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Teacher Emotional Intelligence and Best Practices for Classroom Management

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Teacher Emotional Intelligence and Best Practices for Classroom Management

A Dissertation by

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ABSTRACT

Teacher Emotional Intelligence and Best Practices for Classroom Management

by Juanita E. Kelley (Dixon)

Purpose. The purpose of this phenomenological study was to understand how middle school teachers describe their use of the four elements of emotional intelligence (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) to reduce student behavioral referrals. In addition, it was the purpose of this study to discover the barriers and benefits to teacher use of the elements of emotional intelligence (EI).

Methodology. This study utilized a qualitative approach to understand how middle school teachers describe their use of the four elements of EI to reduce student behavioral referrals. In addition, a qualitative approach was utilized to discover the barriers and benefits to teacher use of the elements of EI. A sample of middle school teachers from San Bernardino and Los Angeles Counties participated through in-depth interviews. The data were coded to describe similarities and differences in perceptions of how participant teachers described their use of the four elements of EI to reduce the number of written office referrals.

Findings: Analysis of interview data resulted in 13 themes. Nine key findings were identified based on the frequency of references by study participants. Building relationships with students was considered important, building trust between teacher and student is important as well as establishing structure in the classroom and clear oral and written communication. Reported benefits of EI included better relationships with students, higher levels of student engagement, and more trusting relationships. Reported barriers included student home lives and limited training for EI.

Conclusions: The 9 key findings were summarized as 5 conclusions. Teachers in this study stressed the importance of building relationships, using the four skills of EI to build better relationships, engaging students through EI, and establishing trust with students. Teachers also need additional training to hone their EI skills.

Recommendations: Further research of outlier teachers at all grade levels across the U.S. should be conducted.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

All students deserve to learn in a safe classroom environment free from distractions. Similarly, teachers deserve to serve in a safe classroom environment free from distractions. Ratcliff, Jones, Costner, Savage-Davis, and Hunt (2010) reported both students and teachers suffer in a classroom where misbehavior occurs. Misbehavior, according to Wong (2009), Canter (2010), and Ratcliff et al. (2010) was a problem as it caused teachers and students to become distracted from reaching their respective goals of teaching and being taught.

The misuse of provided technology and illicit talking are two behaviors distracting students from learning (Borgia & Myers, 2010; Erdogan et al., 2010). Technology is misused when students are not on assignment-related websites, which distracts them and others nearby. This takes the focus off the teacher and lesson. Erdogan et al. (2010) reported illicit talking included yelling out answers, talking when not called upon, arguing with the teacher, and talking with neighboring students. Students in classrooms where this type of misbehavior occurs receive a significantly decreased amount of academic instruction as it causes the teacher to move away from the lesson to address the misbehavior (Ratcliff et al., 2010).

Classroom management is the foundation of a successful classroom (Canter, 2010; Garrett, 2015; Wong, 2009). Canter (2010) and Wong (2009) reported a teacher who successfully used a variety of techniques to maintain order in the classroom created an environment where students could focus and were attentive, on task, and academically productive during class. This was not so for classrooms where behavior-misconduct was mismanaged (Canter, 2010; Wong, 2009). Students who display behavioral difficulties

early in their academic careers are at risk of developing lasting behavioral problems (Webster-Stratton, 2015). Canter (2010) and Wong (2009) agreed a well-behaved class required teachers beginning the school year teaching classroom behavior expectations. However, each day students decide to exhibit higher levels of self-discipline in some classrooms while displaying lack of self-control in others, thereby causing the teacher to write office referrals for misbehavior (Canter, 2010; Peterson, 2007; Zehr, 2011). Over time, the displayed behaviors result in lower levels of effective classroom discipline, increased numbers of written office referrals, decreased student achievement, increased levels of teacher emotional frustration, and greater teacher burnout (Canter, 2010; Peterson, 2007; Zehr, 2011). Student misbehavior undermines the efforts schools make to equip students with 21st century skills designed to prepare them to enter society as productive citizens from cradle to career.

Research showed implementation of behavior support systems alone may not be enough (Jones, Bailey, & Jacob, 2014; Ramana, 2013; Sanders, 2009). Questions remained as to why students exhibited higher levels of self-discipline in some classrooms while displaying lack of self-control in others, and why some teachers wrote fewer office referrals than others (Peterson, 2007; Zehr, 2011). Jones et al. (2014) noted a teacher's social-emotional intelligence (EI) was essential to classroom management. However, limited research described what teacher EI looked like in the classroom, how using EI related to prevention of misbehavior and distraction, or whether EI could be developed in classroom teachers. As such, more information is needed about EI and how it relates to classroom management.

Background

Classroom Management

According to Canter (2010); Landrum, Lingo, and Scott (2011); and Marzano (2013), effective classroom management is most important for student success. Marzano (2013) and Canter (2010) asserted students could not perform in a poorly managed, chaotic classroom. Behavior problems occurring more frequently included defiance, bullying, talking out of turn, and being out of a seat without permission (Anderson & Spaulding, 2007). Emmer, Evertson, and Worsham (2003) reported teachers who started the school year placing an emphasis on classroom management, focusing on room arrangement, and implementing rules and procedures had enveloped the important components of classroom management. Yet, dysfunction in classrooms persisted causing teachers to spend increased instructional time focused on managing behavior (Anderson & Spaulding, 2007; Simonsen, Sugai, & Negron, 2008).

Thomas Gordon (1975), world renown clinical psychologist and Nobel Peace Prize nominee, developed a model for classroom management called the Gordon Model. Gordon (1975) designed this model to foster high levels of cooperation, motivation, and interaction among parents, students, and teachers for increased classroom management through conflict resolution, which utilized active listening and played out through a series of I messages. An I message is a way of communicating that places emphasis on the beliefs and feelings of the speaker and diverts attention away from the characteristics the speaker has of the listener (Gordon, 1975; Winter, 2003). Teachers whose classrooms exemplify this model of classroom management spend ample time practicing and perfecting these strategies through repetitious role-play (Gordon, 1975).

Gordon was not the only researcher to develop a model for classroom management. Additional styles developed more than 40 years ago and currently used by teachers include authoritarian, authoritative, indifferent, and laissez-faire (Canter, 2009; Edwards & Whatts, 2010; Marzano & Marzano, 2003). Marzano and Marzano (2003) reported the authoritarian style of classroom management set up a dictatorship where the teacher reigned supreme and little if any interaction occurred. Edwards and Whatts (2010) and Canter (2009) reported the authoritative classroom contained a balance of control, interaction, and rigor. Classrooms where the management style was indifferent or laissez-faire had few expectations for discipline, interaction, or rigor (Canter, 2009; Marzano & Marzano, 2003). Marzano (2013) reported the best style to use depended on the type of class, but the teacher maintained classroom discipline through effective interactions and consistent rigor for academic achievement.

Renkie et al. (2013) uncovered teachers with higher levels of referrals and behavior problems also reported higher levels of emotional exhaustion. Koruklu, Feyzıoğlu, Özenoğlu-Kıremıt, and Aladağ (2012) reported teachers with higher levels of exhaustion also had increased levels of teacher burnout. Teacher's showing signs of burnout displayed high levels of exhaustion and anxiety, expressed feelings of overwhelm, and actively sought isolation. Platsidou (2013) reported burnout syndrome arose in teachers because of interactions with students with emotional and behavioral disorders. Jennings and Greenberg (2009) reported teachers with high levels of stress had difficulty maintaining a disciplined classroom.

According to the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (2016), all prospective teachers must enroll in and successfully pass a classroom management and

discipline course as part of the credentialing process. Dickey (2012) reported teachers ineffective at classroom management contributed to lower achievement of at-risk populations. Marzano and Marzano (2003) stated to build positive classroom dynamics, teachers need to use a combination of research-based strategies, appropriate levels of dominance and cooperation, and maintain awareness of student needs.

Best Practices

Curwin, Mendler, and Mendler (2008) maintained that "much has been written about discipline over the years" (p. 10). Programs are often introduced and discarded when the next new program emerges (Curwin et al., 2008). Canter (2010) asserted educators in today's classrooms utilize best practices for classroom management. Canter (2010); Curwin et al. (2008); and Marzano and Marzano (2003) emphasized the need for all teachers to be equipped educationally and psychologically sound best practices for classroom management. Lane, Menzies, Ennis, and Bezdek (2014) advocated the use of best practices that addressed both class-wide and individual misbehavior.

Despite ongoing professional development, mentoring programs, and in-services, teachers continue spending increased amounts of time on classroom management and discipline (Anderson & Spaulding, 2007; Canter, 2010; Simonsen et al., 2008). School-wide strategies designed to establish and improve individual behavior of all students are often adopted and implemented, yet behavior misconduct persists (Fallon, McCarthy, & Sanetti, 2014). Although the core principles of school-wide programs call for all staff members to know and effectively teach appropriate behavior to all children, intervene early, use a multi-tier model of service delivery, use research-based scientifically validated interventions, monitor progress to inform interventions, use data, and use

assessment, not all teachers are successful at implementation (Canter, 2010; Fallon et al., 2014).

Research Based Strategies

Research supported the position that students demonstrate increased achievement in classrooms where misbehavior is effectively managed (Canter, 2010; Curwin et al., 2008). Curwin et al. (2008) declared research-based strategies for effective management of misbehavior in classrooms were based on sound educational, psychological, and commonsense principles and included developing a comprehensive classroom discipline plan, preventing behavior and management problems from occurring, stopping misbehavior while maintaining student dignity, resolving problems with repeat offenders, reducing stress in the classroom, and establishing special rules and consequences for misbehavior that work.

Backes and Ellis (2003) and Lemov (2010) suggested the use of strategies that address misbehavior in the timeframe it occurs and not allow it to spill over into the next day. This strategy allows both student and teacher to begin each day with a fresh start. When public correction was warranted, Lemov (2010) suggested teachers make it short, to the point, and followed-up with positive momentum to minimize the amount of time spent on negative behaviors. Other examples of research-based strategies include treating all students with respect and picking your battles carefully (Backes & Ellis, 2003; Canter, 2009; Lemov, 2010; Marzano, 2013).

Lemov (2010) and Kauchak and Eggen (2012) encouraged teachers to maintain classroom management using least invasive forms. At the top of the list is nonverbal intervention, followed closely by positive group correction, anonymous individual

correction, and private correction. According to Lemov (2010), using these techniques aid in reaching the goal of 100% compliance.

Emotional Intelligence

Mayer and Salovey (1990) were among the first to influence the scholarly introduction of EI, also referred to as EQ. Focusing on thought interaction and emotion, Mayer and Salovey (1990) defined EI as the ability to monitor other people's feelings as well as their own. Travis Bradberry and Jean Greaves (2009) later defined EI as one's ability to recognize and understand emotions in others as well as oneself. In addition to monitoring feelings and emotions, researchers also believed individuals with high EI could discern and subsequently use information gathered to guide thinking, actions, and interactions (Bradberry and Greaves, 2009; Mayer & Salovey, 1990). Baltachi and Demir (2012) define EI as a person's ability to recognize self and others' feelings, to motivate self, and to manage the feelings within oneself and in relationships.

With applications in both the business and educational arenas, Bradberry and Greaves (2009) reported the power of EI was groundbreaking. Thousands of businesses all over the world after using the Emotional Intelligence Appraisal developed by TalentSmart reported positive change in decision-making, relationship building, leadership, and organizational success (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). As groundbreaking as EI was considered, research showed a low percentage (36%) of individuals tested were able to accurately identify emotions as they occurred, establishing the need for deliberate practice (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), individuals with high EI could use this awareness to manage behaviors and relationships more effectively. Platsidou (2010) stated evidence showed EI directly related to better

judgment and success in academic, social, personal, and occupational settings. Research supported higher EI helped leaders such as principals and district personnel be more effective, but Jennings and Greenberg (2009) and Emmer and Stough (2001) noted the need to focus on teacher EI. Jennings and Greenberg (2009) indicated school districts assumed teachers came equipped with EI to professionally handle all levels of interactions with colleagues, parents, and students. They further reported EI training was rarely part of teacher credentialing programs for pre-service teachers and ongoing professional development for existing teachers was lacking (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

Emotional Intelligence Tests

Several tests to measure EI were developed over the years. Currently three types of EI tests exist, ability EI, trait EI, and mixed EI. Chan (2002) and Śmieja, Orzechowski, and Stolarski (2014) described ability EI assessments as those based upon performance criteria and measured emotional development. The Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SEIT) and the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) are examples of an ability test. The SEIT contains 33 items focused on appraisal and expression of emotion, regulation of emotion, and utilization of emotion (Schutte et al., 1998) whereas the MSCEIT contains 141 items focused on the four branches of EI (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003).

A second type of EI test is trait EI. The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEI-Que) developed Petrides (2009) is a self-report inventory covering the sampling domain of trait EI. The assessment is comprised of 153 items measuring 15 facets, 4 factors, and global trait EI. According to Petrides (2011), trait EI assessments

focus on a person's perception of their own emotional ability. Petrides (2011) reported trait EI theory had advantages in certain situations, such as matching a person to a particular job. Petrides (2011) further maintained trait assessments measure they do not assess a person's skill, intelligence, or competencies.

The third type of EI test is mixed EI. Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner, and Salovey (2006) reported the mixed model of EI refers to an assessment that mix attributes such as self-esteem and optimism into the ability model. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2008) reported variables included in mixed EI assessments related closer to social skills and other areas of personality than EI directly.

Differences exist between ability EI, trait EI, and mixed EI assessments. Each assessment measures different attributes worded in a specific manner (Mayer et al., 2008). Mayer et al. (2008) reported mixed EI assessments were typically formatted using "I" statements with true or false response options. Perez, Petrides, and Furnham (2000) reported ability assessments, like the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS), test the ability to perceive, identify, understand, and work with emotion and typically measured maximal performance.

Bradberry and Greaves (2009) reported the significance of EI touched all aspects of one's life. Testing EI and using the results to manage behavior and make personal decisions are advantageous for individuals and businesses alike (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Libbrecht and Lievens (2012) reported ability EI assessments aided businesses with respect to hiring personnel. Bradberry and Greaves (2009) reported EI assessments aided individuals with respect to personal relationships. Whether assessed through ability EI, trait EI, or mixed EI, the research maintained the significance of EI for individuals

and businesses alike using strategies to harness emotions put themselves in a position to succeed (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009; Libbrecht & Levens, 2012; Mayer et al., 2008; Perez et al., 2000; Petrides, 2011).

Emotional Intelligence and Education

To combat misbehavior in the classroom, teachers are tasked with using research-based strategies. Even with documentation of success in passing the course and completion of professional development on research-based strategies for classroom management, some teachers are successful at implementing classroom management strategies that address misbehavior and others are not. Bradberry and Greaves (2009) shared education, experience, knowledge, and intellectual power alone were not adequate predictors to explain why some individuals succeeded. Dickey (2012) and Friedman (2014) agreed greater emphasis needs to be placed upon EI in the educational arena.

Jennings and Greenberg (2009) reported the concept of EI is important. Jones et al. (2014) considered classroom management and EI related. Jones and Bouffard (2013) reported managing emotions, dealing with conflicts, focusing, and working cooperatively were skills both students and teachers needed to learn. Jones et al. (2014) reported the results of a small, nonrandomized study showed teachers and students benefited from using strategies designed to improve EI; however, this was a small study and not generalizable to a larger population. More research is needed.

Problem Statement

Studies on EI exist, as do studies on classroom management, but no studies could be found that examined the relationship between the two. Thus, a gap exists in the current research related to teacher EI and classroom management strategies used by teachers with the fewest written referrals for misbehavior.

The need for high-performance learning in public schools is critical for continual progress, supports student learning, and grows the nation's success at home and abroad (Caron, 2011). Businesses advocate for employees highly trained in creativity, cooperative learning, critical thinking, and communication (Canter, 2010; Caron, 2011). For students to experience success in the 21st century classroom, teachers must exhibit and maintain effective classroom management (Canter, 2010; Marzano, 2013). In addition to districts' heightened focus on 21st century skills, teachers are tasked with effective presentation of the newly adopted Common Core State Standards.

To achieve high student performance in all these new curriculum areas, it is important to maintain effective classroom management (Canter, 2009; Marzano & Heflebower 2011; Marzano & Marzano, 2003). When classrooms lack effective management, both teachers and students suffer (Anderson & Spaulding, 2007). Without effective classroom management, a vicious cycle of misbehavior tied to low achievement is perpetuated (Anderson & Spaulding, 2007; Canter, 2010; Marzano, 2013). The California Department of Education (CDE, 2015) reported low achievement perpetuated low test scores, increased levels of truancy and absenteeism, increased dropout rates, and lower graduation rates. The shift in education, highlighting a greater focus on 21st century skills, calls for deeper levels of collaboration and critical thinking (Davila, 2016; Marzano & Marzano, 2003). Teachers who maintain well-managed classrooms spend more time focused on academic instruction, which Marzano and Heflebower (2011) believed helped students keep pace in a fast-paced world. Even as teachers are tasked with maintaining classroom management, they are responsible for maintaining the emotional climate in the classroom as well.

Groves, McEnrue, and Shen (2008) advanced the idea EI could be developed in leaders. Experts agree teachers are leaders, but the bulk of research involving educational leadership and EI focused on training school principals and district-level administrators (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Tamblin & Simmons, 2009). Therefore, more research needs to be conducted on teacher EI and its relationship to effective classroom management.

Bradberry and Greaves (2009) wrote education, experience, knowledge, and intellectual power were not adequate predictors to explain why some teachers were successful with implementation of best practices for classroom management, having fewer written office referrals for misbehavior compared to others. Dickey (2012) and Friedman (2014) reported greater emphasis was being placed upon EI in the educational arena. As such, Weisberg, Goren, Domitrovich, and Dusenbury (2013) developed social-emotional programs for adults and children to learn the skills needed to understand and manage emotions. Although this program is gaining popularity and promotes social-emotional learning for children and adults, more research is needed to determine the relationship between EI and classroom management practices.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to understand how middle school teachers describe their use of the four elements of EI (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) to reduce student behavioral referrals. In addition, it was the purpose of this study to discover the barriers and benefits to teacher use of the elements of EI.

Research Questions

Central Question

The central research question guiding this study was: How do middle school teachers describe their use of the four elements of EI (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) to reduce behavior referrals in their classrooms?

Sub Questions

1. What barriers do middle school teachers describe they experience in their use of the four elements of EI?
2. What benefits do middle school teachers describe they experience in their use of the four elements of EI?

Significance of the Problem

This qualitative study was important because it attempted to understand the phenomenon of how middle school teachers with the lowest number of written office referrals for behavior misconduct experience EI strategies and what factors facilitate or hinder the success of their classroom management. Freedman (2007) shared EI skills were foundational for high-performing students and classrooms. Canter (1989, 2003) and Marzano and Marzano (2003) declared it was impossible for teachers to maintain a high-performing classroom where students achieved academic success without effective classroom management. With changes in education, stress and anxiety levels rise (Andersen, Levinson, Barker, Kiewra, 1999). Chang (2009) cited teacher emotions about student misbehavior in the classroom was the root cause of increased stress and anxiety, which in turn motivated teachers to transfer schools or leave the profession. The Alliance

for Excellent Education (2005) reported nearly half a million teachers left the profession annually, resulting in losses of $2.2 billion dollars each year in recruiting, training, and mentoring new staff. This affected low-achieving schools the most, creating equity problems where effective teachers were opting for higher-performing schools. This study was important because it helped identify which branches of EI were associated with effective classroom management and had a positive effect on lowering teacher anxiety in relation to classroom management. This study filled a gap as no similar studies in the current body of research related to this question.

Exploration into the phenomenon of how middle school teachers with the lowest number of written office referrals for behavior misconduct experience EI strategies and what factors facilitate or hinder the success of their classroom management is important and has far reaching benefits (Ramana, 2013). Higher education, district-level personnel, school administrators, and teachers could use the findings of this study. Colleges and universities that offer teacher credentialing courses could modify their programs to include EI in the classroom management and discipline course. Findings from this study could be of value in designing teacher professional development; school districts could use EI assessments to inform professional development needs, hiring practices, and teacher retention. School site administrators could use the findings to offer continuing education opportunities for teachers. Teachers could use the findings to improve student teacher relations, student achievement, and classroom management.

Definitions

Theoretical Definitions

Emotional Intelligence (EI). "The ability to manage the impact of emotions on our relationships with others" (Walton, 2012, p. 4).

Relationship Management. "Ability to use your awareness of your own emotions and those of others to manage interactions successfully" (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009, p. 44).

Self-Awareness. "Your ability to accurately perceive your own emotions in the moment and understand your tendencies across situations" (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009, p. 24).

Self-Management. "Ability to use your awareness of your emotions to stay flexible and direct your behavior positively" (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009, p. 32).

Social Awareness. "Ability to accurately pick up on emotions in other people and understand what is really going on with them" (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009, p. 38).

Operational Definitions

Accountability. An obligation or willingness to accept responsibility for one's actions.

Behavioral Referral. The result or consequence of student misconduct where the student is written up on a referral and sent to the office.

Delimitations

This study was delimited to four school districts in southern California, and one middle school in each of the districts. The study was also delimited to tenured teachers within those schools.

Organization of the Study

The remainder of this study is organized into four chapters, references, and appendices. The literature review is contained in Chapter II and involves EI and best practices for classroom management. Chapter III describes the methodology and research design of the study. Also contained in this chapter is information about the population and sample, details of data collections, and a description of data analysis techniques. Chapter IV presents findings and interpretation of the data. Chapter V provides a summary of the research, conclusions, and recommendations for action and further research.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Chapter II presents a review of the literature related to emotional intelligence (EI) and classroom management. It begins with a brief review of literature addressing the goal of schools. Next, schoolwide discipline and discipline strategies are investigated. Then information related to classroom management is presented. Finally, a presentation of classroom management, effective classroom management, and the concept of EI is presented. A summary of the literature review is also provided.

The Goal of Schools

Throughout the history of education in America, the goal was to educate students (Counts, 1978; Dewey, 1976; Fallace & Fantozzi, 2007; Hutchins, 1969; Terrance, 2011). As colonists migrated to the new world for religious freedom, the goal of schools during this era focused on literacy for religious indoctrination (Cremin, 1970; Peterson, 1983). Peterson (1983) reported education during this time was extended to individuals who could pay for it and took place in churches, schools, and libraries on a voluntary basis. As American civilization progressed, the goal of schools evolved to reflect the complexities of the changes in culture and society (Bills, 2009; Cremin, 1970; Semel & Sadovnik, 2008).

No longer strictly an agricultural society, the goal of schools began to shift toward education to meet the needs of a society transformed by immigrants, improved transportation, and industrialization by educating students to enter the workforce trained with a specific skill (Bills, 2009). Dewey (1976) founded the pragmatic movement and was a firm believer in a democratic society, advocating for the progressive movement in education. Dewey (1976) argued schools had a responsibility to move beyond merely

meeting the demands of a workforce and believed the role of schools was to keep pace with changes in society by educating students and teaching them how to live. He further maintained schools had a responsibility to provide hands-on learning. Dewey (1976) advocated for schools to present students with enriching experiences to stimulate critical thinking and foster individual success in their present reality. Today's schools maintain similar goals. According to Pheifer (2014), the goal of schools in 21st century public education is to prepare students for college or career upon attaining a high school diploma. Pheifer (2014) also reported despite numerous descriptions of the goal of schools, a common thread was the preparation of dutiful citizens capable of meaningfully contributing to a democratic society.

Schoolwide Discipline

Schools continuously face discipline issues (Brown & Beckett, 2006; Musu-Gillette, Zhang, Wang, Zhang, & Oudekerk, 2017). The National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES, 2016) cited student harassment, bullying, verbal abuse of teachers, gang violence, acts of disrespect for teachers, and widespread disorder in classrooms as examples of discipline problems at school. According to Musu-Gillette et al. (2017), in 2013-14, about 58% of public schools recorded one or more incidents of a physical attack or fight without a weapon, 47% of schools recorded one or more incidents of threat of physical attack without a weapon, and 13% of public schools recorded one or more serious violent incidents. Musu-Gillette et al. (2017) further reported 65% of public schools recorded one or more violent incidents occurred, amounting to an estimated 757,000 incidents. Brown and Beckett (2006) reported urban schools were largely affected by discipline issues due to frequent student migration and increased poverty.

Research highlighted schools with a schoolwide discipline plan supported by faculty and parents had a positive effect on minimizing occurrence of misbehavior (Brown & Becket, 2006; Musu-Gillette et al., 2017; Vincent & Tobin, 2011).

Schoolwide Disciplinary Strategies

Zero Tolerance

Schools using schoolwide zero tolerance discipline strategies issue consequences such as suspension or expulsion for failing to follow school policies in relation to fighting, truancy, drugs, and weapons (Acosta, Chinman, Engberg, & Augustine, 2015; Skiba, 2014; Teske, 2011). These consequences were often considered counterproductive as they did not consider extenuating circumstances (Acosta et al., 2015; Skiba, 2014).

Teske (2011), Skiba (2014) and Acosta et al. (2015) reported zero tolerance in schools as a failure, noting it disrupted learning as students were removed from the learning environment for minor infractions commonly associated with adolescence. Zero tolerance relies solely on punishment to correct misbehavior, which research showed was counterproductive (Andrews, Bonta, & Wormith, 2006; Lowencamp & Latessa, 2004; Mendez, 2003). Teske (2011) reported the number of suspensions increased from 1.7 million in 1994 to 3.1 million in 2001 for schools with zero tolerance policies. Skiba (2014) and Acosta et al. (2015) also reported a disproportionately higher number of suspensions among African American students. Teske (2011) shared that although African Americans made up 17% of the student population in 2000, they represented 34% of suspended students.

Response to Intervention

Response to intervention (RTI) is a tiered approach to identify and support students with learning and behavioral needs (Cortiella, 2006). RTI begins with schoolwide assessments to identify students with deficiencies to put interventions in place. Students are provided with additional help from classroom teachers, counselors, and specialists (Cortiella, 2006). Students are progress monitored to identify if the Tier I interventions are sufficient to either maintain the level of support or increase support due to non-responsiveness, resulting in Tier II interventions (King, Lemmons, & Hill, 2012). Those non-responsive to Tier II supports receive Tier III, which includes intensive support and referrals to specialist services (King et al., 2012). The RTI Action Network (2015) advised for RTI to work, students must be provided with high-quality classroom instruction, on-going student assessment, tiered-instruction, and parent involvement.

Positive Behavior Intervention and Support

Positive behavior intervention and support (PBiS) is a schoolwide system to address behavior expectations in classroom and non-classroom settings (Barber, 2018). A team of school personnel, with input from the staff, put together a set of rules for each area of the school. Students are trained in the expected behaviors. Like the RTI model, PBiS has tiered levels of intervention to help teachers provide positive behavior support to students who neglected to follow the agreed upon rules (Evanovich & Scott, 2016). In the PBiS model, teachers support students through lessons taught independently or integrated in the core curriculum. Unlike zero tolerance, PBiS gives offenders the opportunity to turn mis-behavior around before the referral system is brought into play.

Classroom Management

Classroom management, defined as a wide variety of skills and techniques used by educators to maintain order, student engagement, and academic productivity in the classroom, is extremely important (Canter, 2010; Garrett, 2015; Jones et al., 2014; Marzano, 2011). Canter (2010) asserted classroom management is at the heart of creating and establishing an environment ripe for acquiring knowledge. Today's educators are tasked with teaching concepts and skills to mastery. Research asserted it was difficult for learning, let alone mastery, to occur in an environment where classroom management was poorly structured and inadequately maintained (Canter, 2010; Jones et al., 2014; Marzano, 2011). Although research showed classroom management was significant to student achievement, effectively managed classrooms take time to establish (Canter, 2010; Marzano, 2011). Teachers must exert effort to match management theory with their own personality and the personality of their class to create and maintain an effectively managed classroom (Canter, 2010; Jones, 2013).

Marzano (2003, 2011) and Canter (2010) believe effective classroom managers are made. Canter (2010) further asserted teachers needed to master the techniques necessary to establish and maintain an effective classroom. According to Marzano, Frontier, and Livingston (2011), to become an effective classroom manager, teachers must be willing to take time to research and understand the major philosophies and techniques for maintaining classroom management.

Classroom Management Theory

Several classroom management theories are utilized in education (Canter, 2010; Marzano, 2011). Among noted theorists are John Dewey (1916) who believed in

progressive education. Jean Piaget, developer of Constructivist Learning Theory, promoted a hands-on approach to learning based on discovery (Brummitt, 2013). Fosnot (2013) reported in a constructivist classroom, the teacher acts as guide to students who then take responsibility for their own learning. Discipline theorist Jacob Kounin (1970) stated specific lesson management strategies kept classrooms in order. Other theorists with major contributions to the field were Albert Bandura, William Glasser, and Fred Jones.

William Glasser developed a method of psychotherapy called Reality/Choice Therapy in 1965 (Zeeman, 2006). Well known for his contributions to education, Glasser believed in Choice Theory, that individuals chose their state of being and could choose to alter it (Faulkner & Burdenski, 2011; Glasser, 2004; Wubbolding, 2007; Zeeman, 2006). Choice Theory is based on four principles that state (1) human motivation is internal; (2) the difference between what one wants and has is the cause for behavioral choice; (3) actions, thinking, feeling, and physiology together make up total behavior; and (4) humans see the world through a perceptual system (Faulkner & Burdenski, 2011; Wubbolding, 2007; Zeeman, 2006). Zeeman (2006) further noted Glasser believed one's entire life was spent behaving and choosing to do so improved the capacity of happiness. A proponent of focusing on the present, Glasser was reported to believe student success was determined by individual levels of positive self-concept and positive interpersonal relations with school personnel (Wubbolding, 2007; Zeeman, 2006). These beliefs line up with techniques advocated by classroom management specialist Fred Jones (Jones, Jones, & Jones, 2007).

Fred Jones, clinical psychologist, classroom management specialist, and author of *Tools for Teaching* (2007) developed Positive Classroom Management. In this system, Jones recommends educators use motivation as a tool for maintaining discipline in the classroom. Jones believes motivated students behave and perform well academically (Jones et al., 2007; McLeod, 2016).

Albert Bandura, behavior theorist and developer of social learning theory, renamed social cognitive theory (SCT) in 1986, made substantial contributions to education (McLeod, 2016). Three concepts emerge as foundational from his SCT work. First, individuals learn through observation (Bandura, 1997). In education, teachers are expected to model lessons for students in a variety of settings; teachers model whole class, small group, and individual lessons based on student needs (Bandura, 1997 & Marzano, 2011). The second concept asserts an individual's mental state is significant to the learning process (Bandura, 1997). The third concept is learning does not always equal a change in behavior. Further contributions significant in education are Bandura's insights to the importance of self-efficacy and outcome expectations (Bandura, 1997; Young, Plotnikoff, Collins, Callister, & Morgan, 2014).

Effective Classroom Management

Teacher authority and leadership. Part of a teachers' role is to maintain order within the classroom (Canter, 2010; Jones, 2007; Marzano, 2011). Teachers also must establish their leadership and authority in the classroom (Macleod, MacAllister, & Pirrie, 2012). According to Canter (2010), Marzano (2011), and Savage (1999), and Macleod et al. (2012), if students do not accept teacher authority, maintaining classroom management is impossible. Macleod et al. (2012) and Lunenburg (2012) described

multiple types of authority. French and Raven (1959) established a framework that outlined five sources of authority: legitimate, reward, coercive, expert, and referent. Mcleod et al. (2012) reported comprehension coupled with appropriate application of these types of authority led to an effectively managed classroom.

Legitimate authority. Legitimate authority is socially and professionally attached to a position, such as the authority that comes with being a teacher. This type of authority is obeyed due to agreed norms (Macleod et al., 2012). Students obey teachers not because they necessarily want to, but because they understand it is institutional norm.

Reward authority. Reward authority, closely related to legitimate authority, is having the power to give rewards to motivate students to be compliant (Garus, Furtmuller, & Guttel, 2016). Rewards commonly used in classrooms to maintain discipline and engagement come in the form of tangible items such as grades, gold stars, special privileges, and selected prizes (Garus et al., 2016; Turner, Chriqui, & Chaloupka, 2012). Praise and attention are additional types of social rewards teachers give students (Garus et al., 2016; Lee, 2013; Marzano, 2013; Wong, 2000). Although reward authority is effective, it has limits (Guinee, 2012). Marzano (2013) asserted reward authority was effective if the stimulus remained desirable and students considered distribution of rewards fair. Mismanagement of the rewards system led to the breakdown of teacher power in the classroom; students were disengaged from learning (Marzano, 2013).

Coercive authority. Marzano (2013) and Schrodt, Whitt, and Truman (2007) agreed teachers who used coercive authority created a sense of security in the classroom and connected with students who naturally would never misbehave. Coercive authority fundamentally means punishment for deviating from agreed norms. Students comply

with teacher requests to avoid punishments (Schrodt et al., 2007). The use of coerciveness can, however, create a hostile environment in the classroom. Macleod et al. (2012) describe coercive authority as manipulation. Teachers who use this type of authority to control a classroom are not in charge for long (Marzano, 2013). Macleod et al. (2012) suggested coercive authority was foundational for many classroom management systems and had its uses, but teachers who solely relied upon this method lacked an effectively managed classroom.

Expert authority. Expert authority is what teachers want to establish in their classrooms (Savage & Savage, 2010). In this environment, students willfully acknowledge the teacher's power and authority. Students readily perceive the teacher as the authority due to the respectful nature of teacher-student interactions.

Referent authority. According to Savage and Savage (2010), referent authority is the best method for maintaining classroom management. Teachers who use referent authority genuinely show students they care. These teachers take time to get to know the students, their families, and their interests (Savage & Savage, 2010). Students willingly give respect because they like the teacher and believe the teacher cares about them (Marzano, 2013; Savage & Savage, 2010; Wong, 2007). Although it was established teacher authoritative style was significantly associated with effective classroom management and student success, it was equally important teachers understood the role procedures and rules play in establishing and maintaining effective classroom management (Jones, 2007; Marzano, 2013; Savage & Savage, 2010).

Rules and procedures. Rules and procedures are crucial for establishing and maintaining classroom management (Jones, 2007; Marzano, 2013; Savage & Savage,

2010). A rule is defined as expectations whereas a procedure communicates expectations (Emmer & Evertson, 2013). Rules and procedures are accepted and implemented to a higher degree when students are given the opportunity for input (Jones, 2013; Savage, 2013; Wong, 2010). According to Backs and Ellis (2003), teachers need to clearly establish and teach the expected rules and procedures. Rules for safety and academic success should be stressed in the first days of school (Backs & Ellis, 2003; Canter, 2013; Wong, 2010). Rules need to be discussed thoroughly and procedures put in place for when students neglect to adhere to them (Canter, 2013; Wong, 2010). Classrooms where clearly defined rules and procedures exist contain students motivated to learn (Canter, 2013; Marzano, 2013).

Motivation. Savage (1999) stated, "Motivation is an essential component in preventing discipline problems" (p. 58). When students are motivated to learn, fewer misbehaviors occur in the learning environment (Canter, 2010; Marzano, 2013). Savage (1999) reported three motivational components teachers must manage in relation to motivating students: the value of learning the lesson, ability to learn the lesson, and the student's emotional reaction to the lesson. According to Savage (1999), students were more likely to give up on completing an assignment if they feel it was too difficult for them to master or would require too much effort. Savage (1999) also shared that if students did not perceive the lesson as worthwhile, then there was little to no motivation to learn it.

Savage (1999) shared that attending to the physiological, psychological, and social needs of students increased motivation. Physiological needs include food, movement, and comfort. Although it is not the teacher's responsibility to feed the

student, but by recognizing hunger as an underlying problem resulting in a student's lack of motivation steps can be taken to address and accommodate the student's need. Psychological needs that may inhibit student motivation include feeling insignificant or unsafe. Students sometimes face threats of psychological harm such as ridicule, sarcasm, and fear of failure. According to Savage (1999), "Teachers are significant others for many students and your treatment of them can have a powerful impact" (p. 47). Teachers can motivate students by communicating they care, respecting students, and holding high expectations for all.

The physical environment. Classroom environment plays a significant role in both student academic performance and behavior (Barrett, Davies, Zhang, & Barrett, 2015; Gonzales & Young, 2015; Jones, 2000). Tables, chairs, desks, technology, and empty spaces are examples of elements contained in a classroom environment that influence teacher-student interactions and relationships (Habaci et al., 2012). Research showed classroom arrangement was vital to classroom management. Strategic seating positions allowed the teacher to be mobile, access to all learners, diminish time off task, and increase engagement (Garrett, 2015; Jones, 2000; Wannarka & Ruhl, 2008). Jones (2000) cited teacher mobility as the objective of classroom seating arrangements and that classroom arrangement was the least expensive form of classroom management. Further, Gonzales and Young (2015) asserted learning spaces should be strategically and purposefully planned and accommodate the needs of 21st century learners.

Teaching transitioned from teacher-centered, where the focus of activity was on the teacher and students take notes, to student-centered where students are actively engaged in the learning process (Benjamin, 2016; Felder & Brent, 2009; Gonzales &

Young, 2015). Cooperative learning, active learning, and inductive teaching and learning are examples of student-centered learning methods (Benjamin, 2016; Felder, 2009). Gonzales and Young (2015) stated districts must support children with respect to learning spaces. For example, funding the creation of maker-spaces in the school library is one way districts can support 21st century learning where creativity and innovation are key. A maker-space provides all stakeholders access to tools that allow them the freedom to be innovative (Gonzales & Young, 2015). Akin, Yildirim, and Goodwin (2016) noted design of the learning environment should be seriously considered as the impact on student engagement is a matter of substantive academic gain. Gonzales and Young, (2015) reported schools that invested resources on learning spaces saw a positive increase in academic achievement.

Time management. An efficiently ran classroom is a significant piece to the classroom management puzzle (Bandura, 2010; Canter, 2010; Jones, 2007; Marzano & Marzano, 2003). Jones (2007) noted in his classroom observations many instances of off-task behavior due to poor time management and described misbehavior before, during, and after instruction. Garret (2015) asserted transitions need to be tightly managed; effective classroom managers prepared for students as they entered the classroom, assign tasks that engages students, and transition from one academic task to another. Jones (2007) advised good classroom managers also budgeted time for incidentals such as getting water, sharpening pencils, and distribution of supplies.

Lesson management. Proper lesson management aids with maintaining classroom management and unpredictability of a classrooms activity (Gourneau, 2014; Lemov, 2010; Marzano, 2013; Savage, 1999). What went well for one group of students

may not work with another group lending to disruption in the classroom (Savage, 1999). Teachers prepare for disruptions by delivering clear objectives, using student-friendly language, handling disruptions smoothly, withitness, overlapping, and group focus (Savage, 1999).

Clear objectives. According to Savage (1999) and Reed (2012), teachers maintain lesson management by providing clear objectives. Savage (1999) heralded teacher clarity as one of the most important aspects of delivering a successful lesson, indicating students were easily confused when teachers used ambiguous or vague terms such as *somehow*, *about*, and *a few*. Students became confused and frustrated, which caused disengagement and misbehavior in the classroom (Savage, 1999).

Both teachers and students need a clear understanding of the objective and learning goal (Savage, 1999). Clear communication of objectives enhances motivation for engaging in the lesson, but because it is deemed a repetitive element of lesson planning, clearly stated objectives are often overlooked (Reed, 2012). Two primary reasons explain why clear communication of objectives is significant. According to Vaughn and Bos (2010), clearly communicating objectives aids in lesson design. Also, it helps maintain alignment of performance expectations as they are structured utilizing behavioral terminology (English & Steffy, 2001). Reed (2012) asserted that teachers with well-crafted, clear objectives experience increased student engagement and decreased student misbehavior.

Withitness. Withitness refers to a teacher's ability to be aware of what is happening in all parts of the classroom (Lemov, 2010; Marzano, 2013; Savage, 1999; Utah State University [USU], 1978). Coined by Jacob Kounin (1970), the term

withitness more specifically refers to a teacher's ability to show students through behaviors that he or she is aware of what is happening in the classroom. USU (1978) suggested alternative behavior, concurrent praise, and descriptions of desirable behavior as indicators of withitness. When misbehavior occurs, suggesting alternative behavior allows the student to choose a positive outcome and the *withit* teacher diverted the off-task behavior. To avoid conflict or confrontation with a misbehaving student, teachers demonstrating withitness use concurrent praise to highlight on-task behavior of other students. When using description of desirable behavior, the withit teacher has the defiant student recite the desired behavior (USU, 1978). Teachers using withitness strategies during lesson management remain in control of the classroom by quickly attending to problems as they happen, preventing the misbehavior from permeating throughout the classroom (Savage, 1999).

Overlapping. Kounin (1970) identified overlapping as a successful tool for teacher use during lesson presentation. This concept is when teachers are seen multitasking during lesson presentation (Maroni, Gnisci, & Pontecorvo, 2008). An example of overlapping is seen in classrooms where the teacher continues teaching while redirecting an off-task student, removing a potentially harmful object out of another student's reach, or modifying the lesson to keep pace with the level of comprehension of students (Savage, 1999). Kounin (1970) also described teacher use of overlapping as highly beneficial when routine disruptions occur, such as the phone ringing or a tardy student entering the room. When teachers use overlapping procedures and take time to properly train students, lessons are not interrupted.

Group focus. A final concept developed by Kounin (1970) for lesson management was group focus. Savage (1999) stated teachers need to pay attention to the group as opposed to the individual student during lesson delivery. Providing a hook to gain student attention helped maintaining the behavior of the group (Lemov, 2010). Savage (1999) maintained that when teachers provided a variety of activities for students to participate in during the lesson, it increased engagement and decreased the likelihood of an event slowing down the lesson.

According to Savage (1999), thought needs to be given at the planning stage of a lesson. Planning the delivery of the lesson is just as important as planning the lesson. Teachers need to consider the culture of the class and pay attention to the climate during lesson delivery. As the lesson plan is delivered, good lesson managers notice the effect on the students and modify the lesson as necessary. Modifications include adjusting the momentum of the lesson and checking for smoothness of delivery, and knowing when to stop and openly admit to students the lesson went poorly due to teacher error (Kounin, 1970; Savage, 1999).

Teacher-Student Relationships

Canter (2010) and Garrett (2015) asserted the importance of teachers building relationships with each student. Doing this increases student and teacher attention to instruction and decreases classroom disruption (Bosworth & Judkins, 2014; Canter, 2010; Marzano, 2011). Bosworth and Judkins (2014) and Garrett (2015) reported teachers experienced decreased levels of disruptive behaviors in the classroom and students were more apt to conform to a teacher they respected. Marzano (2011) asserted students resisted structure without the foundation of a positive relationship between teacher and

student, and dominance verses submission and cooperation verses opposition are two dimensions that define the relationship between teachers and students.

One method conducive to building a teacher-student relationship is building trust. Building trust is a progressive process (Wellner, 2006). Canter (2010) showed not all students come to school with an understanding the teacher is someone who can be trusted, and individual student's life experience may tell them otherwise. Although building relationships with students can be a challenge for teachers, finding ways to connect can be an empowering experience beneficial for both teacher and student (Canter, 2010; Templeton, 2013; Wellner, 2006).

Research-based Strategies for Classroom Management

Teachers play a number of roles in the classroom, and one of the most significant is classroom manager (Kauchak & Eggen, 2012; Lane et al., 2014; Backes, & Ellis, 2003). Although numerous classroom management strategies exist, teachers are encouraged to use research-based strategies to address both class and individual misbehaviors (Canter, 2010; Lane et al. 2014; Marzano & Marzano, 2003).

Engaged students have fewer instances of disruptive behavior (Canter, 2015; Gunter & Denny, 1998; Marzano, 2013; Wehby, Symons, Canale, & Go, 1998). Lane et al. (2014) advocated for teachers to use class-wide strategies, such as opportunities to respond, active supervision and proximity, and behavior specific praise statements. When all three strategies were used in conjunction with each other, most students in the classroom were responsive. When students failed to respond to class-wide strategies, then individualized interventions could be utilized. In more extreme cases, teachers could use functional assessment, antecedent based, and self-regulation interventions to

identify the underlying problem causing the student to misbehave. Once the underlying issue is identified, the teacher, counselor, and parent work together to reteach and promote expected behavior (Lane et al., 2014).

Teacher Training Opportunities

Training opportunities exist for teachers at each stage of their career. Universities offer pre-service teacher credentialing programs leading to a multiple subject, single subject, or a special education credential. Credentialed teachers are offered training in the form of professional development through individual districts or county offices of education. Trainings include topics such as technology in the classroom, writing with the Common Core State Standards, and classroom management in the 21st century. District offices provide teacher trainings at no charge to the employee and are conducted during contract hours. Training offered outside the contract day are compensated at the hourly contractual rate. In addition to the current training opportunities, research suggested teachers would benefit from professional development related to EI (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009; Cocrham & Tormey, 2012; Goleman, 1998).

Emotional Intelligence

Although still a relatively newly accepted phenomenon, EI dates back to the 1930s with Edward Thorndike who introduced a concept called social intelligence (Barrios, 2016). Social intelligence is defined as having the ability to effectively interact with the environment bringing about success in business and life (Rahim, Civelk, & Feng Helen, 2016). In 1990, Peter Salovey and John Mayer coined the term EI and used it to describe how people were able to monitor their own feelings and emotions and consequently use them to guide their decisions. About this time, researcher Daniel

Goleman connected with the significance of EI and contributed the book *Emotional Intelligence* (1996) in which he identified five domains of EI: knowing your emotions, managing your emotions, motivating yourself, recognizing and understanding other people's emotions, and managing relationships. With the publication of *Emotional Intelligence*, interest in the concept grew.

Mayer and Salovey (2012) defined EI as the capacity to reason about emotions and emotional information, and of emotions to enhance thought. Goleman (1998) applied the concept of EI to business and defined it as having the ability to monitor emotions of self and those of others using skills such as self-awareness, self-regulation, empathy, and social skills. Wharam (2009) defined EI as having the potential to motivate and manage oneself and others through the understanding of emotions. Bradberry and Greaves (2009) further defined EI as individuals having the ability to understand their own emotions as well as express and control said emotions. Understanding the definition of EI and having a clear concept of the different models of EI are equally important.

Models of Emotional Intelligence

Several models of EI exist, with three being most common: Salovey and Mayer's ability model (1990), the competency model of Goleman (1995), and the personality traits and characteristics of the Bar-On model (2004). Each model contains a test aligned to the individual aspects of the model and the authors' definition of EI.

Salovey and Mayer's ability model. The Salovey and Mayer (1990) model of EI perceives it as a cognitive ability. First to publish extensively on the topic of EI, Mayer and Salovey (1990) initially defined EI as "the ability to monitor one's own and others feelings of emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to

guide one's thinking and action" (p. 189). Mayer et al. (2004) later defined EI as one's ability to "perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (p. 197). Believing EI was comprised of mental abilities, skills, and capacities, Mayer and Salovey (1997) use the Four-Branch Model, another name for the Mayer and Salovey Model, to describe four areas of skills describing EI (Table 1).

Table 1

Emotional Intelligence Four Branch Model

Branch	Descriptor
1. Perceiving Emotions	Ability to perceive emotions in oneself and others, as well as in objects, art, stories, music and other stimuli
2. Facilitating Thought	Ability to generate, use and feel emotion as necessary to communicate feelings
3. Understanding Emotions	Ability to understand emotional information, how emotions combine and progress through relationship transitions and to appreciate such emotional meanings
4. Managing Emotions	Ability to be open to feelings, and to modulate them in oneself and others so as to promote personal understanding and growth

Note. Adapted from Mayer and Salovey, 1990.

Goleman model. The original model introduced by Goleman (1995) contained five domains self-awareness, motivation, self-regulation, empathy, and social skills. Improvement in these five areas increased one's levels of EI (Goleman, 1995). The Goleman model was later modified to reflect four main domains: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management.

Bar-On model. Characterized as an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with

environmental demands and pressures, the Bar-On (1997) model of EI is divided into five areas and 15 subsections. The five areas are intrapersonal, interpersonal, stress management, adaptability, and general mood (Table 2).

Table 2

Emotional Intelligence Bar-On Model

EI Skill	Description
Intrapersonal	Ability to know and manage oneself: • emotional self-awareness • assertiveness • self-regard • self actualization • independence
Interpersonal	Ability to interact and get along well with others: • empathy • social responsibility • interpersonal relationship
Stress Management	Ability to tolerate stress and impulse control: • stress tolerance • impulse control
Adaptability	Ability to be flexible and realistic and to solve a range of problems as they arise: • reality testing • flexibility • problem solving
General Mood	• optimism • happiness

Comparison of the models. Differences and similarities exist among the models. The terms EI, emotional quotient (EQ), and emotional competence are used. Rastogi, Kewalramani, and Agrawal (2015) reported the Goleman model uses the term emotional competence as it highlights individual potential to translate emotions into practical capabilities. The Mayer and Salovey model uses the term EI because it is seen as having the ability to manage or perceive the emotions of self and others. Bar-On uses the term

EQ because his interest was in understanding why some individuals had more emotional well-being than others. Additional differences in the models are the assessments used to measure EI. Rastogi et al. (2015) showed multiple models for testing exist.

Measurement of Emotional Intelligence

Several tests to measure EI were developed over the years. Currently three types of EI tests are in use, ability EI, trait EI, and mixed EI. An ability EI test is an assessment based upon performance criteria and reports on one's level of emotional development (Śmieja et al., 2014). The Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SEIT) and the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) are examples of an ability test. The SEIT contains 33 items and focuses on appraisal and expression of emotion, regulation of emotion, and utilization of emotion (Schutte et al., 1998) whereas the MSCEIT contains 141 items and focuses on the four branches of EI (Mayer et al., 2003).

A second type of test is trait EI. The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEI-Que) developed by Petrides (2009) is a self-report inventory covering the sampling domain of trait EI. The assessment contains 153 items that measure 15 facets, 4 factors, and global trait EI. Trait EI assessments focuses on a person's perception of their own emotional ability. Petrides (2011) reported trait EI theory had advantages in certain situations, such as matching a person to a particular job. Petrides (2011) further maintained trait assessments do not assess a person's skill, intelligence, or competencies.

The third type test is mixed EI. Brackett et al. (2006) reported mixed model EI refers to an assessment that mixed attributes such as self-esteem and optimism into the

ability model. Mayer et al. (2008) reported variables included in mixed EI assessments related closer to social skills and areas of personality than EI.

Differences exist between ability EI, trait EI, and mixed EI assessments. Each assessment measures different attributes worded in a specific manner (Mayer et al., 2008). Mixed EI assessments are formatted using "I" statements to which the test taker responds by choosing true or false (Mayer et al., 2008). Perez et al. (2000) noted ability assessments test the ability to perceive, identify, understand, and work with emotion and should to be measured through tests of maximal performance.

Bradberry and Greaves (2009) indicated EI touches all aspects of one's life. Testing EI and using the results to manage behavior and make personal decisions are advantageous for individuals and businesses alike (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009; Goleman, 2014). Libbrecht and Lievens (2012) reported ability EI assessments aid businesses with respect to hiring personnel. Bradberry and Greaves (2009) stated EI assessments aid individuals with respect to personal relationships. Whether one is assessed through ability EI, trait EI, or mixed EI, the research maintained the significance of EI allows people to harness emotions to put themselves in a position to succeed (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009; Libbrecht & Levens, 2012; Mayer et al., 2008; Perez et al. 2000; Petrides, 2011).

Four Emotional Intelligence Skills

EI is comprised of four skills, two personal skills of self-awareness and self-management, and two social competence skills of social awareness and relationship management (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Bradberry and Greaves (2009) and Libbrecht and Lievens (2012) shared that the results of EI assessments could be used for both

personal and professional growth. Bradberry and Greaves (2009) asserted that to "achieve the greatest results" one must "learn to maximize" the four EI skills (p. 22). To improve in the four areas of EI, Bradberry and Greaves (2009) suggested gaining a better understanding of each one.

Self-awareness. Personal competence is defined by Bradberry and Greaves (2006) as "the ability to stay aware of your emotions and manage your behavior and tendencies" (p. 23). Managing one's emotions and behaviors requires self-awareness (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009; Gill, Ramsey, & Leberman, 2015). Self-awareness was identified as a significant element of transformational self-development and a key component in EI (Bar-On 1997; Gill et al., 2015; Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey 1997). Gill et al. (2015) shared developing self-awareness could be painstaking as individuals did not readily see themselves, but for individual transformation to occur, steps to acquire self-awareness must be made.

Several definitions of self-awareness exist. Atwater and Yammarino (1992) defined self-awareness as "an individual's ability to assess other's evaluations of the self and to incorporate these assessments into one's self-evaluation" (p 143). Cherniss and Goleman (2001) defined self-awareness as a deep understanding of one's own strengths, weaknesses, and motivations. Bar-On (1997) defined self-awareness as the ability to ''accurately perceive, understand and accept oneself" (p. 26). Although multiple definitions exist, research showed the significance of self-awareness is significant and it is a continuous process that grows over time (Avilov & Gardner, 2011; Gill et al., 2015).

According to Bradberry and Greaves (2009), to use self-awareness one must possess skills to self-manage. Bradberry and Greaves (2006) reported multiple strategies

exist to help facilitate self-awareness, and one strategy they advocate is spending time thinking about one's emotions to understand the reason behind the reaction. Although self-reflection is valuable, Sturm, Taylor, Atwater, and Braddy (2013) argued self-awareness derived from exclusive use of this strategy was flawed. Sturm et al. (2013) suggested coupling self-reflection with predicting other's perceptions to take advantage of interactions and data for increased self-awareness.

Self-Management. Bradberry and Greaves (2009) asserted self-management was "the second major part of personal competence" (p. 32). Honing the skill of self-management allows management of emotions in emotional situations. Mastering self-management requires true commitment as emotional events are bound to occur repeatedly (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009).

Bradberry and Greaves (2009) described self-management as the ability to "use awareness of your emotions to actively choose what to say and do" (p. 97). They described multiple strategies to improve self-management, such as setting aside time to problem-solve. Multiple decisions are made daily when in a position of authority, but not all decisions are made under the best circumstances. Decisions may be rushed. Bradberry and Greaves (2009) suggested reflection and future problem-solving as "a way to ensure your decisions aren't muddled by your emotions" (p. 116). They further shared 17 strategies intended to assist with self-management:

- Breathe right
- Create an emotion vs. reason list
- Make your goals public
- Count to Ten
- Sleep on it
- Talk to a skilled self-manager
- Focus attention on freedoms rather than limitations
- Take control of your self-talk
- Visualize yourself succeeding
- Clean up sleep hygiene
- Set aside time to problem-solve
- Stay synchronized
- Smile and laugh more
- Learn a valuable lesson from everyone you encounter

- Accept that change is just around the corner
- Speak to someone who is not emotionally vested in your problem
- Put a mental recharge into your schedule

Bradberry and Greaves (2009) also suggested making goals public. This strategy creates opportunity for motivation and accountability. Sharing goals with a colleague or family member allows them to offer motivation. "There is no more powerful motivator to reach your goals than making them public" (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009, p. 106). Another strategy was to speak to someone not emotionally vested in the situation. Bradberry and Greaves (2009) indicated it was normal to base decisions on prior knowledge yet doing so could cause decision makers to limit their options for success. They suggested choosing wisely before turning to a trusted individual, unaffected by the dilemma, to acquire fresh perspective. Working to master strategies to improve self-management helps build awareness of the emotions and respond effectively (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009).

Social awareness. Bradberry and Greaves (2009) defined social competencies as the "ability to understand other people's moods, behaviors and motives in order to improve the quality of your relationships" (p. 24). Social-awareness, the first component in social competence, is how well people pick up on the tone in the room while simultaneously shutting down their own verbal and nonverbal contributions (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Social awareness increases one's ability to identify the thoughts and feelings of others and understand their emotions. According to Serrat (2017), socially aware individuals possess seven competences (Table 3).

Table 3

Seven Social Awareness Competences

Competence	Characteristics
Empathy	• Are attentive to emotional cues and listen well • Show sensitivity and understand others' perspectives • Help based on understanding other people's needs and feelings
Service Oriented	• Understand customers' needs and match them to services or products • Seek ways to increase customers' satisfaction and loyalty • Gladly offer appropriate assistance • Grasp a customer's perspective, acting as a trusted advisor
Developing Others	• Acknowledge and reward people's strengths, accomplishments, and development • Offer useful feedback and identify people's needs for development • Mentor, give timely coaching, and offer assignments that challenge and grow a person's skills
Leverage Diversity	• Respect and relate well to people from varied backgrounds • Understand diverse worldviews and are sensitive to group differences • See diversity as opportunity, creating an environment where diverse people can thrive • Challenge bias and intolerance
Political Awareness	• Accurately read key power relationships • Detect crucial social networks • Understand the forces that shape views and actions of clients, customers, or competitors • Accurately read situations and organizational and external realities

Empathy. Walton (2012) reported social awareness was about gathering data and using it to make decisions and act. Socially aware individuals were receptive to others by showing empathy (Goleman, 2014). Empathetic people recognize the feelings of others and sense what they are experiencing. Empathy also refers to the ability communicate understanding about what they are experiencing. This occurs through good communication. Good communication is key to EI, but nonverbal communication is just

as significant. Walton (2012) implored leaders to be mindful of nonverbal messages, noting, “These messages don’t stop when you stop speaking” (p. 79). Nonverbal communication includes facial expressions, posture, tone of voice, eye contact, and gestures. According to Walton (2012), an individual could determine if someone was listening and being truthful, and detect the level of care by watching nonverbal cues. As such, it is important to communicate the same messages through verbal and nonverbal communication.

Service-oriented. Socially aware individuals are service-oriented (Goleman, 2014). According to Serrat (2017), these individuals maintain a deep understanding of others’ need and go above and beyond to help. Service-oriented individuals enjoy being helpful and are respectful. Other characteristics of service-oriented individuals include good problem-solving, communication, and organization skills (Serrat, 2017).

Develop others. Socially aware individuals develop others (Serrat, 2017). Attention is given to the accomplishments of others through both public and private celebrations. This includes a pat on the back, a handshake, verbal congratulations, or a cake with balloons for the team to share an individual’s moment in the spotlight. Developing others is also taking the time to coach an individual in a growth area (Serrat, 2017).

Leverage diversity. Socially aware individuals pay attention to diversity. Serrat (2017) reported individuals who leverage diversity respect and value diverse cultures and backgrounds, and are sensitive to group differences. Taking the time to understand various belief systems and world views is key to social awareness. Socially aware

individuals see diversity as an opportunity and spend time creating an atmosphere where diversity is celebrated so everyone can reach their full potential.

Politically aware. Socially aware individuals recognize politics exist in organizations (Goleman, 2014; Serrat, 2017; White, 2016). According to Goleman (2014), a politically aware individual understands politics at play in an organization. Individuals aware of politics in an organization are also aware of norms and values that guide the organization. Goleman (2014) shared politically savvy individuals noted and followed rules governing people in the organization, including the explicit and unspoken rules.

Relationship Management. The second half of social competence is relationship management. Relationship management is using the awareness of emotions to successfully navigate personal and professional relationships (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Bradberry and Greaves (2009) expressed the importance of honing skills in relationship management. Hensley and Burmeister (2008) maintained that for leaders in any organization to be successful at managing relationships, they must focus on specific skills defined as relationship connectors, which were (1) communication, (2) support, (3) safety, (4) competence, (5) continuous renewal, and (6) trust (Hensley & Burmeister, 2008).

Communication. According to the Bible, death and life are in the power of the tongue (Proverbs 18:21). Abusive or miscommunication is counterproductive and breaks down relationships. Hensley and Burmeister (2008) stated communication determined success or failure and whether individuals would follow or leave. Classrooms with clear and constant communication had teachers who took time to establish relationships with

students (Marzano, 2013; Savage, 1999; Wong, 2010). Research suggested the best time to set the tone for relationship building was at the beginning of the school year with activities that encouraged students to communicate with both the teacher and peers (Canter, 2014; Marzano, 2013; Savage, 1999; Wong, 2010). Activities such as ice breakers, community builders, and surveys build relationships and foster communication. During these activities, teachers model respectful communication between all members of the classroom and minimize conflict (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009; Marzano, 2015; Vaughn & Bos, 2010). Good teachers revisit these activities throughout the school year as needed to maintain and strengthen relationships.

Support and safety. According to Abraham Maslow (1943), humans have a hierarchy of needs that motivate behaviors. Maslow's hierarchy of needs, a motivational theory in psychology, consists of five tiers broken into three levels (1) basic needs, (2) psychological needs, and (3) self-fulfillment needs. The first two tiers, beginning at the bottom, are labeled basic needs which encompass physiological and safety needs. The third and fourth tiers are labeled psychological needs and encompass the need to belong and the need to feel safe. The top tier is labeled self-fulfilling needs and encompasses one's need to grow to the greatest potential. Maslow (1943) believed individuals whose needs were not met at the basic levels would not be able to move to the next tier until those needs were met.

Support and safety are both basic needs and fall under tiers one and two of the hierarchy (Maslow, 1943). For proper relationship management, individuals must feel safe and supported. Teacher need the support of administrators and colleagues, and they want to feel safe in their classrooms with students. Students want to know they are safe

at school and have the support of their teachers (Marzano, 2013). Relationships thrive with the existence of support and safety (Bennis & Goldsmith, 2002; Hensley & Burmeister, 2008). Hensley and Burmeister (2008) further report that individuals who feel supported yield positive results, such as feelings of empowerment. According to Hensley and Burmeister (2008), "when support is present, individuals work in concert with one another and engage in causes beyond themselves" (p. 128).

Competence. To manage relationships, good leaders must convey competence. Hensley and Burmeister (2008) cited listening, observing, and reflecting as ways to show competence. Leaders who listen show respect and are given respect in return. Taking time to observe the relationship management process, reflecting on one's actions, working with a mentor, and networking help good leaders exude competence (Hensley & Burmeister, 2008). Understanding there is always more to learn, good leaders admit they do not know everything nor do they allow that to become an excuse for not knowing (Hensley & Burmeister, 2008; Marzano, 2013). Hensley and Burmeister (2008) reported that good leaders were resourceful and searched for requested information while maintaining humility and promoting those around them. Collins (2001) asserted good leaders grow other leaders and do not push themselves into the spotlight. Good leaders quested for increased knowledge by reading and attending seminars (Hensley & Burmeister, 2008). Competent leaders understand the significance of relationship management.

Continuous renewal. To maintain relationships, leaders must practice a cycle of continuous renewal. Hensley and Burmeister (2008) defined this as maintaining good health by taking care of oneself. According to Wallace (2008), the demands of work

create stress, which takes a toll on the mind and body. Leaders with high levels of responsibility who do not take time to renew are often plagued with poor mental, physical, and psychological health (Hensley & Burmeister, 2008; Wallace, 2008). Relationships cannot be managed when one is absent from work due to illness. For continuous renewal, Wallace (2008) suggested eating smarter by preparing healthy snacks and increasing water intake, as well as learning to say no and maintaining 30 minutes of daily exercise to reduce stress.

Trust. The most important facet to maintaining relationships is trust. Hensley and Burmeister (2008) asserted trusting relationships required connecters. Communication must be clear and honest. If students do not understand or there are problems with communication such as dishonesty, harshness, or threatening language, students lack trust and a bond will not form. Teachers must supply opportunities to foster support and create safety in the classroom. From clear communication, students feel supported and safe to take risks in learning. Trust increases more when leaders continuously renew (Hensley & Burmeister, 2008). Leaders who continuously renew are knowledgeable, demonstrate EI, and recognize the importance of health.

Emotional Intelligence and Education

EI training is significant and provides gains for individuals and organizations (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009; Libbrecht & Lievens, 2012; Petrides, 2009; Śmieja et al., 2014). Like the business world, EI permeated the field of education (Freedman, 2007). Leadership training in education includes components of EI, promoting significant positive changes in the relationship between employer and employee (Petrides, 2009). However, hesitation occurred when requiring a teacher to be responsible for presenting

concepts students should acquire at home (Curwin et al., 2008). Baer and Gillet (2015) argued a child's social success was largely determined by lessons taught at home.

Teachers have numerous responsibilities, including (1) presenting academic curriculum, (2) facilitating sessions for students below grade level, (3) modifying lessons for students with individual education plans, (4) teaching modified curriculum for second language learners, (5) grading papers and imputing grades for report cards, (6) taking and modifying attendance, and (7) writing lesson plans and maintaining classroom management (Canter, 2013; Wong, 2009). However, if teachers cannot control their own emotions, they will not be able to keep a classroom under control to achieve those responsibilities (Jones, 2014; Zaakrzewski, 2013). Zaakrzewski (2013) shared teachers with EI skills were better equipped to efficiently work with student misconduct.

Greater emphasis needs to be placed on the development of EI in the educational arena (Dickey, 2012; Friedman, 2014). Research based strategies for classroom management are not enough to maintain student behavior (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009; Zaakrzewski, 2013). Jennings and Greenberg (2009) reported the concept of EI was important, and Jones et al. (2014) cited classroom management and social-emotional intelligence were related. Jones and Bouffard (2013) stated managing emotions, dealing with conflicts, focusing, and working cooperatively were significant skills both students and teachers must learn. Jones et al. (2014) found from a small, nonrandomized study that teachers and students benefited from using strategies designed to improve social EI, but the findings were not generalizable and more research is needed.

Summary

With applications in both the business and educational arenas, Goleman (2014) and Bradberry and Greaves (2009) reported the power of EI as groundbreaking. Thousands of businesses around the world reported positive changes in decision-making, relationship building, leadership, and organizational success after EI training (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). As groundbreaking as EI may be, research showed a low percentage (36%) of individuals tested could accurately identify emotions, establishing the need for deliberate practice (Marzano, 2011). According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), individuals with high EI could manage behaviors and relationships more effectively. Platsidou (2010) stated EI related directly or indirectly to better judgment and success in academic, social, personal, and occupational settings. Yet, the need to focus on teacher EI exists (Emmer & Stough, 2001; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

One of the most significant roles teachers play in education is that of classroom manager. Students in well-managed classrooms achieve more than students in poorly managed classrooms (Canter, 2010; Jones, 2014). How well a teacher manages the classroom is determined by effective use of their chosen leadership style and management strategies (Canter, 2013; Jones, 2014; Kounin, 1970; Savage, 1999). Jones (2014) added teachers who cannot control their emotions cannot control a classroom. However, EI training is rarely part of teacher credentialing programs or ongoing professional development for existing teachers (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Additionally, a gap in the research exists regarding teacher EI and classroom management strategies used by teachers with the fewest behavioral referrals.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

The goal of this study was to explore the influence of emotional intelligence (EI) on classroom management practices by middle school teachers with the fewest written referrals for behavioral misconduct in their classrooms. Chapter III begins with reiteration of the purpose statement and research questions. Information about the population and sample follow. Also presented in this chapter is information about instrument development, validity, and reliability, data collection procedures, analysis procedures, and limitations of the study.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to understand how middle school teachers describe their use of the four elements of EI (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) to reduce student behavioral referrals. In addition, it was the purpose of this study to discover the barriers and benefits to teacher use of the elements of EI.

Research Questions

Central Question

The central research question guiding this study was: How do middle school teachers describe their use of the four elements of EI (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) to reduce behavior referrals in their classrooms?

Sub Questions

1. How do middle school teachers describe their use of the four elements of EI to reduce student behavioral referrals in their classrooms?

2. What barriers do middle school teachers describe they experience in their use of the four elements of EI?
3. What benefits do middle school teachers describe they experience in their use of the four elements of EI?

Research Design

A qualitative research design using a phenomenological approach was conducted in this study. McMillan and Schumacher (2010) stated a phenomenological approach describes the meaning of a lived experience. Patton (2015) asserted researchers use this method to identify "the meaning, structure, and essence of the lived experience of this phenomenon for this person or group of people" (p. 115). Examples of key characteristics of qualitative research include direct involvement of the researcher collecting data, the study of behaviors as they occur in their natural setting, narrative description of behavior, examination of reasons for the behavior, consideration of the contextual and situational factors involved, and inductive data analysis (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014).

Multiple approaches to phenomenological research exist. Husserl (1982) viewed phenomenological research as the detailed description of consciousness as people experience the world. Adams and Van Manen (2008) shared the interest of phenomenology was in recovering the lived moment. According to Patton (2015), "the focus on exploring how human beings make sense of experience and transform experience into consciousness both individually and as a shared meaning are common threads among the various approaches" (p. 115).

There are methods and procedures to conducting phenomenological research (Moustakas, 1994). Moustakas (1994) outlined the following steps for conducting human science research:

1. Discover a topic or phenomenon
2. Conduct a comprehensive literature review
3. Create criteria to locate research participants
4. Provide participants with information concerning the purpose of the investigation, obtain informed consent, ensure confidentiality, and explain responsibilities
5. Develop interview questions
6. Conduct the in-depth interviews
7. Organize and analyze data to include a synthesis of textural and structural meanings and essences

Phenomenology was deemed the most appropriate method for this study as it sought to understand and describe the phenomenon of teachers with the fewest number of written office referrals.

Population

McMillan and Schumacher (2010) defined population as "a group of elements or cases, whether individuals, objects, or events, that conform to specific criteria and to which we intend to generalize the results of the research" (p. 129). The California Department of Education (CDE, 2016) published there were 295,025 teachers working in the public school system. The population for this study was middle schools teachers in California. Of the larger population of teachers in California, the target population was the 46,705 teachers at the middle and junior high school level. The target population was

further narrowed to focus on middle school teachers within Los Angeles and San Bernardino Counties. These counties were due to their proximity to the researcher to conduct face-to-face interviews.

Sample

Salkind (2014) defined a sample as a subset of a population from whom the researcher intended to collect data. Patton (2015), McMillian and Schumacher (2010), and Salkind (2014) agreed evidence of good research included a sample chosen in such a way it was representative of the population from which it was selected. This study used outlier sampling. This type of sampling fit the study as the focus was on teachers with the fewest written referrals for misbehavior. As such, these teachers were outliers from the overall population.

Outlier Sampling

Often ignored in aggregate data reporting, Patton (2015) describes outliers as extremes. Outlier sampling, also referred to as extreme or deviant case sampling, is a form of sampling where participants are chosen based on extreme success or failures (Patton, 2015). Patton (2015) shared that in a phenomenological study, outlier sampling is helpful as "it can reveal a great deal about intense manifestations of the phenomenon" (p. 267).

This study focused on middle school teachers in Los Angeles County and San Bernardino County. Four school districts were chosen for this study, with two districts from Los Angeles County identified as W and X and two districts from San Bernardino County identified as Y and Z. The counties and districts were chosen as each is in proximity to the researcher to conduct face-to-face interviews.

To gather potential participants, a comprehensive list of all public middle schools within the four districts was created from CDE. To expand the research base of this study, alternative middle schools, charter middle schools, private middle schools, and non-secular middle schools were also used. From this revised list of schools, a catalogue of the total number of teachers was made. Three potential participants from each district were identified by principals as the outliers of their school.

Participant Selection

Qualitative research does not require a large sample size (Creswell, 2013; Patton, 2015). For phenomenological research, Creswell (2013) suggested a sample size of 5 to 25 participants. The participants in this study represented four school districts from two counties. Three participants were selected from each district for a total of 12 participants. To be eligible for the study, participants needed to meet the following criteria:

1. A current middle school teacher in the selected districts
2. A minimum of two years of classroom teaching experience
3. The lowest number of written office referrals at the school site
4. High in the four areas of EI based on principal perception

Instrumentation

When conducting qualitative research, the researcher is known as the primary instrument of the study (Patten, 2012; Patton, 2015). Due to the researcher being the instrument in a qualitative study, Pezalla, Pettigrew, and Miller-Day (2012) contended the unique personality, characteristics, and interview techniques of the researcher may influence how data are collected. As a result, a study may be biased based on how the researcher influenced the interviewee during data collection.

Data were collected through interviews with the participants. The researcher developed the interview protocol based on literature review and with guidance from the committee to determine which questions were most appropriate. The literature review revealed that independently, there was a great deal of research on the four elements of EI (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) and classroom management; however, little empirical research examined teacher EI and their use of the four elements in relation to classroom management. The researcher used concepts gleaned from the literature review and aligned them with the research questions to develop the interview questions. Once drafted, the questions were reviewed, edited, resubmitted, and then approved by the committee. The interview protocol (Appendix F) along with the informed consent for and other documentation were submitted to the Brandman University Institutional Review Board (BUIRB) for approval prior to data collection.

Validity and Reliability

Validity and reliability are key concepts in qualitative research (Lub, 2015). According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), validity refers to "the degree of congruence between the explanations of the phenomena and the realities of the world" (p. 330). In contrast, reliability describes the consistency within the analytical procedures (Golafshani, 2003). Qualitative researchers are responsible for demonstrating measures are in place to increase validity and ensure reliability of their research (Lub, 2015); however, discussion regarding the terms validity and reliability in relation to qualitative research exist (Nobel & Smith, 2015). This study utilized alternative terminology

endorsed by Lincoln and Guba (1994), which include credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability.

Credibility

Credibility is concerned with "the extent to which the results of a study approximate reality and are thus judged to be trustworthy and reasonable" (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010, p. 486). McMillan and Schumacher (2010) asserted that "credibility is enhanced when the research design provides an opportunity to show relationship and takes into account potential sources of error that may undermine the quality of the research and may distort findings or conclusions" (p. 102). Although attention to careful design of the study occurred, McMillan and Schumacher (2010) cautioned not all potential sources of error can be completely controlled. To address credibility the researcher used an expert panel, field test, and respondent validation.

An expert panel consisting of a retired assistant superintendent, a retired middle school principal, and retired middle school teacher reviewed the interview questions and provided feedback for potential modifications and additions. After the expert panel approved the interview protocol, a field test interview was conducted with three non-participant teachers who meet the criteria for the study to gather information about potential modifications to the process and questions. After the field test interview, the participants were asked follow-up questions (Appendix G) to elicit feedback and necessary modifications were made. Additionally, an independent observer was used during the field test to look for body language and level of comfort of the participants during the interview to provide feedback to the interviewer. The independent observer was asked to respond to feedback questions (Appendix H) to help improve the process.

In addition to the use of an expert panel and field test, the researcher kept a journal. The researcher journal was used to document pre-interview communications, interview dates, and observations during each step of the process. This allowed the researcher to reflect and evaluate the project as it developed. The researcher journal was used to (1) evaluate the effectiveness of the techniques used to gather data, (2) record impressions of each interview session, (3) locate patterns that emerged in the data, and (4) record any theories that were generated.

A final measure to address credibility was the use of respondent validation. Creswell (2007) reported respondent validation was significant to increasing credibility of a study. Each participant was given the opportunity to review notes and transcripts for validation. A study was said to be credible once the participants agreed the researcher accurately captured their view (Creswell, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Notes were validated at the end of each interview and a transcript of the recorded interview was sent to each participant for review. Follow-up conversations to discuss concerns or corrections were held as needed before data analysis began.

Transferability

Transferability was defined as the ability of the research results to be generalized to other contexts (Patton, 2015). Marshall and Rossman (1989) explained transferability as "demonstrating the applicability of one set of findings to another context" (p. 144). To increase transferability, the researcher stated the parameters of the study so other researchers could determine if it could be transferred or generalized to other settings. Another method of enhancing a study's transferability is the use of multiple sources of data. Data from each of the 12 participants was used to corroborate, elaborate, or

illuminate the research questions. Using multiple informants or more than one data-gathering technique greatly strengthened the usefulness of the research. To ensure transferability in this study, the researcher used thick descriptions to document and specify the conditions linked to specific actions pertaining to the teachers with the fewest written office referrals.

Dependability

Dependability, a construct proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985), was defined as the ability of the researcher to document steps taken to conduct the study so other researcher's may replicate it. Dependability also referred to when the researcher accounted for changing conditions in the phenomenon and changes in the design (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The researcher provided detailed descriptions of the steps taken to complete the study so other researchers could replicate it. In doing so, it is also important to note this study was conducted using outlier sampling where each participant met certain criteria in which to participate in this study.

Conformability

Bloomberg and Volpe (2008) described conformability as the measure of how well the collected data supported the researcher's findings. Proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985), conformability is a way of ensuring a researcher objectivity. Marshall and Rossman (1989) suggested using research partners to critically question the researcher's analyses, searching for negative instances in the data, checking and rechecking data for alternative hypotheses, and asking questions about the data. To enhance conformability and limit bias, the researcher worked with a colleague versed in qualitative methodology to review data collection and analysis procedures.

Data Collection

Creswell (2014) asserted the steps for data collection are significant as they set the boundaries for the study. Creswell (2014) explained data collection for qualitative studies often included unstructured or semi-structured interviews, observations, and review of documents or other available artifacts. For this study, semi-structured interviews were used. Interviews were recorded and transcribed to ensure accurate collection. This study used a predetermined interview protocol that included follow-up and probing questions to gather additional information or elicit more details from participants.

Interview Strategies

Upon BUIRB approval, the researcher contacted the participants to set up a time for the interview. The following steps were taken:

1. Prior to conducting the interviews, an introductory letter was sent to the school administration (Appendix B)
2. A short questionnaire was sent to the principal asking him or her to identify teachers with high EI based on the four skill areas (Appendix C)
3. A letter was to sent to perspective participants identified by their principal inviting them to participate in the study (Appendix F)
4. The informed consent form, audio release, and Bill of Rights (Appendix E) were sent to perspective participants prior to the interview
5. The researcher conducted a 30-60-minute interview with each participant
6. The researcher began the interview by asking general experience in education questions

7. The researcher followed the interview protocol (Appendix D) asking two open-ended questions with 12 sub-questions to gain greater detail of the phenomenon
8. The researcher took observational notes during each interview
9. Interview recordings were transcribed and prepared for coding

Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues exist in any study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Patton, 2015). Creswell (2015) shared possible ethical issues included breach in confidentiality, not following informed consent, and limited benefits versus the risks of research.

Throughout the study, the researcher upheld the ethical standards of Brandman University. All data were kept confidential and stored in a locked cabinet. To protect the privacy of participants, fictitious names were assigned to participants and their places of employment. Before each interview, consent forms were reviewed and participants were reminded participation was voluntary and could be terminated at any time.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted once all interviews were completed. Moustaka's (1994) method of data analysis provided structure for the process of analyzing data. Moustaka's (1994) method includes the following steps:

1. Transcribe interviews and list all relevant expressions
2. Reduce experiences into the invariant constituents
3. Cluster themes create core themes
4. Compare themes across multiple data sources
5. Craft individual textural descriptions of participants

6. Construct individual structural descriptions
7. Construct composite structural descriptions
8. Synthesize the texture and structure descriptions into an expression

Qualitative research software NVivo was used to assist with the coding process. The coding process began as the researcher engaged in multiple readings of each interview transcript. The data were uploaded to NVivo and categorized into segments using various themes and codes. The researcher cross-checked emerging patterns to ensure they aligned to the research questions. Once the data were coded, frequencies of themes were calculated to identify patterns and key findings.

Inter-rater reliability was used to address the possibility of researcher bias or coding errors. Because the researcher is the instrument in qualitative studies, all coded data are subject to researcher bias (Patton, 2015). As such, a peer-researcher double-code 10% of the data obtained by the primary researcher with the goal of 90% agreement in coded data to be considered ideal and 80% agreement acceptable. According to Patton (2002), the identified data set and categories should be reproducible and tested by a second observer. The second observer should be able to verify the categories adequately describe the data and "the data have been properly fitted into it" (Patton, 2002, p. 466).

Limitations

The small number of participants was a limitation of this study, and thus findings may not be generalizable to other teachers or settings. The findings are also based on the perceptions of the participants, so they a limited by the openness and honesty of participants. This study attempted to minimize this impact by having multiple participants with similar profiles contribute to the study.

Summary

Chapter III supplied a review of the purpose and research questions for this study, followed by an outline of the methodology. Included in Chapter III was a description of the research design, population and sample, instrumentation, and procedures for data collection and analysis. Additionally, the study's limitations were addressed. Chapter IV presents the data and findings from the study. Finally, Chapter V provides a thorough explanation of the major findings, conclusions, proposals for action, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER IV: RESEARCH, DATA COLLECTION, AND FINDINGS

This qualitative phenomenological study allowed the researcher to explore the lives of middle school teachers to discover themes that contribute to the influence of emotional intelligence (EI) on classroom management among teachers with the fewest written referrals for behavioral misconduct. Chapter IV commences with a restating of the purpose of this study and the research questions, and provides a brief overview of the research methods and data collection procedures. This is followed by an overview of participant demographics. The second part of this chapter presents a narrative of the data analysis along with a summary of key findings.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to understand how middle school teachers describe their use of the four elements of EI (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) to reduce student behavioral referrals. In addition, it was the purpose of this study to discover the barriers and benefits to teacher use of the elements of EI.

Research Questions

Central Question

The central research question guiding this study was: How do middle school teachers describe their use of the four elements of EI (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) to reduce behavior referrals in their classrooms?

Sub Questions

1. What barriers do middle school teachers describe they experience in their use of the four elements of EI?
2. What benefits do middle school teachers describe they experience in their use of the four elements of EI?

Research Methods and Data Collection Procedures

This qualitative study utilized a phenomenological approach to describe and explore how middle school teachers use the four elements of EI (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) to reduce student behavioral referrals. Additionally, this study also explored the barriers and benefits to teacher use of the elements of EI. Data were collected through interviews with 12 middle school teachers who wrote the fewest office referrals for behavior misconduct. Each participant had a minimum two-years teaching experience and was identified by their respective principals as having high EI. A digital recording device was used to record each interview to ensure accuracy in the data review and analysis. Transcripts were created from these recordings and then coded for patterns and themes. The meaningful connection and contributions made by the participants throughout the data collection process provided the researcher with unique personal stories and perspectives that were translated into the findings.

The research questions, research design, and interview guide utilized for this study were approved by the BUIRB on November 6, 2017. Upon BUIRB approval, principals were contacted to identify possible participants who fit the criteria for the study. Potential participants were contacted through email and upon initial agreement to

participate in the study, appointments were made for interviews. Before each interview, the participant bill of rights, audio release, and informed consent form (Appendix D) were reviewed and signatures obtained. Each interview was conducted at the participant's school site. Upon completion of the 12 interviews, transcripts of the recorded interviews were made and copies were sent to each participant for verification and or modification.

A preliminary review of each interview transcript resulted in the initial identification of 13 themes. A peer-researcher was selected to check inter rater reliability to protect against research bias. The peer-researcher double-coded 10% of the data obtained by the primary researcher with 85% agreement on the coded data. NVivo software was then used to formalize the data coding process and further refine, consequently reducing the list to nine themes. The researcher cross-checked emerging patterns and themes to insure they aligned to the research problem.

Population and Sample

The population for this study was the 295, 025 teachers in the public school system in California (CDE, 2016). This study focused more specifically on the population of 46, 705 middle school and junior high school teachers. The target population was narrowed to those teachers in Los Angeles and San Bernardino Counties, which were chosen based on proximity to the researcher.

For this study, outlier sampling was used. Outlier sampling specifically searches for participants who do not fit the norm of the population. This type of sampling fit the study as it focused on teachers with the least number of written referrals for misbehavior. Potential participants were identified by their school principals as having a high level of

EI and as outliers in terms of writing referrals. Although 17 respondents were identified by their principals, 12 volunteered to participate in this study. The participants represented two counties and four school districts.

Demographic Data

Each of the 12 participating teachers met the study criteria; all four were current middle school teachers, had a minimum of two years of teaching experience, had the fewest written office referrals at their school site, and was identified by their principal as having high EI. Table 4 shows the demographic data for the study participants.

Table 4

Demographic Data for Study Participants

	Type of District	Gender	Years Experience	Years in MS	High in EI
Participant 1	E	F	17	3	X
Participant 2	E	F	19	16	X
Participant 3	E	M	22	2	X
Participant 4	U	M	21	3	X
Participant 5	U	M	20	17	X
Participant 6	U	M	10	4	X
Participant 7	E	F	7	7	X
Participant 8	E	F	23	6	X
Participant 9	U	F	14	2	X
Participant 10	U	F	16	9	X
Participant 11	U	M	20	10	X
Participant 12	J	F	20	12	X

Note. E=Elementary School District (governing K-8 in a single county), J=Joint School District (governing schools in multiple counties), U=Unified School District (governing K-12 in a single county)

Presentation and Analysis of Data

The data and findings presented in this chapter were derived using anecdotal accounts of lived experiences in response to scripted questions posed during personal interviews. Criteria for major themes was that a minimum of 75% of the participants had

common responses. The findings were reported based on the relationship to the central research question and three sub-questions.

Development of Themes and Frequencies

Following data collection, audio transcription, and verification, the researcher analyzed the data to form a preliminary list of 13 themes. NVivo software was used to formalize the data coding process and further refine the theme, consequently reducing the list to 8 themes. Table 5 outlines the 13 original themes 9 final themes.

Table 5

List of Original Themes and Final Themes

Original Themes	Final Themes
• Honesty is important • Having empathy is important • Relationships with students is important • Listening to students is important • Establishing respect is important • Modeling appropriate behavior is important • Establishing structure in the classroom is significant • Students home lives are a barrier to student/teacher relationship building • Clear communication both written and verbal is important • Trust between teacher and student is key • Having parents as part of the discipline process is important • Staying calm while handling student discipline is important • High expectations of self-discipline is important	• Building relationships with students is important • Establishing structure in the classroom is significant • Students home lives are a barrier to student/teacher relationship building • Providing clear written and verbal communications • Building trust between teacher and student • Having parents as part of the discipline process is important • Increased levels of trust are a benefit of EI • Limited Training for EI is a barrier • Student engagement is higher with use of EI

Originally, honesty was identified as a theme by 33% of participants (4 of 12). Upon secondary review, a larger theme emerged in the data regarding the importance of trust (9 of 12). Further refining of the list placed honesty under the umbrella of trust. Having empathy was originally identified as a theme mentioned by 3 of 12 (25%)

participants. Through further coding and modification of the list of themes, empathy was placed under the theme building relationships with students. Originally 5 of 12 (41%) participants identified listening to students as significant, but further refinement of the list placed listening under a larger theme of the importance of clear written and verbal communication, which was mentioned by 10 of 12 participants (83%). Respect and modeling appropriate behavior were also initially identified by 25% of participants, but upon further refinement this theme was captured under the theme establishing structure in the classroom. Table 6 presents the final list of themes, along with the percentage of respondents who mentioned the theme and the number of references.

Table 6

Themes Presented in Order of by Percentage of Respondents

Themes	Participants	Percent	# References
Building relationships with students is important	12	100	48
Establishing structure in the classroom is significant	12	100	22
Better relationships with students is a benefit of EI	12	100	38
Student engagement is higher with use of EI	10	83	18
Students home lives are a barrier to student/teacher relationship building	10	83	20
Providing clear written and verbal communications	10	83	32
Increased levels of trust are a benefit of EI use	9	75	24
Building trust between teacher and student	9	75	45
Limited Training for EI is a barrier	9	75	9

Note. n = 12

These themes were then assessed in conjunction with the theoretical framework and definitions of EI skills by Bradberry and Greaves (2009) who asserted using EI skills to harness emotions put people in a position to succeed. Table 7 outlines how the nine themes and four skills of EI aligned.

Table 7

Themes and Theoretical Framework

Themes	Self-Awareness	Self-Management	Social Awareness	Relationship Management
Building relationships with students is important	X	X	X	X
Establishing structure in the classroom is significant	X		X	X
Providing clear written and verbal communications	X	X	X	X
Building trust between teacher and student	X	X	X	X
Students home lives are a barrier to student/teacher relationship building			X	X
Limited training	X			
Better relationships with students			X	X
Student engagement is higher			X	X
Increased levels of trust			X	X

The findings of the study are presented in alignment of the nine themes and the four skills of EI. Although some themes are present in more than one EI skill, the perspective of the theme related to EI is different.

Findings for Research Sub-Question 1

Research Sub-Question 1 was: *How do middle school teachers describe their use of the four elements of EI to reduce student behavioral referrals in their classrooms?*

An analysis of the data yielded four major themes related to the research question: (a) building relationships, (b) establishing structure, (c) providing clear written and verbal communications, and (d) building trust between teacher and student. Table 8 presents these emergent themes with the percentage of participants indicating the theme and its alignment to the four elements of EI.

Table 8

Emergent Themes and their Relationship to EI Skills

Themes	n	%	SeA	SM	SoA	RM
Building relationships with students is important	12	100	X	X	X	X
Establishing structure in the classroom is significant	12	100	X		X	X
Providing clear written and verbal communications	10	83	X	X	X	X
Building trust between teacher and student	9	75	X	X	X	X

Note. SeA = self-awareness, SM = self-monitoring, SoA = social awareness, and RM = relationship management.

Building relationships with students is important. This theme was identified by 100% of participants as important for reducing behavior referrals in the classroom. In support of this theme, one participant stated, "I try to build relationships with my students to where they want to do better, and they want to improve." Another shared,

> I develop good relationships with my students. I put my effort into the student rather than the content they are learning. This allows me to not get frustrated when they aren't meeting academic expectations. I will counsel and talk with students about expectations when they are not being successful and this will usually help them behave.

In addition, a third participant recalled how she built relationships with students by pointing out the importance of showing genuine care and concern. Another participant described how building relationships with students helped them improve character, sharing,

> Relationships are essential, especially at the middle school level. You always have kids who want to learn but in this program, those aren't the

> kids we get. I think we get the kids who fell between the cracks in the educational system. They come with a boat load of behavior issues. They need lots of little steps of success. When they see that you care, they are willing to work hard for you.

Establishing structure in the classroom is significant. This theme was identified by 10 of 12 participants (83%). One participant expressed how important it was to begin the year setting expectations, saying "I have found that if I clearly communicate with my students in terms of expectations, then they will try harder to please me or make me happy." Another participant described how setting expectations in the classroom created the correct atmosphere for learning. She described a time where veteran students were able to clearly express expectations to new students entering the class, noting,

> I recall a day that I received three new students about mid-year… To my surprise my veteran students did not miss a beat! One of the new students mouthed off to me and before I could address the misbehavior students sitting at the table sternly let the new student know that type of disrespectful communication was not tolerated. They proceeded to point out the social contract they had all signed that outlined the expected conduct for peer-to-peer interactions as well as adult-to-student and student-to-adult interactions.

Providing clear written and verbal communications. This theme was identified by 83% of participants as significant to reducing behavioral referrals. This aligned with Hensley and Burmeister (2008) who reported communication determined

success or failure and whether individuals followed or left. One participant shared how she consistently used respectful communication with all students, reflecting,

> It is so important to train the students how to communicate clearly, respectfully to each other and to teachers and staff members. Many of these students don't know how to. They bring to their learning experience what they know, street. It is my responsibility to reach them to if I must communicate using street language, I will. Then, as time goes on bring in the proper way to communicate."

Another participant shared a story about a time when written communication helped improve student behavior. He described,

> I was truly at my wits end trying to figure out how to reach a group of students. They were acting out, getting referrals, getting sent home. I knew that is not what they wanted. They were placed in my class as a last resort. I started interactive journals. At first no one wanted to participate. Then one student agreed to write about his weekend. Some of the things he shared, it made me tear up…they were so personal and absolutely not what I expected coming from a student with such a tough exterior. Other students wrote responses in his journal. Before long, this became the activity the students wanted to do. They looked forward to the written communication. No one was disrespectful, everyone wanted the feedback, from me, from each other. Deviant behaviors went away… No more referrals, no more suspensions.

Building trust between teacher and student. This theme was deemed important by 9 of 12 (75%) participants. Hensley and Burmeister (2008) supported this theme and asserted trust was important in the maintenance of relationships. One participant explained, "I also create a relationship that is a trusting one that students know they can come to me if they are in need of help." Another participant advised part of gaining the trust of students was exhibiting honesty and shared,

> Be honest and be someone they can trust to be there for them no matter what they do or what mistakes they make. Help them to realize how much you care and how much you are willing to do for them so that they can get the education they need to be successful.

Sub-Question 2

What barriers do middle school teachers describe they experience in their use of the four elements of EI?

An analysis of the data yielded three major themes related to the second sub-question: (a) dysfunctional home life, (b) lack of clear communication with parents, and (c) limited training. Table 9 presents these emergent themes with the percentage of participants indicating the theme and its alignment to the four elements of EI.

Table 9

Barriers to Using EI Skills

Themes	n	%	SeA	SM	SoA	RM
Dysfunctional home life	12	100			X	X
Lack of clear communication with parents	10	83			X	
Limited training	9	75	X			

Note. SeA = self-awareness, SM = self-monitoring, SoA = social awareness, and RM = relationship management.

Student dysfunctional home life. All participants described student dysfunctional home life as a barrier to their use of EI. All 12 participants described situations where students believed they would amount to nothing. For example, one participant described,

> I tried to reason with my student and encourage her that her future could be whatever she wanted it to be. I could not get through to her! She firmly believed that she was too stupid to learn, something her parents said to her constantly …telling her she was dumb and stupid….and she believed it therefore, she refused to even try, felt it was no use. Nothing I could say, no strategy I could present made a difference…so many are that way…it is heartbreaking.

A second participant shared that a student's home life is a barrier often because their situations were often beyond typical interventions teachers could provide in the classroom, especially when related to personal, family, or peer problems. Another participant discussed students who came from families involved in gangs. He described a conversation he had with a student he was trying to encourage,

> He said to me that school didn't matter, that nothing mattered because he wasn't going to live very long anyway. His parents don't care what he does at school as long as he doesn't get in trouble that has the cops knocking on the door. What do you say to this? I feel helpless! I can't strip these students away from their dysfunctional homes.

A final participant recalled additional barriers when working with students who came from broken families. She shared;

> I have students whose home life is deplorable. Often one or both parents are incarcerated and they are being cared for by total strangers who don't care about education or worse, they are homeless and they don't want anyone to know they are living on the street. Many of these kids are run-a-ways. For too many of these children they are just trying to survive and what I'm presenting in the classroom has little to no importance. These are barriers that are insurmountable for me and it breaks my heart.

Lack of clear communication with parents. Participants of this study (10 of 12; 83%) identified lack of clear communication with parents as a barrier to effective use of EI in the classroom. One participant shared how a parent refused to speak with her concerning the student's behavior in class. She recalled the parent was argumentative and blamed the teacher for the child's poor behavior. Communications with the parent was unproductive and reinforced the deviant behavior of the student. Another participant shared how lack of communication with parents created a barrier to using EI in the classroom and cited the behavior of a child who refused to talk, sharing,

> It was very difficult to cultivate a relationship with the student or even figure out what the student's needs were. The parent wouldn't talk, the child wouldn't talk, it was just beyond me! Never had I been presented with such a situation! I even tried written communication. Nothing would come back from the parent.

Limited training. Participants (9 of 12; 83%) identified limited training as a barrier to their use of EI in the classroom. One participant expressed her dislike at how much time it took to get to a point where she felt confident in her ability to command a

classroom, sharing, “I feel so guilty about the many years I just wrote referrals to get the student out of my room.” Another participant agreed limited training was a barrier to her use of EI in the classroom and recalled a time when she battled a student for control of her own classroom, saying,

> Looking back at it now I can only be embarrassed and hope that those students weren’t damaged by my lack of emotional intelligence. I was horrible…I took everything personal….I did not take into consideration a student’s home life. I thought you are here to learn and I am here to teach and that is it. If students misbehaved it was because they were horrible and disrespectful and had no manners. I kicked them out of class. I was known for promoting that administrators get paid to deal with behavior issues. I just thought I had more training to teach than deal with behavior so that is what I did. It was difficult to ask for help…that was seen as a sign of weakness, so you didn’t ask for training.

Additional participants described the struggle they had to get trained in EI. For example, one participant shared,

> I was at the district office and overheard a conversation between two principals talking about a training they had gone to on emotional intelligence. They sounded so positive and excited about it that it intrigued me. I went to my site coach to ask about training, but he didn’t have any information. I talked to my principal, but that was a dead end as well… I called the district office; that training was for managers. It would not be offered to teachers. So, I trained myself… I went to the library, checked out books. Went to the book store, bought a few more. Looking

back, it should not have been so hard. Something this good, this helpful. It needs to be part of teacher training.

Another participant recalled receiving no training related to EI and little training on classroom management in her teacher credential classes. She said,

> There was no mention of emotional intelligence… There was only one class that dealt with classroom management and discipline. I was so surprised that there was only one small textbook. As difficult as it is to control students there needs to be an entirely separate credential or certification for that. I remember having so many questions in that class… I was terrified at the prospect of a student being defiant. If I had not done my own research, I think I may not have run across emotional intelligence. I may have left teaching altogether.

Sub Question 3

What benefits do middle school teachers describe they experience in their use of the four elements of EI?

An analysis of the data yielded three major themes related to Sub-Question 3: (a) better relationships with students, (b) higher student engagement, and (c) increased levels of trust. Table 10 presents these emergent themes with the percentage of participants indicating the theme and its alignment to the four elements of EI.

Table 10

Benefits to Using EI Skills

Themes	n	%	SeA	SM	SoA	RM
Better relationships with students	12	100			X	X
Higher student engagement	10	83			X	X
Increased levels of trust	9	75			X	X

Note. SeA = self-awareness, SM = self-monitoring, SoA = social awareness, and RM = relationship management.

Better relationships with students. Participants identified better relationships with students as a benefit of using EI in the classroom. One participant shared how using EI skills made building relationships with students easier, noting, "I am able to connect with them on their level as I am willing to listen to what they have to say. I have built a relationship with each and every one of them and their parents." Another participant shared how the benefit of using EI helped to build relationships with students not in his class, sharing,

> Kids talk to their friends about their teachers, much the same as teachers talk about students. I know my students talk to their friends about our relationship because their friends are respectful to me. When I walk by, they are pulling up their pants and I haven't said "pull up your pants." They stop cursing and make an effort to use more respectful language when they see me coming… Students that are friends of my students show me respect because their friends have talked to them about how I run my class, with emotional intelligence.

Higher student engagement. Participants (10 of 12; 83%) identified higher student engagement as a benefit of their EI skills. One participant shared how social awareness increased the level of engagement in her class, saying,

> Students were overly talkative. If I had not been socially aware, I would have called their attention to the lesson I had prepared and most likely spent the remainder of the time disciplining student about paying

attention. I would have completely missed out on using the topic of their conversation, which was about naming the next type of potato chip, as the topic for my lesson which was supply and demand. Because of my use of social awareness, student engagement was high and a higher percentage of students grasped a difficult concept. I still get students commenting on how cool that lesson was.

Another participant described a story of how he used EI to engage students who are not his own, sharing,

> Every so often I am called upon to period sub for a teacher who has had an emergency. Most teachers don't like to do it because the students typically misbehave. I enjoy doing it because I get to practice my EI skills on students that I don't engage with on a normal day. This is a benefit because I get to reflect on what worked and what didn't work so I can make adjustments and practice with my original students and ultimately improve. Overall, 100% of the time I successfully engage 100% of the students. Mind you, this is no easy task! There is no relationship established. Often, the kids don't even recognize you as a person of authority; they look at you as a substitute teacher and they give no respect. I tell myself, "be cool, it is just an hour." Scanning the room I pick up on who the heavy hitters are and I target them to get buy-in. I ask questions about the normal flow of the class. They feel empowered, I get information, I then pull in the rest of the class by offering to teach them one thing before letting them have free time. Immediately everyone is engaged.

Increased levels of trust. Participants (9 of 12; 75%) identified increased levels of trust as a benefit of using EI in the classroom. One participant shared how students let down their guard and share personal things, saying,

> Students feel safe to share things about their home life. They trust the relationship that has been built in the class. One student shared how she was in foster care because her mom had mental issues and one day tried to kill her baby sister in the bathtub. This student shared this information in open class forum. She trusted in the relationships that had been established in this class to share such personal information.

Another participant recalled a time when a student brought a family member to her for help, commenting,

> One year during conferences a student brought his older sister to me. He told me that she needed my help. She had dropped out of school, was in an abusive relationship with a boyfriend, and he trusted that I would help her. Emotional intelligence did this. If I had not been aware of my students needs beyond the academic such a relationship would not have formed and students would not have such levels of trust to bring me their home situations.

Summary

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to understand how middle school teachers describe their use of the four elements of EI (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) to reduce student behavioral referrals. In addition, it was the purpose of this study to discover the barriers

and benefits to teacher use of elements of EI. This chapter presented the data summarizing the major themes for the research questions. The data were derived from 12 semi-structured, face-to-face interviews. The data were coded and analyzed, which resulted in several emergent themes across the four EI elements. The analysis identified the lived experiences of teachers and the specific behaviors used to reduce the number of written office referrals for misbehavior.

Chapter V presents a final summary of the study, including major findings, unexpected findings, and conclusions. It also includes implications for action, recommendations for further research, and concluding remarks and reflections of the researcher.

CHAPTER V: FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to understand how middle school teachers described their use of the four elements of emotional intelligence (EI; self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) to reduce student behavioral referrals. In addition, it was the purpose of this study to discover the barriers and benefits to teacher use of the EI elements. The research questions for this study included a central question and three sub-questions. The central question was, *How do middle school teachers describe their use of the four elements of EI, self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management to reduce behavior referrals in their classrooms*? The sub-questions were:

1. How do middle school teachers describe their use of the four elements of EI to reduce student behavioral referrals in their classrooms?
3. What barriers do middle school teachers describe they experience in their use of the four elements of EI?
4. What benefits do middle school teachers describe they experience in their use of the four elements of EI?

This study used a qualitative phenomenological design, which consisted of personal interviews conducted with middle school teachers. The interviews were transcribed, entered into NVivo, and analyzed for emerging themes. The target population was middle school teachers teaching in Los Angeles County and San Bernardino County who were outliers in their schools by writing the fewest office referrals.

The sample consisted 12 teachers, 3 per district, who were considered outliers at their school site and fit the criteria for the study. To be considered a participant for the study participants needed to be currently teaching middle school, had a least two years of teaching experience, had the fewest written referrals in their school, and had high levels of EI based on principal perceptions.

Major Findings

After the interviews were transcribed, coded, and checked for emerging themes, several key findings emerged regarding how middle school teachers describe their use of the four elements of EI to reduce student behavioral referrals.

Key Finding 1

Teachers who were successful at using elements of EI to reduce student behavioral referrals tended to:

- Build relationships
- Set expectations
- Foster clear communication
- Build trust

Often, teachers set aside time throughout the day to focus on students' personal lived outside of school. Teachers also showed a strong tendency to set expectations and foster clear communication. Teachers who maintained clear and constant communication took time to establish relationships with their students, which aligned with findings from Marzano (2013), Wong (2010), and Savage (1999). These teachers spent time listening to students and paying close attention to non-verbal communication. Additionally, teachers showed built trust with their students. They used EI to guide their interactions.

Key Finding 2

Teachers who had the fewest office referrals described three barriers to using the four elements of EI:

- Student dysfunctional home life
- Lack of clear communication with parents
- Limited training in the use of EI

These findings were consistent with prior research. Canter (2010) explained not all students entered school understanding the teacher was someone who could be trusted as prior experience sometimes told them otherwise. Abusive or miscommunication was counterproductive and broke down relationships. All 12 participants described situations where students were brainwashed into believing they would amount to nothing. Teachers shared situations where parents would argue and deny there was a problem or refuse to communicate with them, pointing to both a dysfunctional home life and poor communication with parents.

Teachers also described their lack of training in the use of EI as a barrier. They described how early in their career they remember writing referrals just to get kids out of their rooms. Teachers also described situations where they battled misbehaving students for control of the classroom or battling administrators to get EI training. One teacher discussed reading books and teaching herself about EI so she could be more effective in the classroom.

Key Finding 3

Teachers with the fewest office referrals described primary benefits they experienced from using the four elements of EI in their classrooms:

- Better relationships with students
- Higher student engagement
- Increased levels of trust

Teachers described how using EI skills made building relationships with students easier. One even shared how using EI helped build relationships with students not in his classroom. Another teacher described a time when utilizing social awareness increased the level of engagement in her class. Overall, teachers indicated using EI in the classroom had positive effects for them as teachers and for their students.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, conclusions were drawn that related to how middle school teachers described their use of the four elements of EI (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) to reduce student behavioral referrals. Conclusions were also drawn about barriers and benefits to teacher use of EI.

Conclusion 1: Teachers successful at reducing the number of written office referrals build relationships with students

Teachers routinely used relationship management skills to manage misbehavior in the classroom, which reduced the number of written office referrals. Canter (2010) and Garrett (2015) asserted it was important for teachers to build relationships with each student. Strong relationships increased student and teacher attention to instruction and decreased classroom disruption (Bosworth & Judkins, 2014; Canter, 2010; Marzano, 2011). Marzano (2011) asserted students resist structure without the foundation of a

positive relationship between teacher and student. Supporting details for this conclusion included:

1. Teachers shared experiences of how they successfully built relationships with students
5. Teachers described how being aware of a student's background helped build relationships
6. Teachers awareness of their own emotions aided in reducing the number of written office referrals
7. Teachers described how being socially aware of what was going on in the environment aided in reducing the number of written office referrals

Conclusion 2: Teachers using EI have good relationships with students

Teachers who ask questions about their students' lives build relationships with their students. Students become accustomed to their teachers showing they care, which forms bonds. Bosworth and Judkins (2014) and Garrett (2015) reported teachers experienced decreased levels of disruptive behaviors in the classroom and students were also more apt to conform to the management of a teacher they respected. Supporting details for this conclusion included:

1. All teachers said they use EI skills to build better relationships with students
8. Teachers shared students felt comfortable going to them with a problem
9. Teachers shared that students opened up and gave intimate details about their home lives

Conclusion 3: Teachers using EI experience increased levels of trust from students

Students trust teachers when they have a strong relationship. Hensley and Burmeister (2008) asserted the most important skill to maintaining relationships was trust. Trust was built and maintained through clear and honest communication. If students did not understand teacher communication or there were problems such as dishonesty, harshness, or threatening language, students lost. Clear communication ensured students felt supported and safe to take risks, which increased trust. Supporting details for this conclusion included:

1. Teachers shared students trusted them to share their problems
10. Teachers shared they routinely took time to supply opportunities to foster support and create safety in the classroom

Conclusion 4: Student engagement is high in classrooms where teachers use EI

Teachers in tune with their classrooms foster higher levels of engagement in the lesson. Research found it was difficult for learning to occur in a classroom environment where classroom management was poorly structured and inadequately maintained (Canter, 2010; Jones et al., 2014; Marzano, 2011). Students must be engaged to learn. Support for this conclusion includes:

1. Teachers shared being socially aware of what was happening in the classroom helped keep students engaged and focused on the lesson
11. Teachers shared using EI skills helped engage 100% of students in a class where the students did not know him

Conclusion 5: Training for teachers in the skills of EI is needed

Jennings and Greenberg (2009) and Emmer and Stough (2001) agreed the need to focus on teacher EI exists. They also believe the assumption of school districts is teachers come equipped with EI to professionally handle all level of interactions with colleagues, parents, and students. They further report that emotional intelligence training is "rarely" part of teacher credentialing programs for pre-service teachers and ongoing professional development for existing teachers (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

Support for this conclusion included:

1. Teachers shared there were few EI professional development courses offered through their district
2. Teachers wished training existed in their district for teachers in EI
3. Teachers shared their classroom management would have developed much quicker had EI training been offered as part of their credentialing process

Implications for Action

EI and best practices for classroom management is an emerging field of study. Based on the findings and conclusions from this study, the following implications for action were derived:

1. In their continual effort to increase family relations, districts should provide professional development that includes EI and make it mandatory training for all personnel

12. Universities that offer teacher credentialing should modify courses and certifications offered in their education program to include an EI certification

13. School districts should offer EI professional development for tenured teachers and use EI inform hiring and retention practices
14. School districts enhance professional learning communities at individual sites through ongoing EI training and support
15. School districts should add elements of EI to the content standards of teacher evaluations to ensure consistency and adjust the culture of schools
16. Schools should create a training program about EI and offer it to parents
17. Schools should create EI classes to support to at-risk youth as teaching them about EI could provide the support needed to change the course of their lives

Recommendations for Further Research

Based on the findings and limitations from this study, further research related to EI and best practices for classroom management is recommended in the following areas:

1. The current study focused on how middle school teachers with the fewest written office referrals use EI. Future research should include a study into the EI of teachers with the highest numbers of written office referrals as a comparison.
18. The current study focused on teachers at the middle school level successful at limiting the number of written office referrals. Future studies should focus on teachers at the elementary level as well as high school level in the general education setting successful at limiting the number of written office referrals.
19. The current study focused on middle school teachers regardless of the subject taught. Future research should include a study into the EI of teachers teaching specific subjects with the fewest written office referrals in the content area.

20. The current study focused on teachers at the middle school level successful at limiting the number of written office referrals. Future studies should focus on teachers with high EI who also have high test scores.
21. The current study focused on four schools in two counties. To contrast best practices and areas of challenge, future studies should focus on counties across the U.S.
22. The current study focused on teacher EI. Future studies should focus on teacher EI and best practices for teacher/parent interaction.

Concluding Remarks and Reflections

At the age of 14, I knew I wanted more out of life. At first the goal was simply to break free of the cycle of poverty that raged through my family. School was the answer. The more knowledge I gained, the more I wanted to acquire. Acquiring knowledge was only satisfying when I was able to share it. Teaching gave me that ability to reach back and help my students and family as well. Even with my success with teaching, I wanted more. Completing doctoral studies provided the "more."

This dissertation journey was an adventure unlike any I experienced. It altered my life in ways I could not imagine. During this process, people entered my life and taught me lessons I did not know I needed to learn. In short, I grew. Researching the topic of EI was exciting! I was learning about something I had never heard of and I could not get enough. Once I began interviewing teachers with high EI, hearing the lived experiences of how they used the four skills of EI in their classrooms helped fill the gap in my understanding of how some teachers had lower written referrals than others. By

far, conducting the interviews and performing data analysis was the most educational part of the research process.

Conducting this research changed my life in many ways. I can now say I know what it means to be emotionally intelligent. I learned a great deal from each of the participants interviewed in this study. Learning from their shared experiences, the passion and love of working with difficult to reach students conveyed to me a deep-seated hope ever burning in their hearts, which keeps them coming back day after day.

As I step into leadership, it is my desire to take with me the lessons I learned through this process to reach back and help those for whom I blazed a trail. I hope readers of this dissertation are inspired to further this research and dig deeper into teacher EI and best practices for classroom management.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A - BUIRB APPROVAL

Institutional Review Board **<my@brandman.edu>** No v 6

Dear Juanita Dixon,

Congratulations, your IRB application to conduct research has been approved by the Brandman University Institutional Review Board. This approval grants permission for you to proceed with data collection for your research. Please keep this email for your records, as it will need to be included in your research appendix.

If any issues should arise that are pertinent to your IRB approval, please contact the IRB immediately at BUIRB@brandman.edu. If you need to modify your BUIRB application for any reason, please fill out the "Application Modification Form" before proceeding with your research. The Modification form can be found at the following link: https://irb.brandman.edu/Applications/Modification.pdf.

Best wishes for a successful completion of your study.

Thank you,
Doug DeVore, Ed.D.
Professor
Organizational Leadership
BUIRB Chair
ddevore@brandman.edu
www.brandman.edu

APPENDIX B - LETTER TO PRINCIPAL

Site Administrator,

My name is Juanita Dixon and I am a doctoral candidate at Brandman University. I am currently researching teacher emotional intelligence and best practices for classroom management. I respectfully request a 15 minute meeting with you for the purpose of identifying teachers at your site that meet the criteria of my study. During the meeting I would ask that you answer a short 2 question survey to identify teachers with your perception of high emotional intelligence and the fewest number of written office referrals.

Thank you for your assistance.

Kindly,

Juanita Dixon

APPENDIX C - PRINCIPAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Emotional intelligence is one's ability to recognize and understand emotions in others as well as oneself. Based on the aforementioned definition of emotional intelligence, which teacher or teachers do you perceive to have high emotional intelligence in the following 4 areas of Self-management, self-awareness, relationship management, and social awareness?

Self-management- your ability to use awareness of your emotions to actively choose what you say and do

Self-awareness- knowing yourself as you really are

Social-Awareness- looking outward to learn about and appreciate others

Relationship Management- your ability to use awareness of your emotions to actively manage relationships

Participant Criteria

1. Each participant is a current middle school teacher.

2. Each participant has a minimum of 2 years of classroom teaching experience.

3. Each participant has the lowest number of written office referrals at their school-site.

Based on principal perception the following perspective participants are high in the 4 areas of EI.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

APPENDIX D - INFORMED CONSENT FORM

INFORMATION ABOUT: Teacher Emotional Intelligence and Best Practices for Classroom Management.

RESPONSIBLE INVESTIGATOR: Juanita Dixon, Ed.D. candidate.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY: You are being asked to participate in a research study conducted by Juanita Dixon, a doctoral candidate in the Brandman University School of Education, part of the Chapman University system. The purpose of this phenomenological study is to understand how middle school teachers describe their use of the four elements of EI (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) to reduce student behavioral referrals. In addition, it was the purpose of this study to discover the barriers and benefits to the teacher's use of the elements of EI.

This study will fill in the gap in the research regarding teacher emotional intelligence and best practices for classroom management. The review of literature revealed an abundance of research around emotional intelligence, with the limited studies on teacher emotional intelligence. While emotional intelligence and best practices for classroom management is addressed, very few other works concentrate on teacher emotional intelligence and best practices for classroom management.

The results of this study may assist higher education, district level personnel, school administrators, and teachers to better understand the role of teacher emotional intelligence. This study may also provide much needed contribution to a body of wider research that has a gap in teacher emotional intelligence and best practices for classroom management.

By participating in this study I agree to participate in a one-on-one interview. The one-on-one interview will last between 30 and 60 minutes and will be conducted in person. The interview will be recorded and transcribed to search for themes. This research will begin and conclude between October 2017 and March 2018.

I understand that:
a) There are minimal risks associated with participating in this research. I understand that the Investigator will protect my confidentiality by keeping the identifying codes and research materials in a locked file drawer that is available only to the researcher.

b) The possible benefit of this study to me is that my input may help add to the research regarding teacher emotional intelligence and best practices for classroom management.

The findings will be available to me at the conclusion of the study and will provide new insights about the study of teacher emotional intelligence and classroom management which I participated. I understand that I will not be compensated for my participation.

c) If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Laurie Wellner, Ed.D. at lwellner@.brandman.edu.

d) My participation in this research study is voluntary. I may decide to not participate in the study and I can withdraw at any time. I can also decide not to answer particular questions during the interview if I so choose. I understand that I may refuse to participate or may withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences. Also, the Investigator may stop the study at any time.

e) No information that identifies me will be released without my separate consent and that all identifiable information will be protected to the limits allowed by law. If the study design or the use of the data is to be changed, I will be so informed and my consent reobtained. I understand that if I have any questions, comments, or concerns about the study or the informed consent process, I may write or call the Office of the Vice Chancellor of Academic Affairs, Brandman University, at 16355 Laguna Canyon Road, Irvine, CA 92618, (949) 341-7641.

I acknowledge that I have received a copy of this form and the "Research Participant's Bill of Rights". I have read the above and understand it and hereby consent to the procedure(s) set forth.

_____

Signature of Participant or Responsible Party

_____

Signature of Principal Investigator

_____

Date

APPENDIX E

BRANDMAN UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

Research Participant's Bill of Rights

Any person who is requested to consent to participate as a subject in an experiment, or who is requested to consent on behalf of another, has the following rights:

1. To be told what the study is attempting to discover.
2. To be told what will happen in the study and whether any of the procedures, drugs or devices are different from what would be used in standard practice.
3. To be told about the risks, side effects or discomforts of the things that may happen to him/her.
4. To be told if he/she can expect any benefit from participating and, if so, what the benefits might be.
5. To be told what other choices he/she has and how they may be better or worse than being in the study.
6. To be allowed to ask any questions concerning the study both before agreeing to be involved and during the course of the study.
7. To be told what sort of medical treatment is available if any complications arise.
8. To refuse to participate at all before or after the study is started without any adverse effects.
9. To receive a copy of the signed and dated consent form.
10. To be free of pressures when considering whether he/she wishes to agree to be in the study.

If at any time you have questions regarding a research study, you should ask the researchers to answer them. You also may contact the Brandman University Institutional Review Board, which is concerned with the protection of volunteers in research projects. The Brandman University Institutional Review Board may be contacted either by telephoning the Office of Academic Affairs at (949) 341-9937 or by writing to the Vice Chancellor of Academic Affairs, Brandman University, 16355 Laguna Canyon Road, Irvine, CA, 92618.

APPENDIX F - SCRIPT FOR INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Time of Interview:

Date:

Place:

Interviewer: Juanita Dixon

Interviewee:

Beginning of interview:

One-on-One Interview Protocol

Good Morning/Afternoon/Evening Mr./Mrs. _____,

a) *Thank you again for agreeing to participate in this interview. As part of my dissertation research for the doctorate of education degree in Organizational Leadership at Brandman University, I'm conducting interviews with 12 middle school teachers, each identified by your respective principals as being successful in limiting the number of student behavioral referrals. You were asked to participate because you are one of those teachers and your experience and expertise are important and will contribute to how we can improve our success in this area.*

-

b) *The purpose of the interview is to learn about your experiences as a teacher with the least number of written office referrals and your use of relationship management, social awareness, self-awareness, and self-management when handling misbehavior in the classroom.*

c) *The interview should take approximately 45 to 60 minutes and will include eleven questions, with possible follow-up questions if further clarification is needed.*

d) *Any information that is obtained in connection to this study will remain confidential. All of my data will be reported without reference to an individual or an institution. I want to make this interview is as comfortable as possible for you, so at any point during the interview you can ask that I skip a particular question or discontinue the interview.*

e) *For ease of our discussion and to ensure I capture your thoughts accurately I will record our conversation as indicated in the Informed Consent. Thank you.*

f) *Do you have any questions before we begin?*

- *Before we begin the actual interview please, tell me a little bit about yourself and your experience as an educator*

Specific Script Questions

General Question

1. How long have you been a teacher? How long have you been teaching at the middle school level? If you were asked to list three or four reasons as to why you are successful in limiting student referrals, what would they be**?**
2. We know that establishing good relationships with your students is important. One aspect of building a good relationship is communication between you and your students. As you reflect upon how you communicate with your students at

the middle school level, what do you believe are the most important aspects of communicating?

3. Another aspect of having good relationships with your students is providing a safe and supportive environment. I realize that you can't be all things to everyone, but is this an area that you have consciously focused upon in your work with your students? ***If the answer is yes,*** What are those things that you have done in this area?
4. Students will often act out, thus, possibly ending up in a referral. Do you have a set of stress reducers that you try to try to use with your students? ***If the answer is yes,*** What are those things that you have been successful with in this area?
5. It has been stated that "without trust, there is no relationship." How would you respond to this statement? Do you often use the word, "trust" in conversations with students?
6. When students act out, you as the teacher obviously have your own feelings to deal with in the heat of the student's behavior. And, of course, not all decisions are made in the best of situations. What do you see as important considerations for you so your actions don't add fuel to the fire?
7. Have you ever initiated conversations with other teachers or administrators regarding how you handle or should handle delicate student behavior situations? ***If yes,*** Is this a normal practice for you? How important do you believe it is to use outside sources to discuss such situations?
8. All teachers have a tool box of strategies that they use when dealing with student issues. Some of these tools you would see yourself as being very strong. Others,

maybe not so much. Research suggests that an important tool when dealing with student behavioral issues is to anticipate problems before they happen. When you reflect on your set of tools when working with students, is this something that you're able to do? Is this one of your stronger tools? ***If yes,*** Is this a learned skill or just something you innately are able to do?

9. Let's look at the big picture as you interact with your students in all kinds of situations. Your skills in this area are high. But in a relative sense you have strengths and you have relative shortcomings. Considering all that we've talked about during our time together, what you consider to be your strengths and your shortcomings when dealing with students' behavioral issues.
10. We have focused on your successful experiences with altering student behavior so as to reduce the probability that you would refer students for disciplinary reasons. But none of us is perfect. We do have the line that "thou shalt not cross." Where is that line for you? Under what circumstances would you refer a student for disciplinary reasons?
11. No matter how hard you try, there typically, there will be barriers that prevent you from doing and being all you can be when interacting with students. As you reflect upon your experiences, what barriers have you experienced that make it tougher than you think it should be? Are there things that just keep getting in the way that make it harder?

APPENDIX G

Interview Feedback Reflection Questions for Facilitator

1. How long did the interview take? Did the time seem to be appropriate? Did the respondents have ample opportunities to respond to questions?

2. Were the questions clear or were there places where the respondents were unclear?

3. Were there any words or terms used during the interview that were unclear or confusing to the respondents?
    -

4. How did you feel during the interview? Comfortable? Nervous?
    -

5. Did you feel prepared to conduct the interview? Is there something you could have done to be better prepared?
    -

6. What parts of the interview went the most smoothly and why do you think that was the case?
    -

7. What parts of the interview seemed to struggle and why do you think that was the case?
    -

8. If you were to change any part of the interview, what would that part be and how would you change it?
    -

9. What suggestions do you have for improving the overall process?

Field Test Participant Feedback

After the interview ask the field test interviewees the following questions.

Make it a friendly conversation. Either script or record their feedback.

1. How did you feel about the interview? Do you think you had ample opportunities to describe what you do as a leader when working with your team or staff?

2. Did you feel the amount of time for the interview was ok?

3. Were the questions by and large clear or were there places where you were uncertain what was being asked? If the interview indicates some uncertainty, be sure to find out where in the interview it occurred.

4. Can you recall any words or terms being asked about during the interview that were confusing?
    -

5. If you were to change any part of the interview, what would that part be and how would you change it?

6. And finally, did I appear comfortable during the interview… (I'm pretty new at this)?

APPENDIX I - SYNTHESIS MATRIX

Teacher Emotional Intelligence and Best Practices for Classroom Management

Source	Schoolwide Discipline	Classroom Management	Best Practices	Emotional Intelligence	4 EQ Skills 1. Relationship Management 2. Social Awareness 3. Self-Awareness 4. Self-Management	EI and Education
Acosta, J, Chinman, M., Engberg, J., Augustine, C. (2015).	X		X			
Andrews, D. A., Bonta, J., & Wormith, J. (2006).		X				
Akin, S., Yildirim, A., & Goodwin, A. L. (2016).		X	X			
Atwater and Yammarino, (1992)					X	
Backes, C. E., & Ellis, I. C. (2003).		X	X			
Baer, D. & Gillett, R. (2015, July 29).			X	X		
Bandura, A. (1997).		X	X			
Bar-On, (1997)					X	
Barrios, M. (2016).				X	X	X
Bradberry, T., Graves, J. (2006).				X	X	
Bradberry, T., Graves, J. (2009).				X	X	
Brown, L. H., & Beckett, K. S. (2006).	X	X				
Canter, L. (2010)		X	X			
Caron, S. (2011).		X				
Corcoran, R. P., & Tormey, R. (2012).		X		X		X
Cortiella, C. (2006)			X			
Curwin, Mendler, & Mendler, 2008		X	X			
Erdoğan, M., Kurşun, E., Şışman, G. T., Saltan, F., Gök, A., & Yildiz, İ. (2010). A		X	X			
Fosnot, C. T., (2013).		X				
Garaus, C., Furtmuller, G., & Guttel, W. H. (2016).		X	X			
Garrett, T. F. (2015).		X				
Gill, Ramsey, & Leberman 2015				X	X	

Goleman, D. (n.d.).				X	X	
Gonzales, L., & Young, C. (2015).			X			
Hensley & Burmeister, (2008)					X	
Jones, F. (2000).		X	X			
Jones, F. H., Jones, P. & Jones, J. L. (2007).		X	X			
Jones, S., S., Bailey, R., & Jacob, R. (2014).		X	X	X		X
Kauchak, D., Eggen, P. (2012).		X	X			
Koruklu, N., Feyzıoğlu, B., Özenoğlu-Kıremıt, H., & Aladağ, E. (2012).		X				
Kounin, J. (1970).	X	X	X			
Landrum, T. J., Lingo, A. S., & Scott, T. M. (2011).		X	X			
Libbrecht and Lievens, (2012)				X	X	
Macleod, G., MacAllister, J., & Pirrie, A. (2012).			X			
Mayer, J. D.; Salovey, P., Caruso, D. R. (2008).				X	X	
Mayer, J. D., Barsade, S. G., & Roberts, R. D. (2008).				X	X	
Marzano, R. J., Frontier, T., & Livingston, D. (2011).		X	X			
Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., Panter, A., & Salovey, P. (2012).				X	X	
McLeod, S. A. (2016).			X			X
Mendez, L. M. R. (2003).		X				
Peterson, M. D. (2007).		X	X			
Peifer, A. (2014).						
Platsidou, M. (2010).				X		
Rahim, M. A., Civelk, I., & Feng Helen, L. (2016).				X		
Ramana, T. V. (2013).				X		X
Reinke, W. M., Herman, K. C., & Stormont, M. (2013).	X	X	X			
RTI Action Network. 2008	X		X			
Salkind, N. (2015).						
Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. (1990).				X	X	
Sanders, N. E. (2009).	X	X				
Savage, T. V., & Savage, M. K. (2010).		X	X			
Schutte, N.S., Malouff, J.M., Hall, L.E., Haggerty, D.J., Cooper, J.T., Golden, C.J., et al. (1998).				X		
Serrat, (2017)					X	
Simonsen, B., Sugai, G., &		X				

Negron, M. (2008).						
Turner, L., Chriqui, J. F., & Chaloupka, F. J. (2012).		X	X			
Vincent, C. G., & Tobin, T. J. (2011).	X	X	X			
Walton, (2012)					X	
Wannarka, R., & Ruhl, K. (2008).		X	X			
Wellner, L. L. (2009).			X			
Wong, H. (2009).		X	X			
Wubbolding, R. E. (2007).		X				
Young, M. D., Plotnikoff, R. C., Collins, C. E., Callister, R., & Morgan. (2014).				X		
Zakrzewski, V. (2013)				X		
Zeeman, R. D. (2006)..		X				
Zehr, M. (2011). A		X				