participants were individually debriefed as they departed.

Statistical methods to analyze the data were descriptive and inferential. The anonymous data coded with the participant's unique identifier would be compared each participant's gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience. Based on the research questions, emotional intelligence and job satisfaction were measured against the participants' gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience using multiple regression with a stepwise procedure.

Sample

The sample for this study was selected from elementary educators in the southeast region of Alabama. The sample included male and female teachers, who were at least 19 years old, held a valid teaching certificate in elementary or early childhood education, and currently taught students in kindergarten through sixth grade. Teachers from ten public schools in four different school systems in the southeast region of Alabama were requested to take part in the study. The total number of participants in the study was 185. Of the 185 participants, 170 or 91.8% completed all parts of the study. The Job Satisfaction Survey had a response rate of 96% as 178 participants completed it.

Instrumentation

A demographic question set of was developed to obtain information on participant variables relevant to the study. Participants were asked to enter a unique identifier and then respond to a brief series of questions that pertained to gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience (See Appendix C). These questions were not meant to cause any type of anxiety or stress. These questions were used by the researcher to examine the

relationship between of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction against demographic factors.

Two instruments were used to gather information, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional

Intelligence Test and the Job Satisfaction Survey.

Emotional intelligence was examined using the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) to determine the participant's emotional intelligence level. The abbreviated Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) was used to measure the participant's level of job satisfaction. The MSCEIT is a 141-item performance scale that measures how well respondents perform tasks, rather than asking them for their own personal assessment of their emotional sensitivity. The Job Satisfaction survey is a self-report questionnaire that measures the respondents' level of job satisfaction based on working conditions, level of support, influence in school matters, school safety, and school behavior. An overview of each instrument follows.

Job Satisfaction Survey

Background

The researcher selected a portion of the National Center for Education Statistics Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) to measure teachers' level of job satisfaction. The SASS is a system of related questionnaires that provide descriptive data on the context of elementary and secondary education using a variety of statistics regarding the condition of education in the United States. The SASS system covers a wide range of topics from teacher demand, teacher and principal characteristics, general conditions in schools, principals' and teachers' perceptions of school climate and problems in their schools, teacher compensation, district hiring and retention practices, to basic characteristics of the student population. The purpose of SASS is to obtain information about teachers, such as professional background, teaching field, workload, and opinions about working conditions. The U.S. Census Bureau conducts the survey for the

National Center for Education Statistics of the U.S. Department of Education every three to five years. The last survey was administered during the 2011-2012 school year.

Validity

The Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) was first administered in 1987-88 by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) to provide recurrent information on public and private elementary and secondary schools, teachers, and administrators, especially data on conditions affecting supply and demand for teachers and the characteristics of the teacher force. Since its first implementation, SASS has been administered in six subsequent times. The historical datasets provide a comprehensive, linked database to national estimates for public and private schools, districts, principals, and teachers; state-level estimates for public data. The NCES continually examine the direction, purposes, and uses for SASS for the twenty-first century. Changes to the SASS are made as necessary to keep pace with classroom innovations while maintain the integrity of the instrument. The validity of instrument is maintained by the Bureau of the Census analysts who verify that each item in the questionnaire measures what it is intended to measure.

Reliability

The SASS has proven to be a reliable and consistent tool to measure that is utilized and maintained by the NCES. A strength of the SASS is that has provided samples of public and private school teachers with detailed descriptive information and relational analyses using a large number of variables nearly three decades. Since the current research study encompasses only a small portion of the SASS, the researcher performed a check to ensure that consistency of results across items selected by using a Cronbach's Alpha. The findings showed a reliability statistic of .844 for the abbreviated version of the SASS that was created and utilized in this study.

Therefore, the researcher was able to report the results with confidence that reliability has been maintained (Cronbach's a = .844).

Description

Usability of the SASS, in its entirety, would be questionable for this research study. The original instrument consists of 87 sections with over 30 subsets, and is reported to take an average of fifty-five minutes to complete. The directions are clear; however, the numerous subsets lead to difficult scoring and extensive effort for interpretation. In the current research study, the researcher chose to use an abbreviated portion of the survey that concentrated on Section VII: School Climate and Teacher Attitudes to increase usability. The original section was comprised of 8 headings with subsets totaling at least 56 items. In an effort to increasing usability and focus the research, the researcher created an abbreviated version by selecting 20 items directly related to teachers' job satisfaction, along with one short response.

Participants rated 20 statements using a Likert scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree), whereas 3 (Neither Agree nor Disagree) represented a neutral response.

Additionally, respondents were asked one direct question: If you could start over again, would you become a teacher or not? Three answer choices: yes, no and unsure were provided. If a respondent selected yes they given the prompt: Briefly explain specific aspects that contribute to remaining in the teaching profession. If the participant selected no, their prompt read: Briefly explain specific aspects that attribute to avoidance of the teaching profession. Respondents that were unsure were not given an additional dialog box for an open response.

Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test

Background

Emotional intelligence refers to the processes involved with perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions. The concept gained popularity in 1995 when Goleman published his belief that emotional intelligence could be a better indicator of success in life than one's intelligence quotient. Goleman's claims were not confined to the ability model of emotional intelligence that Drs. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso created as they designed the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). Responses to the MSCEIT measure how well people perform tasks and solve emotional problems. The instrument yields an overall performance level of the participant's emotional intelligence, as well as a more detailed report using a Four-Branch Model of emotional intelligence. According to Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, (2002):

This is the first measure that reports valid scores in each of the four central areas of emotional intelligence: the ability to (1) accurately perceive emotions; (2) use emotions to facilitate thinking, problem solving, and creativity; (3) understand emotions; and (4) manage emotions for personal growth. (p. 1)

Validity

The MSCEIT has four areas of validity that are useful for understanding the instrument. First of all, face validity is concerned with whether a test appears to measure what it is intended to measure. Pusey (2000) analyzed the face validity of the MSCEIT RV1.1 and found an interrater reliability of r=.83. Pusey concluded that the MSCEIT scores demonstrated adequate face validity; however, he noted that it was rather long and that the test might be biased against

non-native English speakers. Pusey also reported that there seemed to be more than one correct answer, which was an accurate account. (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002).

A second type of validity associated with the MSCEIT is content, or sampling, validity. This area of validity pertains to whether the test's items are rationally drawn from the domains that the test is supposed to cover. Each version of the MSCEIT, as well as its precursor, the MEIS, were designed to reference the Four-Branch Model of emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The current model is a further development of the first model of emotional intelligence. (Salovey & Mayer,1990). According to Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, (2002) "it incorporated new literature reviews and considerations to divide the domain of emotional intelligence into four areas of ability: (a) emotional perception, (b) facilitating thought, (c) emotional understanding, and (d) emotional management" (p. 37). The MSCEIT V2.0 contains eight subtasks that sample (two each) from each of the four branches of the 1997 model, thus possessing content validity.

Structural, or factorial validity, is the third type of validity accounted for by the MSCEIT V2.0. According to the authors, structural validity of a particular test refers to the number of things a test measures. The scoring of the MSCEIT V2.0 at a Full-Scale level, two Area levels, and four Branch levels (as well as eight Task levels) is indicative that mathematical models of the test performance are consistent. The consistency was determined by examining the item and task inter-correlations, and analyzing whether latent factors that corresponded to the divisions existed. Confirmatory factor analyses were consistent and supportive of the methods of scoring. "The lineage of tests involved (MEIS, MSCEIT RV1.1, and MSCEIT V2.0) repeatedly indicate that such solutions represent good representations of the subtask interrelations" (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002, p. 37).

Finally, the MSCEIT has predictive validity, a validity that refers to the degree to which a test can predict items of importance. According to the authors, two types of predictive validity are of importance: discriminant validity and criterion validity. Distinctiveness refers to whether a test is different from those that have come before. As there has been proliferation of psychological tests, the importance of distinctiveness has increased. The latter, criterion validity, concerns how likely the instrument is to be predicative of important criterion (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002).

MSCEIT V2.0's distinctiveness has been assessed against by a number of test-to-test correlational studies. At best a low-moderate relation of r=.36 and .38 (n=503 and n=239, respectively) was found with the Army Alpha Vocabulary Scale. Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, (2000) found correlations of approximately r=.05 (n=129) with Raven's progressive matrices. Thus, the MSCEIT intercorrelates minimally with IQ and maintains discriminant validity against IQ tests. "The *ability* design of the MSCEIT V2.0 should render it different from the self-report measures of EI, both because of its focus on EI as an actual intelligence, and also because its unique approach to measuring EI" (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002, p. 38). Typically self-report measures of EI are viewed to assess positive emotionality or affect and are correlated with other measures of positive affect. Brackett and Mayer (2001), found a low correlation of r=.18 (n=201) between the MSCEIT and the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (Bar-On EQ-i). Since the correlation was low, it suggests that the MSCEIT is relatively independent of self-report scales.

Preliminary data suggests that the MSCEIT and its predecessors are potentially useful predictors of real life criteria. Initially, EI may relate occupational groups in that those in areas of social interest are ranking higher of than in the areas of business or engineering. Caruso and

Wolfe (2001) found that students with high levels of EI showed a trend toward preferring occupations in the *Social* area on the Holland Self-Directed Search, r=14, and a negative relation with preference for *Enterprising* careers r=-.16, p<.05. Secondly, EI has proven to be useful in customer service and in team working situations. Rice (1999) studied the EI of customer service teams (11 leaders, 26 teams; 164 individuals) and found the average EI of a team significantly predicted higher customer service claims in adjustments (r=.46, p<.01). EI appears to inform the quality of relationships an individual has with others, encouraging secure attachment and an environment with signs of relatedness. Formica (1998) found that high EI individuals expressed a great deal more relatedness to their environment, including being more likely to work as a caregiver, and display pictures of family members r=.30, p<.01. Finally, higher EI appears to be indicative of lower levels of problematic behavior such as smoking, substance abuse, interpersonal violence, and knife and gun ownership. Brackett (2001) studied 332 college students using life space data and the MSCEIT V2.0. He found that higher levels of EI meant lower levels in problem areas such as fighting, vandalism, and substance abuse in males with rs between -.18 and -.38, p<.05.

Reliability

The MSCEIT used a standardized sample to assess its internal consistency. The MSCEIT has full scale reliability of .91, with reliabilities of .90 (experiential) and .85 (strategic). Brackett & Mayer (2001) found a test-retest reliability for the full-scale MSCEIT V2.0 of r=.86, with n= 62. Branch score reliabilities range from .71 to .89. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso reported that the MSCEIT subtask scores are somewhat less reliable and "users should be cautious about interpreting test scores at the subtask level, and place greater emphasis on the Branch, Area, and Total scores" (p. 35). Since the current research study utilized the Four Branch Model of the

MSCEIT, the researcher performed a check to ensure consistency of results across the Four Branches of the MSCEIT using Cronbach's Alpha. The findings indicated a reliability statistic of .753. Therefore, the researcher was able to report the results with confidence that reliability has been maintained (Cronbach's a = .753).

Description

The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) was selected over other measures of emotional intelligence because it is an ability-based measure of emotional intelligence instead of a self-report measure of emotional intelligence. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) stated, "Ability measures have the advantage of representing an individual's performance level on a task. By contrast, self-report measures are filtered through a person's self-concept and impression management motives" (p. 405). The MSCEIT is an ability based assessment that measures how well people perform tasks and solve emotional problems. The instrument was developed from an intelligence-testing standpoint that was substantially influenced by scientific understanding of emotions and their functions. The MSCEIT was normed on a sample of 5,000 respondents across North America. The MSCEIT, and its predecessors, have been studied with individuals with varying ethnic backgrounds in the United States, Australia, Canada, Israel, France, and Great Britain. Results suggest that the MSCEIT has cross-cultural applicability and utility (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002).

The MCEIT scores are reported with an average score of 100 and a standard deviation of 15. If a person obtains a MSCEIT score around 100, then they are in the average range of emotional intelligence. Likewise, if a person receives a score of 115, then they are one standard deviation above average, while a person scoring 85 would be considered one standard deviation

below the mean. The MSCEIT compares individuals again the normative sample, not with the general population (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002).

The MSCEIT produces an overall Total EIQ score, two Area EIQ scores, Branch EIQ scores, and eight Tasks scores. There are also three supplemental scores: a Scatter score, a Positive-Negative Bias score, and an omission rate. An overall Total Emotional Intelligence Quotient (EQI) is derived from a compilation of the scores from the Four Branch Model shown in the Table 1.

O. MCCEIT C.

Table 1

Overview of MSCEIT Scores				
		Total EIQ (Over	rall Score)	
Type of Score	Hierarchy of Specific Scores			
Area Scores	Experiential EIQ		Strategic EIQ	
Branch	Perceiving	Facilitating	Understanding	Managing
Scores	Emotions	Thought	Emotions	Emotions
	EIQ	EIQ	EIQ	EIQ
Task Scores	Individual Task Scores			
	Faces			
	Pictures			
		Sensations		
		Facilitation		
			Blends	
			Changes	
				Emotion Management
				Emotional Relations
Supplemental	Scatter Score, Positive-Negative Bias Score, Omission Rate			
Scores				

Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2002) noted that the scores from the MSCEIT are an approximate result and can change overtime as the skills and abilities that produce those scores either improve or deteriorate with changing factors in the participant's life. There is a likelihood that if the

participant were to retest, their score could vary slightly. However, skill changes occur gradually, and it is possible that several months could pass before any noticeable changes occur. There are two scoring options for the MSCEIT. One option indicates a respondent's correctness on the test due as judged by a general consensus criterion. The second option indicates a respondent's correctness on the test as judged by an expert criterion. For this research, the researcher chose to use the general consensus scoring method.

Data Collection

The researcher obtained permission from the Auburn University Institutional Review Board for the Use of Human Subjects in Research (IRB) (See Appendix A). The written consent detailed the project abstract, purpose, participant selection, and methodology of the study. Once the approval was granted, participants were sought. In order to obtain participants, the researcher solicited public school superintendents and principals in the southeast region of Alabama.

Details of the study were explained to the superintendents, principals, and teachers.

Participants were provided with an online version of the Participant Information Letter (See Appendix D) on the first screen of the Qualtrics Job Satisfaction Survey. Hard copies of the Participant Information Letter were also available to the participants. If a participant decided to participate in the study, the data they provided served as his/her agreement to do so. The Participant Information Letter described the nature and purpose of the study, along with providing a description of the instruments that were used to collect data, and the approximate length of time it would take to complete the instruments.

The investigator sought permission and approval from the superintendents of each school system that participated in the study, as well as the principals of each school that agreed to participate in the study. Participating school systems included both mix of county and city

public school systems in the southeast region of Alabama. The instructions (See Appendix E) for taking the on-line assessments were read aloud to the participants. The participants were given an access card containing a web address to enter demographic information and take the Job Satisfaction Survey assessment in Qualtrics, which was linked to the MSCEIT online assessment. The participants were also given a unique identifier to protect their identity, while enabling the researcher to correlate the responses from the two instruments. The participants were coded using a number scale. The unique identifier was also used as the first and last name on the MSCEIT on-line test.

The participants were notified that there would be no financial compensation for participating in the study, and individual results from the study were not disclosed. The participants were given an opportunity to ask questions before, during, and after the administration of the instruments. The researcher distributed the survey to participants at a time that was agreed upon by the principal of each school and times for survey distribution varied by site. After the participants completed the instruments, they closed their web browser. The results were stored in an on-line database. Participants were individually debriefed as they departed.

The data were coded with the participant's unique identifier, so that when the data was analyzed it could be compared with each participant's gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience. Based on the research questions, emotional intelligence and job satisfaction were measured against the participants' gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience. Some schools received strong encouragement to participate in the study from their principal, while others seemed to free from persuasion and/or administrative supervision.

Data Analysis

The data were initially analyzed using descriptive statistics in SPSS. The means and standard deviations for total job satisfaction, emotional intelligence, gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of experience were reported. Inferential statistics for also completed using SPSS. The researcher first looked at correlations among the independent variables of the four branches of emotional intelligence, gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of experience as they affected the dependent variable of job satisfaction.

Summary

In this chapter, the research questions and methods were described. This chapter also identified the sample used in the study. Instrumentation using the Job Satisfaction Survey and the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) were described along with their reliability and validity estimates. Data were collected in accordance with Auburn University Institutional Research Board. Statistical procedures for data analysis include descriptive statistics to report sample size, frequencies, and standard deviations. Inferential statistics were used to determine whether or not a relationship existed between job satisfaction and emotional intelligence of individuals, as well as possible correlations between job satisfaction and emotional intelligence based on gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of experience using a multiple regression with stepwise procedure.

Chapter 4. FINDINGS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher job satisfaction for teachers within public elementary schools in southeast Alabama. According to Goleman (1995), teachers can benefit by implementing emotional literacy programs that boost children's academic achievement by helping them become better listeners that are more focused and less impulsive in the classroom setting. Teaching emotional intelligence enhances the schools' ability to teach because students are more cooperative and responsible (Goleman, 1995).

Emotional Intelligence (EI) testing measures the ability to perceive emotions in oneself and others. EI also assists individuals to make choices about how to respond to a given situation. This skill is important as teachers would benefit by studying emotional intelligence. Educating teachers in this matter may enhance relationships at work and simultaneously enhance environmental factors that contribute to the educators' overall job satisfaction. Ultimately, this could produce positive outcomes for student achievement as teachers work under less stress and develop a better understanding of how stressors can affect their work and their job satisfaction.

There is a lack of understanding of the effects intrinsic factors such as emotional intelligence have on teacher job satisfaction. Emotional intelligence has been linked to organizational values such as leadership, motivation, group work, communication (Birol et al., 2009). Therefore, it is important to examine the relationship between EI and job satisfaction.

Individuals involved in educational policy making and professional preparation should take into consideration the key role teachers play in shaping the lives of children, and administrators should provide teachers with social and emotional skill development that they need to be successful in their educational endeavors. The examination of these two concepts can lead to a better understanding of the impact of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction in elementary educators.

This chapter presents the findings of the research study. Data regarding each of the research questions will be presented and analyzed. The analyses will be followed by an explanation. The SPSS statistical system was used for the computation in the analysis of the data.

Research Questions

The following research questions were used in this study:

- 1) What is the level of job satisfaction in relation to gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 2) What is the level of emotional intelligence in relation to gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 3) What is the level of job satisfaction of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 4) What is the level of emotional intelligence of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?

5) What is the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher job satisfaction of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?

Description of Sample

The sample for this study was selected from certified elementary educators in the southeast region of Alabama. The sample included male and female teachers, who were at least 19 years old, held a valid teaching certificate in elementary or early childhood education, and currently taught students in kindergarten through sixth grade. One hundred eighty-five teachers from ten public schools in four different school systems within the southeast region of Alabama comprised the sample for this study. Of the 185 participants, 170 or 91.8% completed all parts of the study. Missing data elements or abandonment of the study was reflected in 15 participants. The Job Satisfaction Survey had a response rate of 96% as 178 participants completed it. There were 8 participants that took the Job Satisfaction Survey, but neglected to complete the entire MSCEIT, thus producing a rate of 8% abandonment.

Gender of Participants

The participants in this study were predominately female (96.2%) with males comprising 3.8%. Distribution of participants in this study by gender is provided in Table 2.

Table 2

Distribution of Study Participants by Gender

Gender	n	%
Female	178	96.2
Male	7	3.8

N = 185

Marital Status of Participants

The survey sample was comprised of a majority of married respondents (75.7%), with single participants representing 24.3%. Distribution of participants in this study by marital status is provided in Table 3.

Table 3

Distribution of Study Participants by Marital Status

24.3
75.7

N = 185

Age of Participants

The participants in this study ranged in age from 22 to 68. The mean age was 37.89 with the largest percentage of the sample (33%) consisting of participants who were 30-39 years of age. Distribution of participants in this study by age is provided in Table 4.

Table 4

Distribution of Study Participants by Age

Age Ranges	n	%
<29	48	25.9
30-39 40-49 >50	61	33.0
40-49	43	23.2
>50	33	17.8

N = 185

Education Level of Participants

The participants in this study were all college graduates who were certified in elementary or early childhood education. Over half (51.4%) of participants in this study held a master's level certification. The highest degree level of participants was education specialist.

Distribution of participants in this study by education level is provided in Table 5.

Table 5

Distribution of Study Participants by Education Level

Degree Earned	n	%
Daghalan	96	16.5
Bachelor	86	46.5
Master	95	51.4
Education Specialist	4	2.2

N = 185

Experience Level of Participants

The participants reported experience levels ranging from 0 to 42 years. The mean years of experience for the participants was 11.94, and the mode was 11 years, which accounted for 19 participants (10.2%). Fifty-five of the study participants reported 5 years of teaching experience or less. The largest group was comprised of 69 participants (37.3%) who reported having 6-15 years of experience, 47 participants reported a range experience from 16-25 years; and 14 participants reported having 25 or more years of teaching experience. Distribution of participants in this study by experience level is provided in Table 6.

Table 6

Distribution of Study Participants by Experience Level

Years of Experience	n	%
-5	55	29.7
<5 6-15 16-25 >25	69	37.3
16-25	47	25.4
>25	14	7.6

N = 185

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction scores were obtained using an abbreviated version of the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) that was originally developed by the National Center for Education Statistics. The SASS is a system of related questionnaires that provide descriptive data on the context of elementary and secondary education to policymakers regarding a variety of statistics about the condition of education in the United States. The SASS system covers a wide range of topics from teacher demand, teacher and principal characteristics, general conditions in schools, principals' and teachers' perceptions of school climate and problems in their schools, teacher compensation, district hiring and retention practices, to basic characteristics of the student population. In the current research study, the researcher chose to use an abbreviated portion of the survey that concentrated on Section VII: School Climate and Teacher Attitudes to increase usability. The original section was comprised of 8 headings with subsets totaling at least 56 items. The abbreviated version was created by selecting 20 items directly related to teachers' job satisfaction, along with one short response. Participants rated 20 statements using a Likert scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree), whereas 3 (Neither Agree nor Disagree) represented a neutral response. Additionally, respondents were asked one direct question: If you could start over again, would you become a teacher or not? Three answer choices: yes, no and

unsure were provided. If a respondent selected yes they were asked to briefly explain specific aspects that contribute to remaining in the teaching profession. If the participant selected no, they were asked to briefly explain specific aspects that attribute to avoidance of the teaching profession. Respondents that selected unsure were not given an additional dialog box for an open response.

In scoring the Job Satisfaction Survey, five of the 20 items were reverse coded so that negatively worded indicators would be accurately represented when summed. The possible score ranged from 20-100. A higher score indicated that a participant was more satisfied with his or her job.

Job satisfaction scores for the 178 participants resulted in range of 57. The minimum score was 41 and the maximum 98. The median value for job satisfaction scores was 70, and the mean was 70.58 with a standard deviation of 10.75. The most frequently occurring score was 67, with 12 (6%) of participants scoring at the mode value. The mean and standard deviation for the Job Satisfaction Survey is provided in Table 7.

Table 7

Mean and Standard Deviation for Job Satisfaction

	M	SD
Job Satisfaction	70.58	10.75

N = 178

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence was measured using the MSCEIT V2.0. Responses to the MSCEIT measure how well people perform tasks and solve emotional problems. The instrument yields an overall performance level of the participant's emotional intelligence, as well as a more

detailed report using a Four-Branch Model of emotional intelligence. According to Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, (2002):

This is the first measure that reports valid scores in each of the four central areas of emotional intelligence: the ability to (1) accurately perceive emotions; (2) use emotions to facilitate thinking, problem solving, and creativity; (3) understand emotions; and (4) manage emotions for personal growth. (p. 1)

The MSCEIT produced an overall Total EIQ score, two Area EIQ scores, four Branch EIQ scores, and eight Tasks scores. There were also three supplemental scores: a Scatter score, a Positive-Negative Bias score, and an omission rate.

The MSCEIT scores were computed by calculating empirical percentiles and then positioning them on a normal curve where the average equaled 100 with a standard deviation of 15. The Total EIQ score, the two Area EIQ scores, and the four Branch EIQ scores were obtained the same way. The overall Total EIQ score for the sample, the two Area EIQ scores, and the Branch EIQ scores are reported in Table 8.

Table 8

MSCEIT Scores for Emotional Intelligence

	N	M	SD
Experimental	170	96.35	17.11
Perceiving	184	92.53	30.40
Facilitating	170	95.17	15.96
Strategic	171	93.04	11.39
Managing	171	91.89	11.07
Experiencing	171	94.35	12.73
Total	170	94.04	14.68

Compared to the normative data set, the sample scored lower than average EI. The average Total EIQ scores for this study ranged from 36.89 to 130.04 with a mean of 94.04 (SD 14.68). The Total EIQ was derived from 170 respondents who completed the survey in its entirety. The total Experiential EIQ Area scores ranged from 33.17 to 144.37 with a mean of 96.35 (*SD*=17.11). The total Strategic EIQ Area scores ranged from 42.8 to 116.79 with a mean of 93.04 (*SD*=11.39).

Results by Research Question

Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the collected data. The research questions used descriptive statistics to report findings regarding the level of job satisfaction and emotional intelligence according to the participants' gender, marital status, age, education level, and experience level. Further analysis with inferential statistics were conducted using a multiple regression with stepwise procedure to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and emotional intelligence with regard to gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience. The results of the study by research question follow.

1) What is the level of job satisfaction in relation to gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?

The results of the study indicated that females (70.67) have a slightly higher job satisfaction than males (68). Levene's Test for Equality of Variance resulted in a p-value of .864. Therefore equal variances were assumed. The one-way ANOVA F(1,177) = .414, p = .521 demonstrated no statistical difference between males and females. The mean, standard deviation, and results from the one-way analysis of variance for the Job Satisfaction Survey in relation to gender is provided in Table 9.

Table 9

Mean, Standard Deviation, and One-Way Analysis of Variance for Job Satisfaction and Gender

	n	M	SD	F(1,177)	p	η^2
Male Female	7 171	68 70.67	9.27 10.81	.414	.521	.002

N = 178

With regard to marital status, the study indicated that participants who are married reported an average job satisfaction of 70.7, while those that were single's job satisfaction was 70.14. Levene's Test for Equality of Variance resulted in a p-value of .042. Therefore equal variances were not assumed. The one-way ANOVA F(1,177) = .085, p = .771 demonstrated no statistical difference between single or married groups. The mean, standard deviation, and one-way analysis of variance for the Job Satisfaction Survey in relation to marital status is provided in Table 10.

Table 10

Mean, Standard Deviation and One-Way Analysis of Variance for Job Satisfaction and Martial Status

	n	M	SD	F(1,177)	p	η^2
Single Married	42 136	70.14 70.7	8.41 11.4	.085	.771	<.001

N = 178

According to age, the youngest participants (<29 years) were the most satisfied with their jobs (73.17). Participants in the age range of 30-39 had the next highest level of job satisfaction (70.54). Participants in the age range of 40-49 reported the lowest satisfaction level (68.12), while the oldest participants' satisfaction level was slightly higher (69.84). Levene's Test for Equality of Variance resulted in a p-value of .481. Therefore equal variances were assumed. The

one-way ANOVA F(3, 174) = 1.712, p = .166 demonstrated no statistical difference between the four age groups. The mean, standard deviation, and one-way analysis of variance for the Job Satisfaction Survey in relation to age is provided in Table 11.

Table 11

Mean, Standard Deviation and One-Way Analysis of Variance for Job Satisfaction and Age

	n	М	SD	F(3,174)	p	η^2
<29	48	73.17	9.27			
30-39	57	70.54	10.21	1 710	166	020
40-49	41	68.12	11.4	1.712	.166	.029
>50	32	69.84	12.39			

N = 178

The results of the study indicated that participants with higher education levels were the least satisfied with their job (66.5), while the difference between bachelor (70.57) and master (70.75) was slight. Levene's Test for Equality of Variance resulted in a p-value of .634. Therefore equal variances were assumed. The one-way ANOVA F(2, 175) = .297, p = .774 demonstrated no statistical difference between the three education level groups. The mean, standard deviation, and one-way analysis of variance for the Job Satisfaction Survey in relation to education level is provided in Table 12.

Table 12

Mean, Standard Deviation, and One-Way Analysis of Variance for Job Satisfaction and Education Level

	n	М	SD	F(2,175)	p	η^2
Bachelor	83	70.57	10.42			
Master	91	70.75	10.92	.297	.744	.003
Education Specialist	4	66.5	15.59			

N = 178

The results of the study indicated that participants with less than five years of experience had the highest levels of job satisfaction (72.41). Individuals with over 25 years of teaching experience reported the second highest level of job satisfaction (72.23). The participants in the mid-career ranges 6-15 years and 16-25 years were the least satisfied with their job, reporting job satisfaction levels of 69.41 and 69.58 respectively. Levene's Test for Equality of Variance resulted in a p-value .331. Therefore equal variances were assumed. The one-way ANOVA F (3, 174) = 1.014, p= .388 demonstrated no statistical difference between the age groups. The mean, standard deviation, and one-way analysis of variance for the Job Satisfaction Survey in relation to years of experience is provided in Table 13.

Table 13

Mean, Standard Deviation, and One-Way Analysis of Variance for Job Satisfaction and Experience Level

	n	M	SD	F(3,174)	p	η^2
<5	54	72.41	9.21			
6-15	66	69.41	11.83	1.014	200	017
16-25	45	69.58	10.64	1.014	.388	.017
>25	13	72.23	11.26			

N = 178

2) What is the level of emotional intelligence in relation to gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?

The results of the study indicated that males (94.25) have a slightly higher emotional intelligence level than females (87.25). Levene's Test for Equality of Variance resulted in a p-value of .762. Therefore equal variances were assumed. The one-way ANOVA F(1,168) = 1.104, p = .295 demonstrated no statistical difference between males and females. The mean,

standard deviation, and one-way analysis of variance for the Total Emotional Intelligence, as measured by the MSCEIT, in relation to gender is provided in Table 14.

Table 14

Mean, Standard Deviation, and One-Way Analysis of Variance for Total Emotional Intelligence and Gender

	n	М	SD	F(1,168)	p	d
Male Female	5 165	94.25 87.25	13.55 14.7	1.104	.295	-0.5

N = 170

With regard to marital status, the study indicated that participants who are married reported an average Total Emotional Intelligence of 95.24, while those who were single reported an emotional intelligence level of 90.15. Levene's Test for Equality of Variance resulted in a p-value of .057. Therefore equal variances were assumed. The one-way ANOVA F(1,168) = 3.739, p = .055. Therefore, there was no statistical difference between single and married groups. The mean, standard deviation, and one-way analysis of variance for Total Emotional Intelligence, as measured by the MSCEIT, in relation to marital status is provided in Table 15.

Table 15

Mean, Standard Deviation, and One-Way Analysis of Variance for Total Emotional Intelligence and Martial Status

	n	M	SD	F(1,168)	p	d
Single	40	90.15	17.74	2.720	055	0.22
Married	130	95.24	13.45	3.739	.055	-0.32

N = 170

According to age, the participants in the age range of 30-39 had the highest Total Emotional Intelligence Level (96.67). Participants in the age range of less than 29 years of age were the next highest with an average of 95.12. Participants in the age range of 50 years or older

reported the lowest Total Emotional Intelligence level (89.13), while the participants in the age range of 40-49 years of age were the third highest (93.08). Levene's Test for Equality of Variance resulted in a p-value of .017. Therefore equal variances were not assumed. The one-way ANOVA F(3, 166) = 1.854, p = .139 demonstrated no statistical difference between the four age groups. The mean, standard deviation, and one-way analysis of variance for the Total Emotional Intelligence, as measured by the MSCEIT, in relation to age is provided in Table 16. Table 16

Mean, Standard Deviation, and One-Way Analysis of Variance for Total Emotional Intelligence and Age

	n	М	SD	F(3,166)	p	η^2
<29 30-39	45 53	95.12 96.67	10.54 12.91	1.051	100	
40-49 >50	42 30	93.08 89.13	17.77 17.34	1.854	.139	.032

N = 170

The results of the study indicated that participants with highest education level had the lowest Total Emotional Intelligence (85.29). The difference between bachelor's (94.53) and master's (94) degrees was slight. Levene's Test for Equality of Variance resulted in a p-value of .468. Therefore equal variances were assumed. The one-way ANOVA F(2, 167) = .752, p = .473 demonstrated no statistical difference between three education level groups. The mean, standard deviation, and one-way analysis of variance for Total Emotional Intelligence, as measured by the MSCEIT, in relation to education level is provided in Table 17.

Table 17

Mean, Standard Deviation, and One-Way Analysis of Variance for Total Emotional Intelligence and Education Level

	n	M	SD	F(3,166)	p	η^2
Bachelor	79	94.53	13.17			
Master	87	94	15.7	.752	.473	.009
Education Specialist	4	85.29	21.35			

N = 170

The results of the study indicated that participants with experience levels of 6-15 years had the highest levels of Total Emotional Intelligence (95.59). Individuals with less than 5 years of teaching experience reported the second highest level of Total Emotional Intelligence (95.21). The participants in the late mid-career range of 16-25 years were the third highest in Total Emotional Intelligence (93.13), while those in the experience range of 25 years or more were the lowest in Total Emotional Intelligence scores (84.65). Levene's Test for Equality of Variance resulted in a p-value of .324. Therefore equal variances were assumed. The one-way ANOVA F (3, 166) = 2.072, p = .106 demonstrated no statistical difference between the four levels of teaching experience groups. The mean, standard deviation, and one-way analysis of variance for Total Emotional Intelligence in relation to years of experience is provided in Table 18.

Table 18

Mean, Standard Deviation, and One-Way Analysis of Variance for Total Emotional Intelligence and Experience Level

	n	M	SD	F(3,166)	p	η^2
<5	50	95.21	11.41			
6-15	62	95.59	16.37	2.072	106	026
16-25	46	93.13	14.31	2.072	.106	.036
>25	12	84.65	16.95			

N = 170

3) What is the level of job satisfaction of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?

The level of job satisfaction of the 178 elementary educators in public school systems represented in this study was 70.58. The job satisfaction scores for the 178 participants resulted in range of 57. The range of possible scores was 20 to 100; however in the current study, the minimum score was 41 and the maximum 98. The researcher divided the possible score outcomes into four categories (20-40 = very dissatisfied, 40-60 = dissatisfied, 60-80 = satisfied, and 80-100 = very satisfied). Therefore, the findings in this study indicate that overall the teachers were satisfied. The median value for job satisfaction scores was 70. The mean and standard deviation for the Job Satisfaction Survey is provided in Table 19.

Table 19

Mean and Standard Deviation for Job Satisfaction

	M	SD
Job Satisfaction	70.58	10.75

N = 178

4) What is the level of emotional intelligence of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?

The Total Emotional Intelligence level of the 170 elementary educators who completed the survey in its entirety ranged from 36.89 to 130.04 with a mean of 94.04 and a standard deviation of 14.68. The mean fell within 90-99 which indicates a low average score according to Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2002). The mean and standard deviation for Total Emotional Intelligence, as measured by the MSCEIT, is provided in Table 20.

Table 20

Mean and Standard Deviation for Total Emotional Intelligence

	М	SD
Total Emotional Intelligence	94.04	14.68

N = 170

5) What is the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher job satisfaction of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?

The MSCEIT yielded an overall performance level of the participant's emotional intelligence, as well as a more detailed report using a Four-Branch Model of emotional intelligence. According to Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, (2002):

This is the first measure that reports valid scores in each of the four central areas of emotional intelligence: the ability to (1) accurately perceive emotions; (2) use emotions to facilitate thinking, problem solving, and creativity; (3) understand emotions; and (4) manage emotions for personal growth. (p. 1)

The MSCEIT produced an overall Total EIQ score, two Area EIQ scores, four Branch EIQ scores, and eight Tasks scores.

A simple regression was used to examine the relationship between Total Emotional Intelligence, as measured by the MSCEIT, and Job Satisfaction, as measured by the abbreviated version of SASS. There was no significance reported between Total EIQ Scores and Job Satisfaction F(1,163)=3.784, p=.053. Further analysis was conducted by comparing the Two Area Scores of EIQ (Experiential EIQ and Strategic EIQ) with Job Satisfaction. There was no significant findings in either Area Score F(2,162)=2.108, p=.125. Pearson correlation analysis was conducted using the Branch Scores of emotional intelligence, including perceiving

emotions, facilitating thought, understanding emotions, and managing emotions with Job Satisfaction. The results indicated that there was statistical significance found in the fourth Branch. The means, standard deviations, and correlations for Job Satisfaction and four Branches of Emotional Intelligence are provided in Table 21.

Table 21

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Job Satisfaction and MSCEIT Scores for the Four Branches of Emotional Intelligence

	M	SD	1	2	3	4
Job Satisfaction	70.57	10.75	.036	.039	.015	.223**
1. Perceiving Emotions	92.53	30.40	1.00			
2. Facilitating Thought	95.17	15.96	.449***	1.00		
3. Understanding Emotions	91.89	11.07	.358***	.424***	1.000	
4. Managing Emotions	94.35	12.73	.355***	.594***	.521***	1.000

p < .05*, p < .01**, p < .001***

Finally, a multiple regression with stepwise procedure was conducted to examine the relationship among the four Branches of Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction. Statistical significance was found in the teachers' ability to manage emotions F(1,163) = 8.504, p = 004, and 50% of variance in Job Satisfaction can be accounted by Managing Emotions. For every point Managing Emotions increases, Job Satisfaction score would increase by .223 points.

The study found no significant relationship between job satisfaction (as measured the abbreviated SASS and emotional intelligence as measured by the MSCEIT) based on gender, marital status, age, education level, or years of experience.

Conclusion

The findings in this study indicate that females had higher levels of job satisfaction than males. There was only a slight difference between job satisfaction scores regarding marital status. The findings indicate that the younger participants had higher job satisfaction scores, and that participants with a bachelor or master's degree tend to be more satisfied with their jobs. With regard to age, those who are entering the profession with less than five years of experience or exiting the profession with 25 years or more of service reported the highest levels of job satisfaction. Emotional intelligence scores were highest among male participants. Also, married participants scored the highest in emotional intelligence. As did those in the age range of 30-39 years. Findings indicate that the educators who had the least experience were more likely to exhibit higher levels of emotional intelligence.

V. SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECCOMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher job satisfaction for teachers within public elementary schools in southeast Alabama. According to Goleman (1995), teachers can benefit by implementing emotional literacy programs that boost children's academic achievement by helping them become better listeners that are more focused and less impulsive in the classroom setting. Teaching emotional intelligence enhances the schools' ability to teach because students are more cooperative and responsible (Goleman, 1995).

Emotional Intelligence (EI) testing measures the ability to perceive emotions in oneself and others. EI also assists individuals to make choices about how to respond to a given situation. This skill is important as teachers would benefit by studying emotional intelligence. Educating teachers in this matter may enhance relationships at work and simultaneously enhance environmental factors that contribute to the educators' overall job satisfaction. Ultimately, this could produce positive outcomes for student achievement as teachers work under less stress and develop a better understanding of how stressors can affect their work and their job satisfaction.

There is a lack of understanding of the effects intrinsic factors such as emotional intelligence have on teacher job satisfaction. Emotional intelligence has been linked to organizational values such as leadership, motivation, group work, communication (Birol et al., 2009). Therefore, it is important to examine the relationship between EI and job satisfaction.

Individuals involved in educational policy making and professional preparation should take into consideration the key role teachers play in shaping the lives of children, and administrators should provide teachers with social and emotional skill development that they need to be successful in their educational endeavors. The examination of these two concepts can lead to a better understanding of the impact of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction in elementary educators.

Chapter 1 introduced the study and provided the rationale for the research to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among teachers. Chapter 2 contained a relevant review of the literature pertaining to emotional intelligence and teacher job satisfaction. The methods used to conduct the study, including the instrumentation of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) and the Job Satisfaction Survey were addressed in Chapter 3. Research findings and results were presented in Chapter 4. The final chapter of this study will provide a summary of the study, as well as implications, and recommendations for future studies. This chapter is divided into the following sections: research questions, acknowledgement of limitations, a summary of the study, and implications related to job satisfaction and emotional intelligence. It ends with recommendations for future research.

Research Questions

The following research questions were used in this study:

1) What is the level of job satisfaction in relation to gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?

- 2) What is the level of emotional intelligence in relation to gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 3) What is the level of job satisfaction of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 4) What is the level of emotional intelligence of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?
- 5) What is the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher job satisfaction of elementary educators in public school systems in southeast Alabama?

Acknowledgement of Limitation of the Study

This study was conducted using a sample of elementary educators who taught in ten public schools in four different school systems in the southeast region of Alabama. The sample consisted of 185 participants. All of the 185 participants were 19 years of age and older. Each one of the participants held a valid teaching certificate in elementary or early childhood education and currently taught students in kindergarten through sixth grade; therefore generalization beyond this region should be undertaken with caution.

Summary

The significance of this study includes helping teachers and school administrators evaluate and implement appropriate strategies to increase teacher job satisfaction. Emotional intelligence lays the foundation for a wide range of skills that can increase job satisfaction and enhance learning. The examination of these two concepts, job satisfaction and emotional intelligence, can lead to a better understanding of factors that could increase teacher retention, improve student achievement, and enhance the overall culture of the school.

The sample of this study consisted of 185 elementary educators. The instruments used were the Job Satisfaction Survey, an abbreviated version of the National Center for Education Statistics' Schools and Staffing Survey, and the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test to measure the four branches of emotional intelligence. A demographic questionnaire was administered to gather age, marital status, gender, education level, and years of teaching experience. The majority of the study was female (96.2%) and 3.8% of the population was male. The mean age was 37.89 with the highest number of teachers classified as being 30-39 years of age. Over half (51.4%) of the sample was comprised of teachers who held a master's level certification. The average years of experience was 11.94, with 37.3% of teachers reporting 6-15 years of service.

The purpose of this study was to determine if emotional intelligence had any effect on teacher job satisfaction of public elementary educators in the southeast region of Alabama.

Because there was no statistically significant relationship found between Total Emotional Intelligence, as measured by the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence test (MSCEIT), and overall job satisfaction as measured by the abbreviated version of the National Center for Education Statistics' Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), the researcher conducted a second multiple regression with a stepwise procedure and entered the four Branch Scores into the model to measure their effect on job satisfaction. There was a statistical significance in the fourth Branch of Emotional Intelligence which evaluated the educators' ability to manage emotions. The study found no statistical significant relationship between job satisfaction (as measured the abbreviated SASS and emotional intelligence as measured by the MSCEIT) based on gender, marital status, age, education level, or years of experience.

Implications

This research study examined the relationship between job satisfaction and emotional intelligence, the level in which educators are able to perceive, use, understand, and manage their emotions. Perhaps assessing the levels of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction in teachers could enhance relationships at work and simultaneously enhance environmental factors that contribute to the educators' overall job satisfaction. Ultimately, this could produce positive outcomes for student achievement as teachers work under less stress and develop a better understanding of how stressors can affect their work and their job satisfaction. Such an environment would have a dramatic, positive impact on the health of workers and their families. Implications from this study could also impact teacher preparation coursework, classroom management techniques, and lead to an increase in teacher retention.

The Job Satisfaction Survey, an abbreviated version of the National Education Statistics' Schools and Staffing Survey, and the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test could be used to aid teachers and administrators in evaluating the relationship between job satisfaction and emotional intelligence. Findings suggest that teachers' ability to manage their emotions has a statistically significant impact on their overall job satisfaction. Administrators, lead teachers, and preservice teacher education programs would benefit from implementing professional development opportunities and training sessions to nurture and develop teachers' emotional intelligence levels, specifically the area of how teachers manage their emotions. Raising awareness of emotional intelligence among preservice teachers would be beneficial. Once educators enter the teaching field, the time for professional development is limited. It is idealistic to believe that all teachers yearn for the knowledge transmitted during training sessions. In reality, the demands and responsibilities of teaching often interfere with teachers'

willingness to learn. During the school year, finding time to schedule professional development opportunities is at best challenging; however training during the summer months can also be inopportune. Perhaps finding time to discuss emotional intelligence levels and their impact on overall job satisfaction during teacher preparation courses would be advantageous.

Emotional intelligence could have implications on teachers' classroom management techniques and the learning environment they create. Teachers that exhibit high levels of emotional intelligence are more likely to understand the importance of sharing ownership of the classroom with their students. The children and adults that interact within the walls of such classrooms collaborate respectfully with one another. Such places are truly unique learning environments where teachers and students create a community of learners. Both the teachers and students are viewed as participants in the learning process and each acquires new learning from the other. This environment is a stark contrast to the view that only teachers are capable of transmitting knowledge in the classroom.

The findings of this study indicate specifically that teachers who are able to manage emotions tend to report higher levels of overall job satisfaction. Perhaps that is because those educators are able to judge the appropriate times to feel a specific feeling, rather than repressing it. They are also more inclined to use their feelings to make wise decisions. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2002) asserted that individuals who are able to manage their emotions are adept at working with feelings in a judicious way and are less impulsive. The ability to manage emotions successfully requires awareness, acceptance, and use of emotions in problem solving situations. Since emotional intelligence is malleable and capable of being developed, it would be beneficial for teachers and administrators to seek ways to develop their collective emotional intelligence.

Bocchino (1999) contended that emotional intelligence can be nurtured in a person, as they

develop emotional literacy skills throughout their lifetime. Such skills enable individuals to weigh the consequences of behaviors and encourage resourceful responses. As Ginott (1972) stated:

I have come to the frightening conclusion that I am the decisive element. It is my personal approach that creates the climate. It is my daily mood that makes the weather. I possess tremendous power to make life miserable or joyous. I can be a tool of torture or an instrument of inspiration, I can humiliate or humor, hurt or heal. In all situations, it is my response that decides whether a crisis is escalated or de-escalated, and a person is humanized or de-humanized. If we treat people as they are, we make them worse. If we treat people as they ought to be, we help them become what they are capable of becoming. (p. 15)

Teachers are indeed the decisive element in the classroom. Teachers with higher levels of emotional intelligence create classroom environments that support and encourage effective and efficient student learning (Powell & Kusuma-Powell, 2010). These teachers are committed to learning and finding the best ways to facilitate learning within their classroom. Dweck (2006) presented the idea of a growth mindset, the notion that it is possible to increase your intelligence through effort. She suggested that an individual's intelligence is not predetermined or fixed and that people are capable of learning new skills and concepts throughout their lives. The current research study suggests that enhancing awareness of teachers' ability to manage emotions and recognizing the need for educators to develop their repertoire of techniques to manage emotions in constructive ways could increase job satisfaction. In doing so, teachers must be willing to embrace new strategies for developing their emotional intelligence.

Mraz and Hertz (2015) suggested that the traits of empathy, flexibility, persistence, resilience, and optimism are essential in developing and maintaining a mindset for learning in children as well as adults. Bocchino (1999) discussed the importance of anchoring as a technique to create desirable emotional states. He believed that the skilled use of a conditioned response enabled educators to learn to associate specific emotional behaviors to specific cues in order to trigger the appropriate resource state for the task at hand. Administrators, teacher leaders, and preservice educators who participate in professional development activities to cultivate elementary educators' ability to overcome frustrations and setbacks in the classroom will enhance the level of job satisfaction, while strengthening their ability to manage and regulate emotions. Such discoveries could alleviate teacher retention issues as teachers become increasingly satisfied with their profession.

Recommendations for Future Research

Additional studies comparing job satisfaction and emotional intelligence are needed.

Derived from the findings of this study, future research might include:

- The instruments, the abbreviated Schools and Staffing Survey for Job Satisfaction and the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) should continue to be tested in other regions outside of southeast Alabama.
- 2. Replicate this study using a larger sample size of elementary educators in a wider range of geographical settings throughout the United States.
- Replicate this study to include other school systems with varying types of educators such as those who teach special education, middle school, high school, and/or specific content areas.

- 4. Replicate this study using different instruments that measure emotional intelligence in comparison with other measures of teacher job satisfaction, self-efficacy, or burn-out.
- 5. Gather additional research to examine the relationship of teachers' level of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction and/or teacher retention.
- 6. Gather additional research to further clarify the approaches that are most effective to enhance emotional intelligence in teachers.

The current study indicated that an educator's ability to manage emotions has a statistically significant relationship to the teacher's job satisfaction. According to Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2002) the ability to manage emotions successfully requires awareness and acceptance, wherein one allows emotions to interact with thought and thoughts to include emotions. Teachers' words and actions are of greater consequence than those of most other professions (Nieto, 2003). Perhaps more elementary educators can find the appropriate balance.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

IRB Protocol Form





AUBURN UNIVERSITY

" TODID.EGE OF EDUCATION"

EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS, LEADERSHIP AND TECHNOLOGY

(NOTE: DO NOT AGREE TO PARTICIPATE UNLESS AN IRB APPPROVAL STAMP WITH CURRENT DATES HAS BEEN APPLIED TO THIS DOCUMENT.)

INFORMATION LETTER

for a Research Study entitled

"Examining the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction among Elementary Education Educators"

You are invited to participate in a research study to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among elementary education educators. The study is being conducted by Kasandra Kraeger Granger under the direction of Dr. Maria M. Witte, Professor, in the Auburn University Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Technology. You are invited to participate because you are a certified elementary or early childhood educator who currently teaches students in kindergarten through sixth grade. The sample includes both male and female instructors in the southeast region of Alabama, who are 19 years of age or older.

What will be involved it you participate? If you decide to participate in this research study, you will be asked to complete the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) for testing emotional intelligence and a Job Satisfaction Survey. The Job Satisfaction Survey will be administered in Qualtrics, and it will take 3-5 minutes to complete. The MSCEIT will also be administered via the Internet. The participants will be given a web address, online access code, and a password in order to take the instrument online, and it will take approximately 30 minutes to complete. The total time commitment will be approximately thirty-five minutes.

Are there any risks or discomforts? You should not encounter any reasonable risks if you decide to participate in this research study because there are no known risks or discomforts.

Are there any benefits to yourself or others? If you participate in this study, please don't expect to receive any personal benefits. All benefits will be for research and body of knowledge.

Will you receive compensation for participating? There is no compensation for participating in this study. Participating is voluntary.

Are there any costs? If you decided to participate, you will not have to pay anything.

Page 1 of 2 4036 Haley Center, Auburn, AL 3684-5221; Telephone: 334-844-4460; Fax: 334-844-3072

www.auburn.edu

If you change your mind about participating, you can withdraw at any time during the study. Your participation is completely voluntary. If you choose to withdraw, your data can be withdrawn as long as it is identifiable. Your decision about whether or not to participate or to stop participating will not jeopardize your future relations with Auburn University.

Any data obtained in connection with this study will remain anonymous. A number will be assigned to you, and it can be located on the handout that contains the web address to take the online surveys. That number is to be entered as the unique identifier on Qualtries survey and in the first and last name section on the online MSCEIT instrument. Information collected through your participation may be used to fulfill an educational requirement, published in a professional journal, and/or presented at a professional meeting. If so, none of your identifiable information will be included.

If you have questions about this study, please ask them now. If you have questions later, contact Kasandra Kraeger Granger at kgk0004@tipermail.auburn.edu or Dr. Maria M. Witte at wittemm@auburn.edu. A copy of this document is yours to keep.

For more information about your rights as a research participant you, may contact the Auburn University Office of Research Compliance or the Institutional Review Board by phone (334)-844-5966 or e-mail at IRBodmin@auburn.edu or IRBChain@auburn.edu.

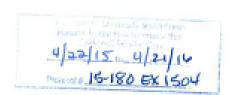
HAVING READ THE INFORMATION PROVIDED, YOU MUST DECIDE IF YOU WANT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT. IF YOU DECIDE TO PARTICIPATE, THE DATA YOU PROVIDE WILL SERVE AS YOUR AGREEMENT TO DO SO. THIS LETTER IS YOURS TO KEEP.

Kasandra Kraeger Granger Investigator's signature	April 1, 2015 Date
Kasandra Krneser Granger Print Name	
Dr. Maria M. Witte Co-Investigator	

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4036 Haley Center, Auburn, Al. 3684-5321; Telephone: 334-844-4460; Fax: 334-844-3072

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APPENDIX B

Access Card

Survey Site: http://tinyurl.com/oe94yga

Unique Identifier: XXX

Code: XXXXX-XXX-XXX

Password: XXXXXXX

Please put the 3-digit Unique Identifier in both boxes for your FIRST and LAST name on the second survey.

FIRST NAME= XXX LAST NAME= XXX

Thank you for your time and effort!

APPENDIX C

Demographic Question Set and Job Satisfaction Survey

Job Satisfaction Survey

Please answer the following questions as accurately as possible. All responses will be anonymous. The results will be compiled to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among elementary educators.

By clicking the next button, you provide your consent to participate in this study. Thank you for your participation. What is your unique identifier code? _____ What is your gender? O Male **O** Female What is your marital status? O Single O Married **O** Other _____ What is your age? _____ What is the highest degree you earned? **O** Bachelor O Master O Education Specialist O Doctorate How many years have you taught in the education field? _____ How many years have you taught in K-6? _____

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The principal lets me know what is expected of me.	0	0	0	0	0
The school administration's behavior toward me is supportive and encouraging.	0	0	0	0	0
I am satisfied with my current teaching salary.	•	•	•	•	•
The level of student misbehavior in this school interferes with my teaching.	•	•	•	•	•
I receive a great deal of support from parents for the work I do.	•	•	•	•	0

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I have the necessary instructional materials to do my job effectively.	•	•	•	•	•
Routines and duties interfere with my teaching.	O	O	0	0	0
My principal enforces rules and backs me up when I need it.	0	0	0	O	0
Rules for student behavior are consistently enforced by all teachers at my school.	•	•	•	•	•
I share similar beliefs and values with my colleagues regarding our school's mission.	•	•	•	•	•

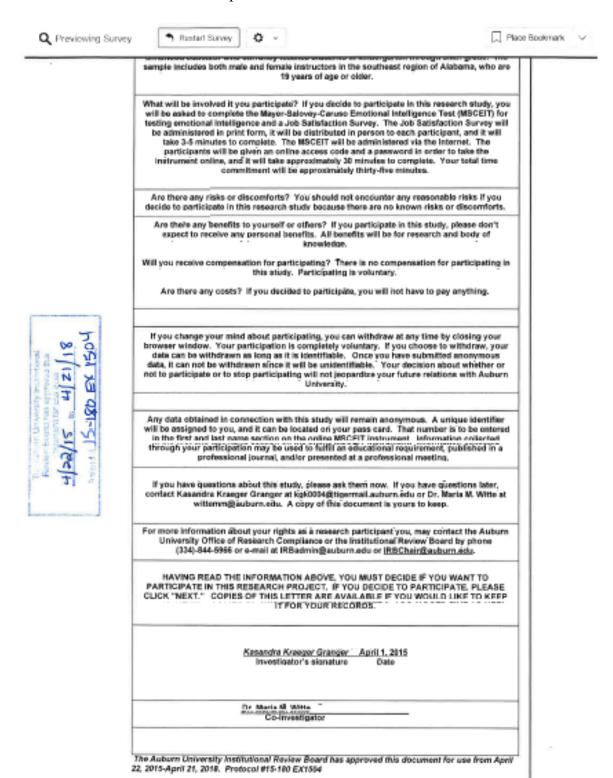
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am evaluated fairly in this school.	0	0	0	0	0
I feel there is a great deal of cooperative effort among colleagues.	•	•	•	•	•
The staff members are often recognized for a job well done.	0	•	•	0	0
I worry about the security of my job because of my students' assessment performance.	•	•	•	•	•
Content standards have a positive influence on my satisfaction with teaching.	•	•	•	•	•

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am satisfied with my class size(s).	0	0	0	0	0
I am given the support I need to teach all of my students.	•	•	•	•	•
I sometimes feel it is a waste of time to try to do my best as a teacher.	•	•	•	•	•
I am generally satisfied with being a teacher at this school.	•	•	•	•	•
I find it difficult to agree with school policies that relate to employees.	0	0	0	0	0

If you could start over again, would you become a teacher or not?
O yes O no O unsure
If you could start over again, would you become a teacher or not?
O yes O no If no is selected Briefly explain specific aspects that attribute to avoidance of the teaching profession.
If you could start over again, would you become a teacher or not?
O yes O no If yes is selected
Briefly explain specific aspects that contribute to remaining in the teaching profession.

APPENDIX D

Participant Information Letter



APPENDIX E

Instructions for Completing the Instruments

Instructions for completing the Job Satisfaction Survey and the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)

At the top of your access card, you will see a web address. Please enter the web address as it appears on the access card. Below the web address you will see your unique identifier code. You will enter your unique identifier code at the beginning of the Job Satisfaction Survey and again as your FIRST and LAST name before beginning the MSCEIT.

You will be asked to answer a few demographic survey items before taking the Job Satisfaction Survey. Both questionnaires will be completed online. The Job Satisfaction Survey should only time 3-5 minutes to complete. The instructions are printed at top of your screen. The MSCEIT will require the use of an online access code and password in order to take the instrument online and it will take about 30-45 minutes to complete. Remember you will enter your unique identifier code as your FIRST and LAST name when prompted. This will ensure that your responses will be anonymous.

Instructions for completing the Job Satisfaction Survey

The Job Satisfaction Survey consists of a brief demographic section, followed by twenty Likert scale items. You will indicate the extent you agree with each of the following statements using Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neither Agree nor Disagree, Agree, or Strongly Agree. Additionally, you will be asked one direct question and (depending on your response) given the opportunity to provide a short narrative. The Job Satisfaction Survey should take about 3-5 minutes to complete. You will then be automatically directed to the MSCEIT.

Instructions for completing the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)

The MSCEIT is designed to measure the abilities that make up emotional intelligence. The test will assess your ability to perceive emotions, facilitate thought, understand emotions, and manage emotions.

You will be asked to solve a series of emotional problems. The problems are arranged in eight clusters, labeled from "A" to "H." The questions involve identifying emotions in faces and pictures, comparing emotional feelings to other sensations such as those of heat and colors, and many others. The MSCEIT will take about 30-45 minutes to complete.

Instructions for how to complete the MSCEIT will appear once you have entered the code and password from your access card.

Code: XXXXX-XXX-XXX

Password: XXXXXXX

Once you have logged in, be sure to enter your unique identifier in the boxes for your FIRST and LAST name, as shown on your access card.

FIRST NAME: XXX

LAST NAME: XXX

If you have any questions or concerns, please let me know. When you finish, you may close your web browser. Thank you for your time and effort. Your responses will remain anonymous and used to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and emotional intelligence. I appreciate your willingness to assist in my research study.

APPENDIX F

Letter of Consent

SCHOOL LETTERHEAD

April 2, 2015

Institutional Review Board c/o Office of Research Compliance 115 Ramsay Hall Auburn University, AL 36849

Dear IRB Members,

After reviewing the proposed study, "Examining the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction among Elementary Education Educators," presented by Ms. Kasandra Granger, a graduate student at Auburn University, I have granted permission for the study to be conducted at XXXX Elementary School.

The purpose of the study is to determine if there is a relationship between teachers' levels of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction with regard to gender, marital status, age, education level, and years of teaching experience. The primary activity will be completion of online surveys, one to measure job satisfaction and another to measure emotional intelligence. Only kindergarten-sixth grade teachers with a valid elementary or early childhood education certificate will be able to participate.

I understand that the online survey distribution will occur during the final nine weeks of the 2014-2015 school year. Ms. Granger will be allowed to distribute online access codes during a faculty meeting and/or teachers' planning period. This is a one-time event, with a total time commitment of less than 40 minutes. I expect that this project will end not later than May 29, 2015. Ms. Granger will contact teachers and collect data at XXXX Elementary.

I understand that Ms. Granger will receive consent for all participants and confirm that she has the cooperation of the classroom teachers. Ms. Granger has agreed to provide to my office a copy of all Auburn University IRB-approved, stamped consent documents before she recruits participants on campus. Any data collected by Ms. Granger will be kept confidential and will be stored online in the Qualtrics and MSCEIT databases. Ms. Granger has also agreed to provide to us a copy of the aggregate results from her study.

If the IRB has any concerns about the permission being granted by this letter, please contact me at the phone number listed below.

Sincerely,

XXXXXX, Principal

XXXXXX Elementary School