

DEVELOPING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE COMPETENCIES IN
TEACHERS THROUGH GROUP-BASED COACHING

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Abstract

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Emotional Intelligence (EI) has been positively associated with success in the educational and corporate world, and has recently been linked with effective teaching. However, while it has been shown to be a learnable skill, studies of EI development in teachers are relatively rare. The present study explores the impact of a two-year, group-based EI coaching programme upon EI competencies and personal and professional effectiveness in teachers, the processes and experiences induced by the programme, and the elements which contributed to its success.

The study was conducted in a single secondary school in Israel, and employed an interpretive, qualitative framework and a mixed-methods approach. In-depth, semi-structured interviews with twenty of the twenty-one training-programme participants were conducted at the end of the training and comprised the main research tool. Additionally, data from pre-post training Bar-On EQ-i assessments served to prompt discussions during the interviews, validate interview findings, and further illuminate the EI development process.

The findings confirm links between EI and teachers' effectiveness and indicate that EI competencies in teachers can be developed through group-based EI coaching. Stages in the EI development process and elements that supported it have been identified. It is suggested that dedicated EI development training programmes have the potential to improve personal and professional effectiveness in teachers and may lead to organisational, school-wide EI implementation. Accordingly, development of personal EI competencies in teachers within school-based CPD programmes should be favourably considered.

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Abbreviations

| | |
|--------|--|
| CASEL | Collaboration for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning |
| CPD | Continuing Professional Development |
| CREIO | Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organisations |
| ECI | Emotional Competence Inventory |
| EI | Emotional Intelligence |
| EQ | Emotional Quotient |
| EQ-i | Emotional Quotient inventory |
| MSCEIT | Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test |
| MHS | Multi Health Systems |
| PCL | Psychological Consultancy Limited |
| RTS | Response to Teaching Situations |
| SEL | Social Emotional Learning |
| TDA | Training and Development Agency for schools |

Chapter One: Introduction

This thesis explores the impact of group-based Emotional Intelligence (EI) training on teachers and schools. Emotional intelligence, a relatively new concept which concerns the effective integration of emotions and cognition, has been argued to impact upon a variety of life aspects, including professional effectiveness. The present study had been prompted by perceived shortcomings in teacher-training programmes, in particular in the Israeli education system, in terms of EI development. While the study was conducted in Israel, findings and conclusions may well apply to other education systems.

1.1 General Background

Israeli schools, like those in much of the Western world, emphasise academic achievements and learning skills, both of which are considered primary predictors of future success (e.g. Goleman, 1995; Elias et al, 1997; Rosman et al., 1997; Smith, 2004; Avidan et al., 2005; Tal, 2005; Nelson et al., 2006; Bar-On, 2007a; Fernandez-Berrocal and Ruiz, 2008). However, academic performance in Israeli schools has been constantly declining (e.g. Ben-Asuli and Shayek, 2003; Lior, 2008; Yogeve, 2008), placing Israel at the bottom of the OECD list of academic achievements (National Task Force for the Advancement of Education in Israel, 2005).

At the same time, disciplinary and behavioural problems, truancy, risk behaviours and violence are on the rise (e.g. Benbenishti et al., 2003; Tal, 2005; Kfir and Ariav, 2008; Trabelsi-Hadad, 2008), in spite of prevention programmes designed to counter them (Ben-Asuli and Shayek, 2003; Amir, 2006). Thus, notwithstanding impressive

academic achievements during the first decades since the country's establishment, there is now a growing sense of an educational crisis (e.g. National Task Force for the Advancement of Education in Israel, 2005; Ariav, 2008; Kfir and Ariav, 2008).

A 2008 State Ombudsman Report argued that Israeli schools had failed to deal with these various problems. Although most Israeli schools claim to employ a 'whole child' approach, programmes aimed at enhancing social skills, life skills and general values typically comprise only a small part of school curricula. Parents and students (a term used throughout this thesis to describe school children of all ages) testify that schools fail to prepare children for adult life (Amir, 2006; Shavit and Blank, 2011).

Furthermore, even as Israeli schools struggle to deal with a complex social reality, including ethnic and religious tensions, growing social and economic gaps, the presence of large minority groups, a high immigration rate and a search for communal identity (National Task Force for the Advancement of Education in Israel, 2005), teachers are often targeted for criticism and often bear the brunt for many of Israeli society ills (Ariav, 2008; Kfir and Ariav, 2008; Wilf and Wilf, 2008; Apeloig and Shalev-Vigiset, 2010). Teachers, for their part, face a continuous erosion of their status, and often feel disrespected, unsupported (Ariav, 2008; Wilf and Wilf, 2008) and frustrated (Apeloig and Shalev-Vigiset, 2010). Concurrently, Israeli students often report experiencing some form of violence during their years at school (e.g. Benbenishti et al., 2003; Ombudsman report, 2008; Gotlieb, 2009), and the number of students reporting verbal abuse from teachers is also on the rise (Benbenishti et al., 2006; Shir, 2010).

According to Wilf and Wilf (2008), these latter findings may owe to the fact that teachers are not trained to effectively deal with the many challenges that face them in the modern classroom. Indeed, in one survey among 600 Israeli teachers, two thirds of the respondents noted that they are not well equipped to deal effectively with such problems (Smith and Pniel, 2003).

At the end of 2003, the Israeli government appointed a national task force to thoroughly examine the Israeli education system and to recommend ways to improve it. The resulting National Plan for Education (Task Force for the Advancement of Education in Israel, 2005), also known as the Dovrat report, noted a decrease in status, salaries and quality of teaching among Israeli teachers. Proposals to improve the quality of teaching among Israeli teachers included raising the entry level for teaching-certificate programmes (a measure which is based on academic achievements) and demanding that teachers participate in advanced continual professional development programmes (CPD) which would focus on both academic and pedagogic subjects.

The above proposals touch upon questions that are central to the Israeli education system, as well as to education systems world wide: What elements contribute to teacher effectiveness, how can teacher effectiveness be enhanced, and what professional development is required for teachers to overcome the above-noted challenges and to perform effectively. Indeed, Stein and Book (2000: p. 245) reported that one of the questions most frequently posed to the Multi-Health Systems cooperation research staff (publishers of psychological assessments, including EI tests) is ‘What makes a great teacher?’

1.1.1 Teacher effectiveness

During the last two decades a considerable body of research has indicated that beyond abilities and backgrounds, students' achievements are highly dependent on the schools in which they study (Sammons, 1999). In particular, teachers have been noted to significantly impact upon students' school success (e.g. Darling-Hammond, 2000; Leithwood et al., 2004; Muijs, 2006; Beller, 2009) and variation in quality of teachers was found to be the main contributor to variation in students' academic achievements (e.g. Muijs and Reynolds, 2002; The McKinsey Report, 2007). Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that students who had been assigned to one ineffective teacher after another had achieved significantly less than those who had been assigned to a sequence of effective teachers, suggesting that teachers' impact is cumulative (Anderson, 2004).

The question of what makes a teacher more or less effective has occupied educational researchers for several decades (Muijs and Reynold, 2002), and was perceived as crucial for understanding and improving education (Muijs, 2006). While credentials and formal academic records are often used to predict teacher effectiveness (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Darling-Hammond et al., 2001; Beller, 2009), Day et al. (2007) drew a distinction between quality and qualifications in teachers. Furthermore, there is now a wide agreement among educators, administrators, policy makers and researchers that teachers' personal characteristics are inexorably linked with the effectiveness of both teachers and schools (e.g. Anderson, 2004; Guterman and Jacob, 2004; Timperly, 2008; Avdor, 2009). Thus, teaching is increasingly being viewed as a broad, complex, dynamic and interactive work (Sammons, 1999). Recent studies have acknowledged the many roles that teachers play, examined effectiveness across these various roles

(Robitaille, 2007; Geo et al., 2008), and sought to elucidate the many factors which can positively or negatively impact upon teacher effectiveness (Day et al., 2007). In particular, such studies have looked into teachers' knowledge (general and pedagogical) and behaviours, personalities, beliefs and attitudes, self-efficacy and motivation, and have examined their impact upon teacher effectiveness (Muijs and Reynolds, 2002).

1.1.2 Common characteristics of effective teaching

Given the complexity and multi-dimensional nature of teaching (e.g. Stronge et al., 2004), no one definition of effective teaching has been universally accepted (Ornstein, 1990b; Kyriacou, 1998; Archer, 2004; Geo et al., 2008; Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2008). Instead, several complex sets of characteristics and interrelated variables, all closely related to effective teaching, have been noted (e.g. Calabria, 1960; Day et al., 2007; Rubio, 2009), and some of these characteristics have become widely agreed upon (e.g. Haskett, 2003; Anderson, 2004).

Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008) suggested that teachers' questions of and responses to students, their attitudes towards students, their classroom management techniques, their teaching methods and their general expectations and teaching behaviours (sometimes referred to as classroom climate), are all related to their effectiveness. Similarly, while knowledge of content and pedagogic knowledge, class management and instruction skills are among as the most common characteristics associated with effective teaching, other frequently noted elements include reflection and communication skills; commitment, care and motivation; the ability to create positive and nurturing learning environments and positive student-teacher relationships; the

ability to treat students as individuals with fairness and respect and to address diversity in students; and the ability to promote enthusiasm in students and engage them in learning (Kyriacou, 1998; Sammons, 1999; Muijs and Reynold, 2002; Stronge et al., 2004; Boyle et al., 2005; Robitaille, 2007; Stronge, 2007; Pisga, 2008; Rubio, 2009). Stronge et al. (2004) suggested that such qualities are characteristic of the 'teacher as a person' (p.29).

Archer (2004) noted the importance of the abilities to promote self-efficacy in learners, to become role models, to strive for self improvement and to collaborate. Indeed, Walker (2001) noted that modelling is the most powerful learning tool for students. Finally, based on a large-scale study conducted in the UK by Hay McBer (2000), Anderson (2004) suggested additional characteristics such as self confidence and initiative, and leadership skills including flexibility, accountability and passion for learning. Advocating a similar broad view of teachers' effectiveness, Geo et al. (2008) noted that effective teachers should be viewed as contributing to positive academic, attitudinal and social outcomes.

Concern has often been voiced over the lack of data regarding the emotional and social characteristics that underlie teachers' behaviours and effectiveness (Haskett, 2003). For example, while many agree that effective teaching and learning are necessarily affective and are bound to involve human interactions (e.g. Birch and Ladd, 1997; Hargreaves, 1998; Sutton and Wheatley, 2003), Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008: p. 467) argued that 'social, personal and self-actualising factors relating to learning and life – in effect, the affective domain and the psychology of being human' in teachers have not yet been adequately explored. In one of the few available studies, Day et al.

(2007) demonstrated the complex interactions between teachers' personal lives, professional work, school environments and school reform initiatives, and noted the emotional dimensions these parameters involve. The authors concluded that the extent to which teachers are able to manage these dimensions can affect their sense of professional identity, and thus their motivation, professional fulfillment, commitment, self-efficacy, and their general and emotional well-being and effectiveness: 'Teachers need to be able to manage successfully cognitive and emotional challenges of working in different, sometimes difficult, environments' (Day et al. 2007: p. 243). They noted that Goleman (1995) had described such skills as key to the concept of emotional intelligence.

1.1.3 Evaluating effective teaching

Methods for evaluating teacher effectiveness are varied and have often been debated (Geo et al., 2008). It has been suggested that such evaluations could be based on three types of different, but related, variables: input – the teachers themselves, their qualifications and characteristics; processes – interactions that take place in the classroom and in which the teachers are involved and other teachers' behaviours; and outputs – the outcomes of classroom processes, such as achievements, behaviours and social-emotional well-being (Ornstein, 1990a; Geo et al., 2008). However, past studies of teachers typically attempted to elucidate the relationships between processes and outputs (Brophy and Good, 1986; Ornstein, 1990b; Muijs and Reynolds, 2002), and evaluated effectiveness in schools and in teachers mainly by means of students' academic achievements (e.g. Geo et al., 2008; Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2008). The same is true for effective-teaching studies among Israeli teachers (Apeloig and Shalev-Vigiset, 2010).

Day et al. (2007: p. 20) warned that such focus on academic output ‘leaves unmeasured (other) important features, such as social, affective and behavioural aspects’ which have been known to impact upon learning, while Low and Nelson (2005: p. 4) noted that by adopting such a narrow perspective educators may run the risk of losing ‘the true concept of education’. Muijs et al. (2005) similarly suggested that as the teachers’ role is increasingly broadening to include affective, moral and welfare dimensions, measures across the different roles should be included, while Ornstein (1990a: p. 80) commented that ‘Teaching is art and feeling, [and] involves nurturing and similar qualities which cannot be easily assessed by evaluation instruments’. Indeed, in studies which used teachers’ self-evaluations or evaluations by stakeholders (management staff, students and peers) to identify characteristics of effective teachers, stakeholders tended to associate such characteristics with the more social-emotional aspects of teaching (Stronge, 2007).

1.1.4 EI and effective teaching

Emotional intelligence (EI) is a relatively recent psychological concept which concerns the interrelationship between emotion and cognition (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). Following the release of Goleman’s (1995) book *Emotional Intelligence*, interest in EI as an important factor for general success in life has increased, both in the general public and in the academic community (Mayer et al., 2001), as evidenced by the term’s inclusion in the American Dialect Society list of most useful new words of 1995 (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000).

A growing body of research has linked EI to different life aspects, including personal

well-being, quality of social relationships, and professional effectiveness (e.g. Goleman, 1998a; Cavins, 2005; Bar-On, 2006). In the field of education, EI has been linked to different aspects of school life, such as learning and academic achievements among students (e.g. Elias et al., 1997; Greenberg et al., 2003), as well as (more recently) to effective teaching (Stein and Book, 2000; Haskett, 2003; Drew, 2006). Yate (1997) rated teachers among the ten professions requiring high EI for success while Maree and Mokhuane (2007: p. 145) further noted that ‘there is ample evidence across studies of teacher selection and preparation to suggest that EI is a valuable quality for teachers to have, although these studies may never mention the words EI or SEL’, an observation also shared by Palomera et al. (2008). Fleming and Bay (2004) similarly found EI competencies to be included in most of Illinois professional teaching standards. Finally, Gendron (2008) used the term Emotional Capital to describe EI in teachers and noted that schools often assume the existence of EI skills in teachers, even if only implicitly.

1.1.5 Professional development programmes for teachers

High quality professional development in teachers has been argued to be essential for effective, high quality teaching and for school achievements (e.g. Guskey, 2002; Day et al., 2007; Ariav, 2008; Darling-Hammond et al., 2009). In particular, it has been recognised that teachers need to continuously improve their professional skills, expand their knowledge, and remain current with new professional ideas, innovative technologies and other developments (Leaton Gray, 2005; Avdor, 2009). Interest in the topic of teacher professional development has increased recently, reflecting a growing appreciation for people as the most important resource in the school system, a growing interest in education reforms, and a recent emphasis on accountability and quality

assurance in the field of education (Papastamatis et al., 2009).

Continuing Professional Development (CPD) programmes are intended to provide teachers with on-going training (Hodkinson and Hodkinson, 2005; Fraser et al, 2007), change practices, attitudes, beliefs and learning outcomes (Guskey, 2002), enhance teachers' well-being, help them achieve personal and professional goals, increase their self-efficacy, agency and motivation, and sustain their commitment and resilience (Day et al., 2007). Such programmes vary widely in content and format (Guskey, 2002; Leaton Gray, 2005) and range from broad development efforts to highly focused professional learning, and from programmes aimed at individual practitioners to ones that target teacher groups or the profession as a whole (Fraser et al., 2007).

Most CPD's have been noted to give prominence to academic and pedagogical knowledge (e.g. Levi, 2002; Guskey, 2003; Hustler et al., 2003; Avdor, 2008; Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Papastamatis et al., 2009), a focus which has been often motivated by government or other institutional policies (e.g. Stottlemeyer, 2002; Day et al., 2007; Apeloige and Shalev-Vigiset, 2010). While such academic knowledge may be considered crucial for increased professionalism (Avdor, 2009), a narrow focus on content was noted likely to limit the effectiveness of CPD programmes (e.g. Friedman and Philips, 2004; Hodkinson and Hodkinson, 2005; Fraser et al., 2007). Many teachers who had undergone CPD have indeed complained that they are not prepared to deal with the reality of classrooms and their different social facets (Dembo and Gibson, 1985).

As with effective teaching, the characteristics associated with effective professional development are multiple and complex, and therefore difficult to list in full (Guskey, 2003; Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2008). However, it is commonly agreed that effective professional development for teachers should be school (or else site) based, collaborative, progressive, focused on students' learning, aligned with a school's priorities and goals, and properly budgeted in terms of time and resources (e.g. Richardson and Placier, 2001; Guskey, 2003; Avdor, 2009; Darling-Hammond et al., 2009). For example, the UK Training and Development Agency for schools (TDA) noted that effective CPD programmes are typically long term, take into account teachers' previous knowledge, employ experienced, specialized and skilled trainers, and are evidence based, relevant, practical and applicable (TDA, 2008).

Day (1999) has similarly given strong arguments in favour of defining a much broader, intrinsic and ethical purpose for professional learning and development for teachers than the one commonly used. Others emphasized the need for teachers' professional development to be a life-long process (e.g. Evans and Gbadamosi, 2008), and one which focuses on teachers' personal development (Richardson, 1998; Richardson and Placier, 2001; Friedman and Philip, 2004). In particular, Day et al. (2007: p. 245) argued that 'The way to ensure that teachers remain 'healthy' in an increasingly challenging environment is to provide them with training, support and development opportunities throughout their careers, which take into account specific needs of the individual'. The authors further recommended that professional development programmes for teachers address both cognitive and affective learning processes (also in Day and Leitch, 2001) and recognise the relevance of the concept of emotional intelligence to successful professional development (Day, 1999; Day et al., 2007).

Surprisingly, leading lists of effective CPD characteristics, such as those reviewed by Guskey (2003), have not yet been modified to include these elements.

1.1.6 EI and professional development programmes for teachers

A growing body of research indicates that EI development efforts in the workplace often increase personal and professional effectiveness and organisational productivity (e.g. Abraham, 2005). Based on the emerging links between EI and effective teaching, it has been suggested that teachers who desire to become more effective could benefit from professional opportunities to develop their EI (e.g. Haskett, 2003, 2004; Brackett et al., 2009). Furthermore, given the highly social-emotional nature of the teaching profession (e.g. Nias, 1996; Gendron, 2008), EI development programmes may benefit teachers more than other professionals. Finally, several studies have demonstrated that it is possible to develop EI at any age through training (e.g. Goleman, 1998a; Bar-On and Parker, 2000).

1.2 Statement of Problem

Despite the growing interest in EI training in different occupational settings and an increased recognition of its potential to benefit teachers, pre-service or in-service training programmes aimed at teachers' personal EI development are still scarce (e.g. Jennings and Greenberg, 2009).

In Israel, a programme titled *Wisdom of the Heart* (Assor, 1998; Fienberg and Keren, 1998; Levi, 2002; 2007) comprised the first attempt to adapt EI theory, which by then had already made its way into schools in some other Western countries, to the Israeli

education system (Keren, 1999). Much effort and financial resources were invested in the project, whose stated aim was to equip children with essential emotional and social skills (Fienberg and Keren, 1998). While empirical evaluations of the pilot have not yet been published, it was deemed to be overall successful. In the following years, the programme was introduced into several other schools on a voluntary basis and its curriculum was made available nationally. Nevertheless, with the exception of some local initiatives in teachers-colleges (Tal, 2005), preschools (Kofler and Dolev, 2007) and primary and secondary schools (Trabelsi-Hadad, 2004; Yosef-Budnik, 2007), in the years following the Wisdom of the Heart efforts EI development has not become an integral part of the Israeli education system. This lack of formal acceptance of the concept, highlighted further by the absence of any reference to it in the above-mentioned Dovrat report (National Task Force for the Advancement of Education in Israel, 2005), stands in contrast to the increased interest in EI development efforts among management and employees in the Israeli business world, efforts some of which the writer has been involved in.

In 2006, more than three years after teachers' views of the impact of the Wisdom of the Heart programme upon school staff and school climate had been initially examined (Dolev, 2003), the writer of this thesis conducted follow-up interviews with two of the key position holders responsible for the programme's implementation. These interviews revealed that even in the schools in which the programme had been piloted, only few of its outcomes were sustained. One of the interviewees attributed these limited results to the training programme itself, suggesting that while relatively long, it failed to affect internalisation in the teachers. This claim is in line with other, previously cited, authors who regretted the lack of EI development programmes for

teachers (Tal., 2005) and of data from such programmes (Goleman, 2007a). These, in turn, became the motivation for the current study.

1.3 Objectives and Goals

The present study aimed to explore the effects of an emotional intelligence development programme, employed as part of teacher-targeted, professional-development training. The overarching goal was to explore the trainees' individual perceptions and experiences in a holistic way within the setting of a single school, and thus to gain a deep understanding of the programme and of its impacts upon a variety of EI-related outcomes in teachers.

Three leading research questions were formulated:

- 1) What impacts, if any, did the EI training programme have upon the participants' EI competencies and related behaviours, upon their personal and professional effectiveness and upon the school as a whole?
- 2) Which elements of the EI training programme were perceived by the participants to have contributed most to these impacts?
- 3) What experiences and personal processes had the participants undergone in the course of the training?

It was hoped that the findings would contribute to the understanding of qualitative aspects of EI training programmes in general and EI development in teachers in particular and would extend available knowledge of effective professional development for teachers. Furthermore, it was hoped that the findings would help elucidate a relatively recent theoretical addition to the field of education, namely the surmised links between EI competencies and teachers' effectiveness (a term used in

this study in its broad and comprehensive meaning, see Geo et al., 2008). Despite the above-noted need to further examine the concept of effective teaching and the many variables which may contribute to it, it was hoped that the results would support efforts to enhance teachers' effectiveness and well-being and would improve their ability to cope with the challenges and complexity of the profession, including in the Israeli school system.

1.4 Scope and Design

The study focused on a single group-based, coaching-type, emotional intelligence development programme (hereafter 'the EI training') in one middle-sized secondary school (a combined middle school and high school) in a rural area of Israel. This school was selected as it was the only one to commission such an extensive EI development programme. The programme was designed and administered by an external team of EI coaching experts. It included group sessions, individual coaching sessions and pre-training and post-training EI evaluations (utilising the Bar-On EQ-i measure). Participants included 21 teaching staff members, including management and mid-management staff, school counsellors, homeroom teachers, subject specialists and administration staff.

The research comprised two chronological stages. During the first stage (two academic school years) the researcher closely observed the EI training, assisted by information from the participants' pre-training EQ-i evaluations. During the second stage, and following the completion of the EI training, the researcher further examined and analysed the participants' pre-training, as well as post-training, EQ-i evaluations and conducted personal in-depth interviews with all but one of the 21 participants (as one

was unavailable at the time).

1.5 The Structure of the Thesis

Following this introduction, Chapter 2 opens with a review of the development of the concept of EI, its theoretical and empirical basis, and the ways in which it is conceptualised and measured today. Several of the studies which have explored the practical implications of the concept and the links between EI and different life aspects, and in particular professional performance, are then discussed. Evidence from these studies is later used in the review of less substantiated observations of the links between EI and teachers' performance.

In light of the growing number of studies linking enhanced EI to various positive life outcomes, the fact that EI can be developed is one of the main attractions of the concept. A review of effective EI development programmes in commercial organisations, universities and schools is included, and characteristics of effective EI training programmes are discussed. In particular, studies of EI coaching, a training method which has been suggested as especially effective in enhancing EI and is increasingly being used in the occupational arena, are reviewed and discussed.

Chapter 3 provides details of the research methodology. The qualitative, case-study approach, a type of inquiry into EI processes which, to date, has been less widely used, is reviewed, and the motivation behind its use is discussed. Details pertaining to the research tools (in-depth interviews and pre- and post-training EQ-i tests) and to the manner in which they had been employed in the present study are also included.

Results of both interview analysis and the EQ-i tests are presented in chapter 4. The individual change processes which the participants had undergone and the individual experiences which had led to these changes are revealed. EI development is seen to comprise a complex and multi-level process. The impacts of the EI training programme upon the participants and the school are similarly demonstrated and the elements which had contributed to these impacts are detailed.

Chapter 5 offers a discussion of the main findings of the study and a tentative framework for future EI development efforts. Finally, chapter 6 includes general conclusions and some proposals for further research. The epilogue provides some details which are pertinent to the EI training programme under study, but which emerged only after the formal study had been concluded.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This chapter offers a review of studies of the concept of Emotional Intelligence (EI), its links with different life and work outcomes, and in particular with teaching effectiveness, and of efforts to develop EI skills.

2.1 The Concept of Emotional Intelligence

The concept of EI refers to the effective integration of emotion and thought (Mayer et al., 2001; Mayer et al., 2004). As such, it primarily concerns the ability to reason effectively with emotions, and the capacity of emotions to enhance thinking (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Mayer, 2001). EI has been promoted as an individual-difference variable that plays a role in determining success in various types of human performance and which can be further developed to some extent (Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2007). It has been found to contribute to the identification of occupational potential in individuals (e.g. Zisberg, 2001; Bar-on et al., 2006) and to the ability to distinguish between average and outstanding employees (e.g. Cherniss, 2000; Kerr et al., 2006; Lopes et al., 2006).

In the following discussion, the emergence of the concept of EI, the main developments that took place in the field of EI research, and the ways by which EI is conceptualised and measured today are reviewed. Particular emphasis is given to the competency approach, and more specifically to the Bar-On (1997) EI model which guided the present study.

2.1.1 The emergence of the concept

Although the concept of EI is relatively new to the field of psychology, allusions to the relationships between thought and emotion in Western culture may be traced back to the early days of Greek philosophy, more than 2000 years ago (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Mayer et al., 2004; Mayer, Roberts and Barsade, 2008). Bar-On (2006) finds the historical roots of EI study in an early, 19th century scientific work by Darwin (1872), whereby the importance of emotional expression to survival and adaptation was noted. Within the field of education, Allen and Cohen (2006) noted that the social and emotional aspects of education have been recognised as early as 3000 years ago, in Egypt, India and Greece, but suggested that the more modern view of EI dates back to Dewey (1896), who had emphasised the social and emotional nature of the classroom, the links between social processes and learning, and the need to integrate social and emotional dimensions into teaching and learning. However, until the 20th century cognition and affect were regarded mostly as two separate mental processes, and emotions were often viewed as inferior to thought and even as interfering with it (e.g. Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Goleman, 1995; Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Mount, 2006). It was only then, with growing recognition that emotion and thought ‘may not be so far apart as supposed’ (Mayer et al., 2001: p. xiii), that the concept of EI was developed and that most major theoretical and empirical studies in the field were published (e.g. Bar-On and Parker, 2000; Bar-On, 2006).

According to Mayer (2001), the development of the concept of EI during the 20th century could be divided into the five following chronological eras:

The First Era (1900-1969): During most of this period, intelligence and emotions

were studied as two relatively separate psychological strands and cognitive intelligence was considered a major indicator of human variance and a predictor of the ability to adapt, function and succeed. However, attempts to identify other predictors of performance go back as early as 1920, to Thorndike, a pioneer in the field of scientific assessment of intelligence (e.g. Orme, 2001; Tal, 2005). For that purpose, Thorndike (1920) suggested the concept of 'social intelligence', claiming that social behaviours can be intelligent and may involve cognitive processes (e.g. Elias et al., 2001; Mayer, 2001; Weis and Sub, 2005). This early proposal, although not widely accepted at the time, was later incorporated into the concept of emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2001, 2006).

One decade later, Wechsler (1939, 1940), one of the most influential researchers of intelligence, described the impact of non-intellective (non-cognitive) factors on what he referred to as 'intelligent behaviour', and argued that models of intelligence would not be complete without more inclusive constructs (e.g. Bradberry and Greaves, 2005; Hughes et al., 2005; Bar-On, 2006). Wechsler's well-known intelligence test includes two sub-scales (comprehension and picture arrangement) that measure aspects of social intelligence (e.g. Shriki, 2006).

The Second Era (1970-1989): During the 1970's researchers began to explore the relationships between cognition and emotion and a new 'cognition and affect' research field emerged (Mayer, 2001: p. 4). Emotions were increasingly seen to convey unique information that unavoidably informs thought and actions (e.g. Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Mayer et al., 2004; Druskat et al., 2006) and the term 'hot cognition', referring to the interaction between cognition and emotion during learning processes, was coined

(Tal, 2005).

This interest in the relationships between cognition and emotion owed largely to Gardner (1983), who had argued that traditional notions of intelligence failed to account for noted variations in success in people's lives (e.g. Goleman, 1995, 2001a; Salovey et al., 2002; Bar-On, 2006). In his theory of multiple intelligences, Gardner (1983; 1999) described a number of intelligences (originally seven) which contribute to success in life, and suggested that only three of these, linguistic, mathematic and spatial, could be measured by the general-intelligence indices. He went on to identify teachers among the professionals in need of high levels of 'interpersonal' intelligence (Drew, 2006). The 'interpersonal' and 'intra-personal' intelligences in Gardner's model laid the foundation for the concept of emotional intelligence (e.g. Mayer and Salovey, 1997).

Sternberg (1985) used the term 'successful intelligence' to describe the relations between emotional, social and cognitive abilities, and the term 'practical intelligence' to describe the social-emotional component of successful intelligence (also in Sternberg, 1996; Hedlund and Sternberg, 2000). Similarly, Epstein (1998) included emotional and social abilities in his Constructive Thinking model.

In his survey of the development of the EI concept during this period, Mayer (2001) noted the important contribution of brain research as well as that of other research areas, such as nonverbal communication and artificial intelligence, to the elucidation of the relationships between emotion and thought (cognition). Similarly, the study of *alexithymia* – the inability to identify, distinguish between, understand, describe,

regulate and express emotions (e.g. Taylor and Bagby, 2000; Bar-On, 2001; Taylor, 2001; Taylor and Taylor-Allen, 2007) and the conceptualisation of *psychological mindedness* – the desire to learn the possible meanings and causes of emotional experiences, were also noted to contribute to the development of EI study (e.g. McCallum and Piper, 2000; Bar-On, 2007b).

The Third Era (1990-1993): The term 'Emotional Intelligence' was first used by Salovey and Mayer (1990) as part of their study of human intelligence, cognition and affect. In that study the authors sought to identify well-developed mental abilities that would allow people to be aware and intelligent about emotions and to use emotional information to assist thinking (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000; Caruso, 2003). Later on, the authors defined EI as 'The ability to perceive accurately, appraise and express emotions; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotions and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth' (Mayer and Salovey, 1997, p. 10). They argued that intelligence, i.e. the capacity to carry out abstract reasoning (Mayer, 2001), or more broadly, the capacity to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with one's environment (Salovey and Mayer, 1990), may be used not only in the context of numbers or words, but also in dealing with emotions (Mayer, 2001). In their reference to emotions, Mayer and Salovey were addressing four main components: expressive, experiential, regulatory, and recognition or processing components, as defined in Greenberg and Snell (1997). The authors further concentrated on identifying EI as a distinct form of intelligence involving emotions (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000) and identified a set of inter-related mental abilities that comprised a hierarchal model of EI (Salovey

and Mayer, 1990; Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2008).

This model, initially a three-component model, was later revised to include four branches, as follows (e.g. Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000; Salovey et al., 2002):

- Emotional perception, appraisal and expression;
- Emotional integration – the ability to use emotions to facilitate thought
- Emotional understanding – the ability to understand emotions and their meaning
- Emotion management – regulation of emotions in the self and in others

Based on their extensive empirical research and on the above-described theory and model, Salovey and Mayer (1990) had proceeded to develop the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale, MEIS, which later served as the basis for a newer EI measure, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test, MSCEIT (Mayer, Caruso and Salovey, 2000). Similar to assessment methods used to measure other intelligences (Fernandez-Berrocal and Extremera, 2006), the MSCEIT too is a performance-based measure. It employs objective criteria and expert, target and consensus scoring to evaluate the ability of individuals to perceive, use, understand and regulate emotions in a series of emotion-related ordinary life tasks (e.g. Mayer, Caruso and Salovey, 2000; Mayer et al., 2003).

Data used to construct the MSCEIT indicated satisfactory reliability and validity (construct, content and discriminant) of the measure (e.g. Ciarrochi et al., 2001; Robins, 2002; Shriki, 2006), low-to-moderate correlations with cognitive measures, and very low correlations with personality measures (e.g. Mayer, Caruso and Salovey,

2000; Lopes, Côté and Salovey, 2006). As the construction of a performance measure is complex, the MSCEIT has been the subject of a constant process of refinement (e.g. Mayer, Caruso and Salovey, 2000; Grewal and Salovey, 2005; Perez et al., 2005; Wilhelm, 2005). It is considered to be the leading EI ability measure to date (Matthews et al., 2004).

Saarni's work on emotional competence (Saarni, 1990), in which she described the development of emotional skills and their relationships with cognition and behaviour in children, roughly coincided with the development of Salovey and Mayer's model (Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Emphasising the importance of contexts that facilitate or inhibit adaptive emotional development, Saarni (1990, 1997, 2007) suggested a list of interrelated emotional and social skills that comprise emotional competence: awareness of self-emotional state, understanding others' emotions and the impact of the nature of emotion communication on relationships, use of emotion vocabulary, empathic involvement, managing emotional expressions, emotion regulation and adaptive coping, and emotional self-efficacy.

Further advancements in EI studies during that era were made through brain studies, mainly the work of Damasio (Mayer, 2001). Damasio's (1994) study demonstrated that human cognitive decisions cannot be separated from the act of processing emotional information (Bechara et al., 2000; Hughes et al., 2005; Bechara et al. 2007) and provided further knowledge about the development of emotional and social competence (Goleman, 1997).

The Fourth (1994-1997) and Fifth (1998-present) Eras: During the fourth era, the

concept of EI attracted much attention and was popularised and broadened (Mayer, 2001). Mayer and Salovey (1997) continued their work on their model, while new models and measures, including those proposed by Goleman (1998a; Goleman et al., 2002) and Bar-On (1997), were emerging. In the fifth (current) era the concept has been increasingly applied to different areas of practice, including education (Elias et al., 2001; Allen and Cohen, 2006), but extensive empirical research of 4th era models and measures and their subsequent refinement have continued. Developments during these last two eras are therefore discussed here together

In his 1995 book, *Emotional Intelligence*, Goleman summarised the EI-related literature at the time, brought EI to the centre of both public and academic attention (Mayer, 2001) and stimulated the concept's further development (e.g. Bar-On and Parker, 2000; Hedlund and Sternberg, 2000; Grewal and Salovey, 2005). The initial enthusiasm with which the book and the concept of EI had been greeted was attributed to their implied promise to resolve the longstanding 'battle between respecting and denying emotions' and between emotion and cognition, which fit with the *zeitgeist*, the cultural spirit of the time (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000: p. 92). Goleman (1995) himself credited interest in the concept to the fact that EI offered a new perspective on skills that could promote school and life success and could help individuals to cope with various challenges, including ones brought about by life in the modern era. A part of Goleman's (1995) book was devoted to the relationship between EI and the helping professions, in particular ones that involve children, adolescents and schools. He noted schools to be 'the one place communities can turn to for correctives to children's deficiencies in emotional and social competence' (Goleman, 1995: p. 321). Goleman's role in establishing the Collaborative to Advance Social and Emotional Learning

(CASEL) (Elias et al., 2001) is evidence of his interest in the subject.

2.1.2 Critiques of the concept

While the popularisation of the EI concept stimulated theory and research in the field of EI (e.g. Neubauer and Freudenthaler, 2005) and prompted the emergence of new models, it also added to an already existing debate and controversy surrounding the concept (e.g. Emmerling and Goleman, 2003; Bar-On, 2006; Murphy, 2006; Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2008).

Criticism of the concept has centred on the meaning, measurement, definition and implications of EI (Zeidner et al., 2004). Some scholars worried that coherent empirical evidence was insufficient to support the existence of the concept (Murphy, 2006) or to justify its status as a distinct form of intelligence (Matthews et al., 2004). Landy (2005), for example, criticised a lack of peer-reviewed data and independent research and an over-reliance on cross-sectional, as opposed to causative, research design. Critics further debated whether the concept offered a new perspective on individual abilities, claiming that some models showed overlap with other psychological constructs (e.g. Matthews et al., 2004). More generally, the empirical basis for many EI models and the conceptual diversity associated with their development were called into question (Zeidner et al., 2004; Landy, 2005; Waterhouse, 2006). Several critics warned that sweeping claims about the impact of EI on life outcomes, such as a claim by Goleman (1995) that EI accounts for up to 80% of life success factors, lacked empirical basis (Matthews et al., 2004; Schulze et al., 2005; Cleveland and Fleishman, 2006; Murphy and Sideman, 2006; Waterhouse, 2006). Questions with respect to measurement validity and reliability were also raised

(Matthews et al., 2004; Schulze et al., 2005; Murphy, 2006; Murphy and Sideman, 2006).

While debate on some of the above issues still continues, most recent critics do not dismiss the concept of EI. Rather, they often attempt to separate speculative discourse from claims that are more firmly founded (Zeidner et al., 2004), offer ways by which to further refine more established models and tools, and seek to resolve outstanding issues by encouraging further research and more rigorous analysis of data (e.g. Matthews et al., 2004; Murphy, 2006). In a preface to his book *A Critique of EI* Murphy (2006: p. xi) called EI a useful concept, and noted that certain EI models identify abilities and skills that ‘hang together’ and might have a broad relevance, that these skills can lead to significant advantages, and that some of the better EI models suggest specific means by which to increase effectiveness. Some critics have further admitted that the popularisation of the concept had led them to overlook its potential and the more solid empirical evidence which supports it (Murphy, 2006; Murphy and Sideman, 2006). Sternberg (2001) reported that despite initial scepticism, later empirical evidence made a persuasive case for the plausibility of the construct, while Schulze et al. (2005) discussed potential benefits from EI application.

Overall, scholars agree that the available evidence supports the use of EI as a conceptual lens for viewing human actions and behaviours (e.g. Goleman, 2001a; Drew, 2006; Murphy, 2006), and that the concept is ‘a viable field of scientific study’ (Matthews et al., 2004: p. 9). These days, research in the field of EI centres on the definition of the concept, on its discriminant validity with respect to other classical psychological constructs, and on development of more reliable EI-measurement tools

(Palomera et al., 2008). As leading models are being constantly refined and empirically studied, empirical evidence is becoming more readily available (e.g. Bar-On, 2006; Cherniss et al., 2006; Goleman, 2006; Grewal and Salovey, 2006; Bar-On, 2007a).

2.1.3 Main approaches to EI

Goleman's (1995; 1998a) work marked the emergence of more inclusive EI models (e.g. Bar-On, 1997; Cooper and Sawaf, 1997; Boyatzis et al., 2000), thus paving the way to the two main approaches to EI which currently exist:

1. An *ability* approach, represented to date by Salovey and Mayer's model (see section 1.2), suggests that EI research should focus on mental abilities which are concerned with the relationships between emotion and thought, including attributes such as emotional perception, understanding and regulation (e.g. Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Hedlund and Sternberg, 2000; Mayer, 2001; Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2008). It thus addresses the 'core aptitude or ability to reason with emotions' (Mayer and Salovey, 1997: p. 15), i.e. the potential to use specific abilities rather than actual behaviours (Fernandez-Berrocal and Extremera, 2006).

2. A broad approach (referred to here also as the competency approach), which views EI as a set of interrelated skills and competencies (Bar-On, 2006; Boyatzis, 2008) that manifest themselves in the social context (Lane, 2000; Saarni, 2000). This approach incorporates a number of *competency*, *mixed* or *trait* models in which EI is discussed in terms of EI behaviours, human performance, life and work outcomes and adaptation to life events (e.g. Cooper and Sawaf, 1997; Bar-On, 2006; 2007a; Boyatzis, 2007).

Proponents of this approach argue that it extends the concept of EI to include behaviour-related competencies and thus provides useful insights into human performance (e.g. Averill, 2000; Matthews et al., 2004; Schulze et al., 2005; Bar-On et al., 2006, 2007a).

Acknowledging the variations between the above-cited models (see Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000; Goleman, 2001a; Caruso, 2003; Petrides and Furnham, 2003; Perez et al., 2005; Saarni, 2007), the mixed nature of many of them (e.g. Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000; Brackett et al., 2011), and the different terms used by different scholars to describe them (e.g. Cobb and Mayer, 2000; Matthews et al., 2004), the use of the term *competency approach* in this study is in line with Mayer and Salovey (1997), who drew a distinction between the study of EI abilities and EI competence. Similarly, Gowing (2001: p. 85) described models such as Bar-On's (1997), Goleman's (1998) and Cooper and Sawaf's (1997) as 'examining EI through the exploration of emotional competence'.

Much of the EI critique noted in section 2.1.2 was in fact aimed at competency-approach models, not least by ability-approach proponents, and especially during the formulation of the former. Of the earlier noted critique, such criticisms centred on the possible overlap between certain competencies and personality traits (e.g. Kang et al., 2005; Neubauer and Freudenthaler, 2005; Spector and Johnson, 2006; McCrae, 2007); over-inclusiveness; the existence of several competing models; and measurement methods (e.g. Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000; Mayer, 2001; Matthews et al., 2004; Murphy and Sideman, 2006; Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2008). However, refinements in definitions, models and measures and an increase in the number of

controlled empirical studies (e.g. Cherniss et al., 2006) brought greater acceptance to some competency-approach models (e.g. Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000; Perez et al, 2005; Bar-On, 2006, 2007a), and an increased recognition of their importance (Hedlund and Sternberg, 2000; Ciarrochi et al., 2001; Neubauer and Freudenthaler, 2005; Schulze et al., 2005).

Nowadays, the ability and competency approaches are increasingly viewed as sharing core skills, in particular ones related to perceiving, understanding and managing emotions (Lane, 2000; Petrides and Furnham, 2003; Austin and Saklofske, 2005; Boyd, 2005; Bryan, 2006; Cherniss et al., 2006; Murphy, 2006), and as describing different aspects of the same concept, therefore both contributing to the field of EI (Neubauer and Freudenthaler, 2005; Perez et al., 2005; Bar-On, 2006; Druskat et al., 2006; Fragouli, 2009). This emerging view supports Mayer and Salovey's (1997) earlier observation that the ideas of emotional intelligence (as defined in their model) and emotional competence should be developed together.

2.1.4 Measurement of EI – general methods

Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2007: p. 260) noted that 'for any construct to be useful, it should be measurable and individual differences should be quantifiable'. Indeed, the concept of EI has been marked from its early days by attempts to measure it, and refinements of such efforts continue today. Two main categories of measures have emerged, largely consistent with the above-described ability and competency approaches (e.g. Petrides and Furnham, 2003; Neubauer and Freudenthaler, 2005):

1. Performance measures, designed to evaluate the maximal performance level of

individuals on EI-related tasks (Wilhelm, 2005), are based on a response format from which a 'correct' answer can be derived by using objective criteria typical to intelligence tests (Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2007). Such measures, represented by the MSCEIT (p. 23), are suitable for measuring EI as an ability (Boyd, 2005) and are currently employed in conjunction with the ability approach.

2. Self-report measures are based on self-perceptions in individuals and use self-rated lists of EI-related descriptors (e.g. Robins, 2002; Neubauer and Freudenthaler, 2005; Wilhelm, 2005). Such measures, employed mainly as part of the competency approach, aim to reflect emotionally intelligent behaviours (Mayer, Caruso and Salovey, 2000; Ciarrochi et al., 2001; Wilhelm, 2005). Of the large number of such EI self-report measures (see. Bar-On and Parker, 2000; Ciarrochi et al., 2001; Gowing, 2001; Schulze et al., 2005; Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2007) the two measures most commonly used to date are the Emotional Quotient inventory EQ-i (Bar-On, 1997), and the Emotional Competency Inventory ECI (Goleman et al., 2002). However, a self-report measure associated with the ability approach (namely the Emotional Intelligence Scale, or EIS) is also available (Schutte et al., 1998).

Performance measures provide minimal response bias but are time consuming, complicated to employ (Ciarrochi et al., 2001; Matthews et al., 2004) and require individual administration (Robitaille, 2007). Furthermore, their scoring methods have raised some concerns (Zeidner et al., 2004; Austin and Saklofske, 2005; Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2007). For example, questions over the MSCEIT scores, and in particular over the convergence between the expert, consensus and target scoring

methods; the potential sensitivity of the first two to cultural influences (Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2007); the possibility that consensus scoring may reflect conventionality (Hampel, 2002, in Boyd, 2005); and the limited tasks used to assess each of the model's four branches (Wilhelm, 2005) have been raised. Summing some of these concerns, Spector and Johnson (2006: p. 335) noted that performance measures may 'not reflect the live performance of EI in the rich social situation of real life'.

Self-report measures, on the other hand, are easier and faster to administer (Ciarrochi et al., 2001) and 'can provide relevant information about internal processes and experiences that can hardly be assessed by performance tests, and which may be accessible only to the self-reporting individual' (Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2007: p. 45). At the same time, such measures are inseparable from factors such as self-perception (Mayer, Caruso and Salovey, 2000), motivation, interpretation and social desirability (Shruti, 2006), and therefore may be prone to distortions or bias (e.g. Matthews et al., 2004; Day and Carroll, 2008). To improve reliability, self-report measures may include additional scales that measure and correct potential distortions (Ciarrochi et al., 2001; Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2007; Thompson, 2009).

Increasingly, performance and self-report EI measures are viewed as measures which assess different, but equally important, aspects of the EI concept (see p. 28), and the combined use of both measures has recently been recommended (Thompson, 2009). Furthermore, while existing EI measures are continuously being refined and while new measures are still being developed, EI measures of both types have already demonstrated good levels of reliability and validity and hold the potential to 'capture a respectable place among other widely accepted measurement techniques applied in

selection, training and elsewhere' (Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2007: p. 259).

2.1.5 The competency approach – leading models and measures

Of the two approaches described above, the competency approach has been noted to deal with behaviours, performance and development, and therefore was deemed suitable for the present study. A more comprehensive review of this approach is therefore provided, with added focus on the Bar-On model, which guided the study, and the associated EQ-i measure.

The competency approach has been widely used in research and in a variety of real-life applications (e.g. Goleman, 2001b; Robins, 2002; Bar-On, 2006; Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2007), including in EI development efforts (Bharwaney, 2007). Mayer and Salovey (1997: p. 15) suggested that the approach may be especially relevant for the field of education, as 'it focuses on the knowledge and skills that individuals can attain in order to function adequately across situations'. Indeed, some instances of its use in education-related research and applications have been noted (e.g. Haskett, 2003; Low and Nelson, 2005; Drew, 2006).

Increasing references to Social-Emotional Intelligence (SEI) and to Social-Emotional Competence, both in competency-approach models and in other theoretical discussions, signify that such models do not address intelligence per se, but rather skills and competencies that underlie emotionally intelligent behaviours (e.g. Bar-On, 2001; Cherniss, 2001). Still, it should be noted that the more common term EI is used in this study to refer to models of both approaches, in keeping with Matthews et al.

(2004) who proposed that this term enables scholars and users to draw upon the rich body of literature that deals with the wide range of available EI-related models, and in line with the majority of current literature.

Two leading models are associated with the competency approach:

1. The *Goleman EI model* – Building on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) framework, Goleman (1998a) developed a broad model which describes EI as a wide array of competencies that enhance occupational performance and which focuses mainly on corporate audiences and organisational leadership (Boyatzis et al., 2000; Goleman, 2001b; Goleman et al., 2002). Originally comprising a list of twenty-five competencies, the model was later modified to include twenty competencies in four 'clusters': self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (Goleman, 2001b; Boyatzis, 2008).

The associated Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) is a multi-rater tool (i.e. with a joint self/observer rating scale) which has been noted to have a reliable convergent validity and strong and consistent predictive and divergent validities (Boyatzis, 2008). While widely used in the business sector (Boyatzis et al., 2000), several authors have cautioned against the paucity of published information regarding the psychometric properties of the ECI (Gowing, 2001; Robins, 2002; Neubauer and Freudenthaler, 2005; Perez et al, 2005; Conte and Dean, 2006).

2. The *Bar-On model* – This model too is based on Salovey and Mayer's EI framework, and defines EI as 'a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social

competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands' (Bar-On, 2006: p. 3). Developed by another leading theorist and researcher in the field of EI and one who had coined the term EQ (emotional quotient), this broad social-emotional model (Bar-On, 1997) is considered to be the leading broad model to date (e.g. Orme, 2001; Neubauer and Freudenthaler, 2005; Fernandez-Berrocal and Extremera, 2006). The Bar-On model was recommended as useful for understanding human behaviour and for predicting effective performance in both personal and organisational processes (Bharwaney, 2007). As detailed in Table 2.1, Bar-On's conceptualisation of EI involves a list of skills that comprise five major composite scales, where each composite scale comprises several closely-associated competencies, for a total of 15 subscales (Bar-On, 1997, 2006, 2007a; Stein and Book, 2000).

Table 2.1: List of EI Competencies According to Bar-On (2007; p. 4) and Stein and Book (2000)

| The Composite Scale | Associated Competencies | Description |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|--|
| 1. Intra-Personal | Emotional Self-awareness | The ability to recognise and understand self-emotions and feelings, differentiate between feelings, and understand their origins. |
| | Assertiveness | The ability to effectively and constructively express self-feelings, beliefs and thoughts. |
| | Independence | The ability to be self reliant and free of emotional dependency. |
| | Self-Regard | The ability to accurately perceive, understand and accept oneself. |
| | Self-Actualisation | The ability to strive to achieve personal goals and actualise self-potential. |
| 2. Interpersonal | Empathy | The ability to be aware of, to understand and to appreciate the feelings and thoughts of others. |
| | Social Responsibility | The ability to identify with one's social group and cooperate with others. |
| | Interpersonal Relationships | The ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships and relate well to others. |
| 3. Adaptability | Problem-Solving | The ability to effectively solve problems of both personal and interpersonal nature. |
| | Reality Testing | The ability to objectively validate self-feelings and self-thoughts with external reality. |
| | Flexibility | The ability to adapt and adjust feelings and thoughts to new situations. |
| 4. Stress Management | Stress Tolerance | The ability to effectively and constructively manage emotions and to withstand adverse events, stressful situations and strong emotions. |
| | Impulse Control | The ability to effectively and constructively control emotions. |
| 5. General Mood | Happiness | The ability to feel content with oneself, others and life in general. |

| | | |
|--|----------|---|
| | | |
| | Optimism | The ability to remain positive and look at the brighter side of life even in the face of adversity. |

While some of the above competencies are shared by other models (Mayer, Caruso and Salovey, 2000), the stress management and general mood scales, as well as the reality testing subscale (part of the Adaptability composite scale), are unique to Bar-On's model (Robins, 2002; Drew, 2006).

The Bar-On EQ-i measure - The EQ-i is a self-report measure designed to gauge emotionally and socially intelligent behaviours and to assess the underlying construct of social-emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2007a: p. 3). It is the product of a large and culturally diverse normative base and 20 years of both detailed psychometric research and extensive real-life use (Stein and Book, 2000; Bar-On, 2006; McCown et al., 2007). Considered to be the most widely researched self-report EI measure to date (e.g. Drew, 2006), it has been described by Matthews et al. (2004: p. 213) as 'notable for the thoroughness' and very impressive in scope, and as 'cover[ing] the sampling domain of trait EI better than many other inventories' (Perez et al., 2005: p. 187). While some researchers have noted that EQ-i data show relatively high correlations with personality measures (e.g. Matthews et al., 2004; Thingujam, 2004; Mayer, Roberts and Barsade, 2008), Bar-On (2006) argued that such overlap does not exceed 15%, indicating that most of the variance can be attributed to the concept of EI. Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2007) found an advantage in the measure's relative distinctiveness from cognitive intelligence (4% according to Bar-On, 2006), noting that this difference makes it appealing from training and development perspectives.

In his research of the psychometric properties of the EQ-i instrument, Bar-On focused to a large degree on the measure's reliability; its predictive, construct and incremental validities with respect to other classical constructs (e.g. personality and cognitive intelligence); and its contribution to a variety of everyday criteria (e.g. Bar-On, 2006, 2007b; Fernandez-Berrocal and Extremera, 2006). Bar-On's studies included respondents of all age groups, genders, ethnicities and nationalities, including ones from Israel, and from a variety of occupations, including in the field of education (e.g. Hedlund and Sternberg, 2000; Jaeger, 2003; Matthews et al., 2004; Bar-On, 2006; Bharwaney, 2007). The EQ-i reliability and validity were found to be satisfactory, with an overall average predictive validity coefficient of .59 (Bar-On, 2007a), and the measure was found to differentiate between individuals within groups and to accurately gauge changes in performance as a result of training (e.g. Stein and Book, 2000; Brackett et al., 2006). A more comprehensive review of the measure can be found in the EQ-i Technical Manual (Bar-On, 1997; Multi Health Systems (MHS), 2006).

Being closely related to behaviours and to outcomes such as interpersonal relations and professional effectiveness (Bar-On, 2006), both the Bar-On model and the EQ-i have been deemed particularly well-suited for the study of schools and teachers (Drew, 2006). More specifically, Drew (2006) noted that the model includes competencies which are especially relevant to the teaching profession, such as stress tolerance and reality testing. Both model and measure have been used in a growing number of education-related studies (e.g. Stein and Book, 2000; Boyatzis, 2001; Haskett, 2004; Qualter et al., 2007), as tools for implementing social-emotional learning in schools (Maree and Mokhuane, 2007; McCown et al., 2007), and for developing EI in adults

(Bharwaney, 2007).

2.2 EI and Life Outcomes

2.2.1 General life outcomes

Much of the present appeal of the concept of EI, in both academic and non-academic settings, has been attributed to its links with various aspects of human behaviour and its potential to lead to personal, professional and organisational real-life outcomes (Bilski, 2004; Grewal and Salovey, 2005, 2006; Bar-On, 2007; Boyatzis, 2008). Indeed, many studies attempted to establish and elucidate these links (e.g. Stein and Book, 2000; Caruso and Wolfe, 2001; Bar-On, 2006; Brackett and Salovey, 2006; Lennick, 2007; Brackett et al., 2011).

Several studies have explored the links between EI and psychological health in clinical and non-clinical samples (e.g. Brackett and Salovey, 2006; Bar-On, 2007a; Stohl et al., 2007), as well as the concept's links with stress (Ciarrochi et al., 2002) and with subjective well-being (e.g. Taylor et al., 1999; Bar-On, 2007; Stewart-Brown and Edmunds, 2007) in the general population. Others have noted the links between EI and social interactions (Brackett and Salovey, 2006; Brackett et al., 2006; Lopes, Côté and Salovey, 2006; Fernandez-Berrocal and Ruiz, 2008). For example, people with high EI have often been noted to be more socially competent and more likely to establish and maintain quality interpersonal relationships than those with low EI (Fitness, 2001; Flury and Ickes, 2001; Grewal and Salovey, 2005, 2006; Marquez et al., 2006; Casey et al., 2008).

Links between EI skills and disruptive behaviours were also explored (Mayer et al.,

2004; Fernandez-Berrocal and Ruiz, 2008). Brackett et al. (2004), for example, found links between low EI, deviant behaviours and illegal drug and alcohol use in male university students.

While several authors highlighted the need to examine and firmly establish many of the links between EI and different life and work outcomes (Matthews et al., 2004; Abraham, 2005; Jordan et al., 2006; Lopes et al., 2006), others noted that robust and empirically-structured studies of such links are becoming more readily available (e.g. Cherniss and Goleman, 2001; Bar-On, 2007a), show promising results, and provide empirical support for major claims about the relevance and utility of EI (Jordan et al., 2006).

2.2.2 Workplace performance

The majority of studies on EI and life outcomes were conducted in occupational settings (e.g. Caruso and Wolfe, 2001; Zisberg, 2001; Abraham, 2005; Bar-On, 2006). The study of EI has brought to the foreground the role of non-cognitive skills in the workplace (e.g. Goleman, 1998a, 1998b; Côté and Miners, 2006; Lincoln, 2009), and has highlighted the importance of emotions and of EI competencies to outstanding performance in many occupations and professions (Roberts et al., 2005; Boyatzis, 2008). Employers have therefore become increasingly interested in hiring workers with high EI and in developing EI at the workplace (e.g. Cherniss, 2000; Levi, 2002; Haskett, 2004).

McClelland (1973) was one of the first to discuss the limited sufficiency of cognitive and technical measures in predicting workplace performance and the need to search

for a wider range of skills, including interpersonal skills, which affect occupational behaviours, decision-making processes and work outcomes. These proposals were later supported and expanded by Goleman (1998a), who had relied on a study of 200 leading companies to similarly suggest that social and emotional skills were relevant to occupational success, as well as by others (e.g. Sternberg, 1996; Weisinger, 1998; Parker et al., 2009).

Positive and negative affects were noted to be key facets of workplace experience and thus to predict different aspects of organisational behaviour (e.g. Weisinger, 1998; Kafetsios, 2007; Kafetsios and Loumakou, 2007). Matthews et al. (2004) suggested that emotions provide individuals with invaluable information about themselves and those around them, as well as about their various interactions with their environments, and may thus guide actions and lead to different work and life outcomes. The authors further noted the reciprocity between work outcomes and emotions among workers in the Western world. They suggested that work is often a key determinant of well-being, self-esteem, income and social status, and therefore of both positive and negative emotions in workers, while emotions often impact upon cognitive and motivational processes and are therefore among the primary determinants of workplace behaviours, achievements, and derivatives, such as productivity, satisfaction and social climate (Matthews et al., 2004; Hareli and Rafaeli, 2007).

Work-related EI competencies have thus been noted ‘vital if one is to successfully negotiate the demands, constraints and opportunities necessary to succeed in the workplace’ (Matthews et al., 2004: p.471). More specifically, emotional self-awareness, accurately identifying the specific emotions one is experiencing;

understanding how self-emotions are related to one's goal and values; realising how self-emotions are linked to one's thoughts and behaviours; and appreciating how self-emotion likely affect accomplishments (Matthews et al., 2004), has been noted to be related to work effectiveness and to help workers fine-tune their 'on-the-job' performance, including managing their emotions and accurately gauging the feelings of others (Goleman, 1998).

Furthermore, beyond the contribution of emotional self-awareness to work performance, it has been suggested that EI may contribute to work effectiveness by enabling workers to regulate emotions (Goleman, 1998; Brackett et al., 2011), sustain motivation (Goleman, 1998), nurture positive relationships at the workplace (Mayer and Caruso, 2002), work effectively in teams, cope effectively with stress and with organisational changes (Lopes et al., 2006), solve problems effectively, and enhance self-esteem (Abraham, 2005).

Studies of the links between EI and workplace performance have focused mainly on the following five aspects:

1. *EI and individual performance:* Studies conducted across a variety of professions (from engineers and technicians to sales persons, medical staff and HR staff) and positions (from junior employees to high management) have linked EI to effectiveness, productivity and individual success at the workplace (e.g. Cherniss, 1999; Boyatzis et al., 2000; Carmeli, 2003; Daus, 2006; Jennings and Palmer, 2007; Fariselli et al., 2008).

Two of the first studies to directly examine the links between EI and workplace performance were conducted in the U.S. Air Force (USAF) and in the Israeli Defence Forces (IDF), respectively, and employed the EQ-i to gauge EI levels (Bar-On, 2006; Bar-On et al., 2006). The USAF study (n=1171) found EI to identify high and low performers, as measured independently by the ability to meet work quotas. Similarly, the IDF study revealed significant correlations between EI and effective performance in highly stressful and potentially dangerous occupations, both for regular combat soldiers (n=335) and for soldiers in an elite unit (n=240) (see also Bar-On, 2007a). Similar positive correlations between EI and workplace performance were noted by Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004) in their robust meta-analysis of 69 independent studies (n=9522).

Conversely, some studies have shown inconsistent relations between EI and job performance (e.g. Côté and Miners, 2006; Jordan et al., 2006). In their study of 176 employed undergraduate students, Janovics and Christiansen (2001) did not find job performance to be significantly correlated with two high-order facets of the MSCEIT (facilitation and managing emotions), or with two ability-based self-report measures (Matthews et al., 2004). In his comments on such findings, Singh (2007) noted that competency measures tend to show stronger links with job performance than ability measures. More generally, Goleman (2001b) and Boyatzis (2006b) both noted that EI competencies tend to exert an impact in clusters rather than each in isolation, and often when a competency has been used with some frequency and when a ‘critical mass’ of competencies has reached a ‘tipping point’ – the point at which strength in a competence makes a significant impact on performance (Goleman, 2001b: p. 38). Goleman (1998) and Schmit (2006) further argued that while EI is important to all

work environments, some occupations require higher EI than others, especially those involving intensive human interactions.

2. EI and occupational stress: The ability to cope with increasing work-related stress and to adjust to frequent changes in the workplace has recently become a pressing organisational concern (Matthews and Zeidner, 2000; Matthews et al., 2004).

Contemporary theories place emotions at the centre of dynamic stress processes (Slaski and Cartwright, 2003) and it has been suggested that those with higher EI may be better at effectively coping with stress (Matthews and Zeidner, 2000; Slaski, 2002). In particular, Matthews et al. (2004) linked stress-coping with adaptability (especially flexibility) and with optimistic disposition. Others associated a number of mediating, stress-coping mechanisms, including effective regulation of emotions, constructive appraisals, effective use of relationships for support, and use of effective coping strategies, with various EI competencies (e.g. Ciarrochi et al, 2001; Weare and Gray, 2003).

Enhanced EI skills have been further linked with a variety of elements which may reduce occupational stress, such as positive attitudes at work (Carmeli, 2003; Daus, 2006); higher occupational satisfaction (Bar-On, 1997; Abraham, 2005; Sala, 2006; Chiva and Alegre, 2008; Kafetsios and Zampetakis, 2008); decrease in career decision-making difficulties (Di Fabio and Palazzeschi, 2009), and with an enhanced ability to cope in dynamic and complex workplaces (e.g. Goleman, 1998a; Cherniss, 2001; Goleman et al., 2002; Orme and Germond, 2002), to endure job insecurity (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997) and to adjust to new work environments (Cherniss and Goleman, 2001). Slaski and Cartwright (2002) found that high-EI retail managers

(n=224) had experienced less stress and had scored higher in terms of physical and psychological well-being as compared with their low-EI peers, while Fariselli et al. (2008) found high EI to be moderately but significantly predictive of low stress among midwives and obstetricians. Similarly, Mikolajczak et al. (2007) found emotional labour (Hochschild, 1979, 1983) in high EI nurses to result in lower levels of burnout and somatic complaints as compared with their low-EI peers.

Matthews et al. (2004) highlighted the complexity of the links between EI and stress, noting that individuals with high emotional perception were more likely to be affected by stress, while those with high emotional regulation tended to receive more social support, two elements which made them less prone to stress and depression.

3. EI and interpersonal relationships at the workplace: Positive relationships between co-workers in a variety of work settings were noted to enhance work effectiveness (Matthews et al, 2004), promote effective collaborations (Abraham, 2005) and decision-making processes (Boyd, 2005), and provide social support for workers. These, in turn, have been linked to positive affect and to high levels of self-esteem, emotional adjustment, enthusiasm and job satisfaction (Rego and Cunha, 2008).

As the ability to perceive, understand and regulate self-emotions is a prerequisite for the ability to be aware, understand, empathise and respond effectively to the emotions of others (e.g. Weisinger, 1998; Goetz et al., 2005; Casey et al., 2008), high EI was noted to support the establishment and management of most positive relationships (Mayer, Salovey and Barsade, 2008; Goleman. 2006), including work relationships (Goleman, 1998; Matthews et al., 2004). For example, Côté and Miners (2006) noted that employees who generate and display genuine emotions and show concern to

others tend to elicit more favourable reactions from colleagues and to build stronger relationships with them. In particular, high EI has been correlated with an enhanced ability to network and to bond with co-workers (Cavins, 2005); higher levels of organisational commitment and involvement in the workplace; and better management of interpersonal workplace conflicts (perhaps through enhanced optimism) (Abraham, 2005).

4. *EI and group (team) effectiveness:* Team work is an inherently emotional experience, and emotions are among the many interacting factors which impact upon group effectiveness (Jordan and Ashkanasy, 2006). The latter has been defined by Wolff et al. (2006) as a multi-dimensional composite of productivity, work quality, group self-direction and performance. Two major topics associated with this concept and with EI have been discussed: the impact of individual EI levels (both group-average EI levels and the highest individual scorers) on group effectiveness; and, within the context of the more recent and more complex concept of 'group EI', the level of EI displayed during social and work interactions among team members (e.g. Elfenbein, 2006; Hughes, 2009). Druskat and Wolff (2001) claimed that such interactions contribute to more positive habitual team practices (e.g. constructive conflict-resolution routines), which they described as 'emotionally intelligent' norms (p. 139). Those norms, in turn, were noted by these authors to cultivate trust, group identity, group efficacy, cooperation, collaboration and teamwork. Thus EI has been noted as likely to be associated with team effectiveness (e.g. Druskat and Wolff, 2001; Elfenbein, 2006; Wolff et al., 2006; Hughes, 2009).

A number of studies support these claims. Jordan and Ashkanasy (2006: p. 150) found

links between team effectiveness and individual self-awareness in highly aware individuals, and explained them by noting that emotional self-awareness can help team members 'to resolve their own feelings about their personal goals being subsumed into team goals'. Other studies linked EI to effective team conflict resolution processes (Jordan and Troth, 2002). In particular, the ability to cope with emotions (both personal and others') was linked with 'team process effectiveness' and 'team goal focus' (Jordan et al., 2003). Lastly, in a study in Bell Laboratories, interpersonal skills were found to be most crucial in allowing team members to foster consensus, open communications and group trust (Kelley and Caplan, 1993).

Conversely, Roberts et al. (2005) drew attention to several studies where only few and partial links between some team-level measures, workplace outcomes and EI of group members were found.

Recently, Stein (2007, 2009) discussed organisational emotional intelligence, a notion which goes beyond individual and group EI to describe how organisations successfully and efficiently cope with changes and accomplish their goals, while being responsible and sensitive to their members, customers, suppliers and to society as a whole.

5. EI and leadership skills: With increased recognition of the role of leadership skills in the workplace, interest in attributes that might contribute to effective leadership has similarly increased (e.g. Goleman et al., 2002). EI competencies were suggested to comprise one set of such attributes (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997; Goleman, 1998b, 2000; Goleman et al., 2002; Bharwaney and Paddock, 2004; Daus, 2006; Lopes, Côté and Salovey, 2006; Boyatzis, 2007). George (2000) noted that high-EI leaders can better

understand the emotions of their subordinates and attend to them, be sensitive to areas in need for improvement and construct a shared vision, and thus may promote enthusiasm, optimism, cooperation and trust while building quality relationships. Similarly, Boyd (2005) highlighted the importance of the ability to regularly conduct positive interpersonal interactions with other people to effective leadership. Finally, Orme and Germond (2002) emphasised that leaders should be able to manage changes and should help their employees to do the same.

A considerable number of recent studies have confirmed the above claims (e.g. Palmer et al., 2001; Cavins, 2005; Bar-On, 2006; Baumann, 2006; Kerr et al., 2006; Singh, 2007). Stone et al. (2005), for example, found that enhanced stress-coping skills and verbal and non-verbal communication skills in leaders had positively impacted upon emotions and feelings in their employees. Carmeli (2003) reported that emotionally intelligent managers had displayed superior performance to their lower EI peers, both in terms of work-environment measures (teamwork and cohesiveness) and task measures (quality of job completed), as well as more positive work attitudes and altruistic behaviours. In other studies, high-EI leaders were found more likely to serve as mentors to their employees (Wong and Law, 2002) and were better able to promote emotionally-competent group norms (Koman and Wolff, 2008), to create enthusiasm for their ideas and vision (Lopes, Côté and Salovey, 2006), and to act as transformational leaders (Palmer et al., 2001). Mayer and Caruso (2002: p. 4) however noted that ‘there is more than one way to lead, and that certain situations call for EI more (or less) than others’.

2.3 EI and Teaching

2.3.1 An overview

The above-noted positive correlations between emotional intelligence and a broad range of work-related outcomes have been restricted mainly to industrial or commercial settings. For the purpose of the present study, the existence of similar links within the teaching profession is examined.

Similar to other organisations, schools are characterised by well-defined structures, processes, strategies, organisational culture, internal hierarchy, procedures and modes of operation, as well as by individual and collective goals, tasks, expected outcomes and end-products, many of which can be measured in terms of performance (e.g. Flizak, 1967; Sharan, 1976; Israeli Ministry of Education, 2002; Groman, 2007).

It follows that measures such as individual and group effectiveness and effective leadership, and elements such as positive social interactions and well-being at work, all of which were found to be associated with EI in industrial and commercial settings, may be relevant to the study of EI in teachers. However, while a certain level of transferability from non-educational settings is likely, EI-related evidence which directly concerns teachers is particularly valuable (Perry and Ball, 2008).

Many scholars have suggested links between EI and the quality of teachers' work (e.g. Fopiano and Haynes, 2001; Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; McCown et al., 2007; Rosenthal et al., 2008). Coetzee and Jansen (2007), for example, argued that teachers who demonstrate emotionally intelligent behaviours would be more effective in achieving the academic goals they have set to themselves, would demonstrate care,

create an emotional climate that enhances the learning environment, reduce peer conflict and facilitate a more desirable teaching context.

Following is a review of studies which explored the various above-noted links in teachers. Evidence regarding the potential impact of EI competencies in teachers upon EI in students is also discussed.

2.3.2 Links between EI and effective teaching

While discussion of the topic has grown in recent years, empirical studies of the links between EI and effective teaching are limited. Of those available, many have focused on teachers in institutions of higher education or on novice, rather than veteran, school teachers.

In one study by Stein and Book (2000) involving 257 elementary school teachers and 157 secondary school teachers, the authors found that the groups designated as ‘most effective’ by self-reports, had the highest EQ-i scores for optimism and self-actualisation (for elementary and secondary school teachers, respectively). Problem-solving and happiness were also high for both groups. Below-average effectiveness was found to be highly correlated with low impulse control in elementary school teachers and with low flexibility in secondary school teachers. The authors, however, did not indicate how the concept of effectiveness had been operationalised.

In their study of veteran teachers (n=239), Perry and Ball (2007, 2008) used their Reaction to Teaching Situations (RST) EI scale, a measure based on the Salovey-Mayer approach which calls upon participants to consider how they would feel and

think in specific teaching situations, in order to examine aspects of EI which are associated with the teachers' professional lives. They noted that reactions to positive and negative situations, and in particular to negatively-charged emotional situations involving students and peers, were moderated by the participants' emotional intelligence and that emotionally intelligent teachers were more likely to identify personal emotional flaws and to use a reflective approach in negatively charged situations. They concluded that high-EI teachers were more likely to be effective teachers than their low-EI peers (Perry and Ball, 2008).

In an apparent contrast, a comparison between MSCEIT scores of elementary school teachers (n=10) and their EI-associated classroom behaviours as perceived by their students (n=113), failed to show significant correlations (Boyd, 2005). Boyd (2005) attributed these findings to the use of an ability measure which, she claimed, does not necessarily reflect behaviours, and to inherent differences between students' and teachers' perspectives.

In one of the more extensive explorations of emotional attributes that underlie effective teaching among higher-education faculty staff, Haskett (2003) used the short version of the EQ-i (EQ-i:S) and the 'Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education' self-report scale of effective teaching (Chickering and Gamson, 1987, 1999) to compare 86 Teaching Award recipients with 200 randomly selected non-winners. She found the General Mood scale to be a significant determinant of winning the award, and noted significant links between other EI competencies and various aspects of effective teaching. These included links between intra-personal competencies and the ability to communicate high expectations;

between adaptability and the ability to provide prompt feedback and to emphasise time-on-task; and between interpersonal competencies and the ability to respect diverse talents and ways of learning, encourage active learning and promote student-faculty interactions. Similarly, Hwang (2007) found teaching effectiveness among faculty members at the Institute of Technology in Taiwan (n=225) to be positively associated with overall EI, as well as with a number of specific competencies, including empathy, self-esteem and leadership, as measured by the Nelson and Low Emotional Skill Assessment Process scale (ESAP, Cox and Nelson, 2008).

Finally, Drew (2006) compared the EQ-i scores of 40 teaching degree students with STP evaluations of their teaching skills, as assigned by their tutors (the STP, Student Teacher Performance tool, is used to evaluate desirable professional behaviours). Scores for general EI, Intra-Personal, Interpersonal and General Mood scales were all significantly and positively correlated with the total STP and with STP scores for various measures of effective teaching, such as Pedagogical Studies, Personal Disposition and Integrity.

2.3.3 EI and teachers' leadership skills

The managerial dimensions of the teaching profession have gained increased attention over recent years (Muijs, 2006; Robitaille, 2007). In particular, it has been argued that all teachers are leaders in the classroom (e.g. Boyd, 2005); that leadership skills support teaching (Anderson, 2004; Harris, 2007; Heider and Carlson, 2007; Covey, 2008); and that such skills could enhance teachers' personal well-being and personal growth (Gendron, 2008). Finally, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) noted that leading teachers tend to act as mentors, coaches, facilitators and creators of new approaches;

to effectively champion operational tasks; and to take an active part in school-level decision-making, partnerships and improvement efforts.

Goleman et al. (2002) argued that enhanced EI is essential for effective leadership of education systems, especially in complex times, while Fullan (2002) noted the importance of the ability to build positive relationships with diverse people and groups to school leadership. Indeed, several authors demonstrated links between leadership skills and EI in school staff. In a study of 332 Greek elementary school teachers using the EQ-i(S), Iordanoglou (2007) found that the intra-personal and interpersonal competencies had the strongest positive impact upon leadership effectiveness, as measured by the short version of the EQ-i. Other studies in school management staff showed EI to be linked with several leadership skills (e.g. Goleman, 2001b; Cook, 2006; Karman, 2010), and in particular resilience (Bumphus, 2008), the ability to form a broad range of positive interactions (Williams, 2008), and the ability to create a positive emotional climate (Reed, 2005). Watkin (2000) cited a UK study by Hay McBer in which behavioural-event interviews had linked effective performance of school principals with EI-related competencies, such as the ability to understand others and social awareness, as well as with behaviours that reflect optimism, resilience and good interpersonal relationships. Stone et al. (2005) found that principals and deputy principals (n=464) with high leadership skills scored higher on their total EI and on several EQ-i competencies (emotional self-awareness, self-actualisation, empathy, interpersonal relationships, flexibility, problem-solving and impulse control), than their lower leadership-skills peers.

2.3.4 EI and education – studies of students

Most reports on studies of EI and education have not addressed teachers directly, but rather explored links between EI skills and school performance in students (e.g. Palomera et al., 2008; Perry and Ball, 2008). Such studies have indicated positive links between enhanced EI skills and a variety of student outcomes: improved learning and academic achievements (e.g. AbiSamra Salem, 2000; Stottlemeyer, 2002; Parker et al., 2004; Low and Nelson, 2004, 2005; Zins et al., 2004; Marquez et al., 2006; Brackett et al., 2007); increase in pro-social behaviours and lower involvement in disruptive, violent and addictive behaviours (e.g. Petrides et al., 2004; Curtis and Norgate, 2007; Freedman and Jensen, 2008); increase in quality social interactions (e.g. Brackett and Katulak, 2006; Cohen and Sandy, 2007; Patrikakou and Weissberg, 2007; Stern and Elias, 2007); enhanced well-being (e.g. Elias et al., 1997; De Lazzari, 2000; Elias and Weissberg, 2000; Extremera and Fernandez-Berrocal, 2005; Palomera and Brackett, 2006; Ulutas and Omeroglu, 2007); higher school-retention rates (Parker et al., 2006); better adaptation (Mestre et al., 2006); increased attachment to school (e.g. Christenson and Havsy, 2004; Petrides et al., 2004; Brackett and Katulak, 2006); and easier transition to high school (Qualter et al., 2007). Low EI was linked to a variety of negative outcomes, such as bullying or being the target of bullying in children (Vogel, 2006); gambling; excessive use of the Internet; and gaming addictions in adolescents (Parker et al., 2008). Other studies linked EI to academic success in university students (e.g. Vela, 2003; Low and Nelson, 2004; Williams, 2004; Bar-On, 2006; Bradshaw, 2008; Nazir and Masrur, 2010).

As students' EI is affected to a large degree by their teachers, these findings have implications for the teachers' role and required skills, as further discussed in sections

2.3.6 and 2.4.2.

2.3.5 Emotions in teachers and the multi-dimensional role of EI in teaching

The links between EI and teacher effectiveness are derived, to a large extent, from the role of emotions in teaching and in teachers' professional lives (Ogurnir, 2008) and recent 'efforts to remedy the neglect of emotions in the field of teaching' (Hargreaves, 2001a: p. 1056) helped identify this role (e.g. Boler, 1999; Zembylas, 2003; van Veen and Lasky, 2005; Zembylas and Schutz, 2009).

Teaching 'is always an emotional practice' (Hargreaves, 2001b: p. 137). As compared with other professions, emotions (both positive and negative) manifest themselves more frequently and at higher intensity among teachers (Back, 2008). Teachers 'feel, often passionately, about their pupils, about their professional skill, about their colleagues and the structures of schooling, about their dealings with other significant adults such as parents and inspectors, and about the actual or likely effect of educational policies upon their pupils and themselves' (Nias, 1996: p. 293). In particular, they 'experience a wide range of positive and negative emotions while teaching and interacting with students' (Brackett and Katulak, 2006: p. 4). Scott and Sutton (2009) noted that teachers who are expected to change their teaching practice tend to experience similarly varied emotions.

Such emotions were noted to impact upon teachers' well-being; upon their personal and professional self-view (Nias, 1996); upon their attitudes towards their tasks (Day et al., 2007); and upon issues related to reforms and change (e.g. Lasky, 2005). Recent studies have similarly indicated that teachers' emotions play a unique role in the

classroom (Perry and Ball, 2007); affect social relationships (e.g. Palomera et al., 2008), teaching and learning (Hargreaves, 2001b); and impact upon success and achievements in students (Hargreaves, 1998).

It has been further acknowledged that emotional intra-personal, interpersonal and inter-group aspects of school life interact in complex ways and underpin every facet of teachers' work (Brearley, 2001; Levi, 2002; Harris, 2007; Rosenthal et al., 2008). Hargreaves (1999: p. 4) noted that teaching 'activates, colours and expresses teachers' own feelings and actions, as well as the feelings and actions of others with whom teachers interact'. He described the 'emotional geographies of teaching', i.e. the way in which teachers' emotions are embedded in the conditions and interactions of their work (Hargreaves, 2001a: p. 1058), and argued that the interactions between emotion, cognition, feeling and thinking are fundamental to teaching (Hargreaves, 1998; 2001a).

The following sections offer a review of the associations between a variety of emotional and social competencies and different aspects of teachers' work and lives. While such impacts are often intertwined (Boyatzis, 2008), they are organised here according to the five main scales of the Bar-On EI model, in line with the conceptual framework of the study. Unless otherwise noted, definitions for subscales are also largely in accordance with those of Bar-On (2007, see Table 2.1).

2.3.5.1 Intra-Personal competencies:

Teachers have often been noted to derive feelings of satisfaction from the psychic rewards of teaching (Hargreaves, 1998); from students' progress and responsiveness;

and from colleagues' and parents' support (Perry and Ball, 2007). Furthermore, teachers' positive emotions were noted to increase their well-being, energy levels and creativity (Hargreaves, 2001a); to contribute to their ability to create a positive classroom atmosphere; to encourage learning; and to support significant interpersonal relationships with students (e.g. Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; Palomera et al., 2008). However, teaching often takes place in crowded conditions, with students 'who are frequently energetic, spontaneous, immature and preoccupied with their own interests' (Nias, 1996: p. 296), and who vary greatly in their abilities, motivation, temperament, background, situational factors, emotional states and in their needs, interests and attention spans (e.g. Stein and Book, 2000; Matthews et al., 2005). As noted by Day et al. (2007: p. 243), 'The investment of emotional energy in the workplace is not an optional extra for teachers. They cannot, as those in most other professions, take a break or 'reschedule' their work'. Others similarly noted that teachers cannot leave the classroom when provoked (Jennings and Greenberg, 2009), that they are required to manage their emotions and to remain motivated 'week after week' (Stein and Book, 2000: p. 246), and that these conditions often lead to a range of negative emotions (Harris, 2007). In particular, such emotions have been claimed to arise when long-held guidelines and practices are challenged, or when trust and respect from parents, students, and the public in general, are eroded (e.g. Day et al., 2007; Perry and Ball, 2007; Jennings and Greenberg, 2009).

Negative emotions may cause teachers to feel disempowered and de-motivated (e.g. Morris and Casey, 2006; Palomera et al., 2008) and may negatively impact upon their mental health, job satisfaction and sense of self-efficacy (Pianta, 2006), as well as upon their attitudes towards students (Ogurnir, 2008). Thus such emotions may impact

upon students' feelings, teacher-student relationships and upon learning (Perry and Ball, 2007). It has been suggested that in order to remain effective while maintaining their well-being and work/life balance, teachers need to understand and to manage successfully the above-noted cognitive and emotional challenges (Day et al., 2007).

Intra-personal EI competencies (see Table 2.1), and in particular emotional self-awareness, are key to the successful handling of such challenges (Stein and Book, 2000).

i) Emotional Self-awareness: According to Jennings and Greenberg (2009), emotional self-awareness allows teachers to recognise and understand self-emotions and to manage them in the classroom. This, in turn, also enables teachers to motivate themselves when facing daily challenges (Stein and Book, 2000). Emotionally self-aware teachers have been noted more likely to anticipate the effects of their own emotional expressions on interactions with others, and therefore more likely to react to students in an appropriate manner (Brackett et al., 2009). Additionally, emotionally self-aware individuals are more effective decision makers (Weisinger, 1998), a quality which has been noted important to teachers' work (Dembo and Gibson, 1985). Finally, emotional self-awareness is fundamental for understanding others' emotions and for forming successful relationships (Goleman, 1995, 1998a; 2006). Indeed, emotionally self-aware teachers were noted to express interest, care and empathy more often than their less self-aware peers (Brackett et al., 2009).

In one study which included the entire staff of a medium-size school, five teachers

who had been identified as ‘top teachers’ by the school administration also scored significantly higher than their colleagues on self-awareness (Stein and Book, 2000). Furthermore, Stein and Book (2000, see also p. 50) also found self-awareness to be among the competencies characterising effective teaching in secondary school teachers.

ii) Assertiveness: Thomas-Maddox (2008) noted that assertive teachers demonstrate confidence in their interactions with students, manage classrooms effectively, tend to demonstrate excellence in their own work while expecting the same from their students, project positive authority, and consequently are perceived by students to be more competent. Bar-Lev (2006) similarly noted assertiveness to be linked with effective teaching, and especially with non-offensive boundary setting. Canter and Canter (2008) noted that assertiveness enhanced teachers’ ability to manage their responses to students’ misconduct, while Brown (2003) suggested that it is associated with higher task-orientation, and with actions such as placing higher demands on students and demonstrating authority.

iii) Self-Regard: High levels of self-regard in teachers have been suggested to indicate confidence in self-abilities (Jennings and Greenberg, 2009), and have been more generally associated with feelings of security, inner strength, fulfilment and self-satisfaction (Stein and Book, 2000). However, while studies of links between self-regard and teacher effectiveness are relatively rare, self-efficacy, a closely-related attribute, has been more widely studied in teachers. Self-efficacy has been described as the confidence in one’s ability to execute specified tasks at designated levels of performance and was noted to affect one’s feelings, thoughts, motivation levels and

behaviours (Bandura, 1977, 1994). According to Dembo and Gibson (1985), self-efficacy in teachers reflects their confidence in their ability to impact upon students' learning.

Recent studies demonstrated links between self-efficacy and EI in teachers. For example, variations in self-efficacy in teachers have been attributed, in part, to variations in their emotions (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003). Penrose et al. (2007) found significant, moderately-positive links between EI and self-efficacy, across gender, age, teaching experience and status, as reflected by the RTS and the Teaching Efficacy scale scores, among 211 elementary and secondary school teachers in Australia. Chan (2004) and Koçoğlu (2011) reported similar findings in studies conducted in Hong-Kong (n=158) and in Turkey (n=90), respectively. In particular, Gibbs (2003) noted that emotions are a source of information that influences self-efficacy judgments and suggested that awareness of self-emotions and moods and their potential effects, and familiarity with strategies to manage self-emotions, were all important to teachers' sense of self-efficacy.

Many authors further noted links between self-efficacy and effective teaching (e.g. Ashton, 1984; Guskey and Passaro, 1994; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Gibbs, 2003; Day et al., 2007; Penrose et al., 2007; Perry and Ball, 2007). Teachers with high self-efficacy were often noted to spend more time on large-group instruction; to have higher expectations; to persevere in challenging situations (Perry and Ball, 2007); to promote positive attitudes towards schools, teachers and academic content in students (Day et al., 2007) and to achieve higher on-task behaviours and student engagement (Dembo and Gibson, 1985). Other authors discussed attributes associated with self-

efficacy. Chan (2004) suggested that self-esteem (i.e. the overall value one places on oneself as a person (Judge and Bono, 2001)) can be viewed as a predictor of self-efficacy. Nias (1996: p. 296) noted that ‘As teachers invest themselves in their work, the classroom becomes a main site for their self-esteem and fulfilment’. According to Branden (1994), teachers with high self-esteem contribute significantly to students’ self-esteem. Conversely, teachers with low self-esteem tend to be impatient, rigid, and punitive and to focus on students’ weaknesses rather than on their strengths. Finally, in a study which had not included teachers but which bears relevance to the present study, Judge and Bono (2001) suggested that positive self-concept, a measure which includes self-esteem and self-efficacy, is among the factors which contribute to job satisfaction.

It should be noted that Stein and Book (2000) drew attention to some differences between self-esteem and self-regard, noting that the latter encompasses also the ability to accept self-weaknesses.

iv) Independence: Although links between this competency and effective teaching are not readily available, the ability to be self-directed, free of emotional dependency, decisive and risk-taking, and its suggested links with self-regard and assertiveness (Stein and Book, 2000), suggest its relevance to teachers. Indeed, in a study of 347 secondary-school teachers, independence was among the five EI competencies positively correlated with self-reported professional success (Stein and Book, 2000).

v) Self-Actualisation: Self-actualisation, the ability to strive to achieve personal goals and actualise one’s potential (Bar-On, 2007), has been linked with self-awareness,

effective problem-solving, assertiveness, independent decision making, optimism, and the ability to follow through with personal decisions (Bar-On, 2006). In teachers it has been linked with a capacity to fully enjoy work, become involved in extracurricular activities and constantly strive for excellence (Stein and Book, 2000). Those abilities, in turn, have been linked to teachers' effectiveness (Haskett, 2003). Additionally, Stein and Book (2000) found that self-actualisation was a hallmark of more self-reportedly successful elementary-school teachers (see also p. 50).

2.3.5.2 Interpersonal competencies:

i) Interpersonal Relationships: The social nature of the teaching profession has been the focus of many studies (e.g. Nias, 1996; Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; Pianta, 2006; Crawford, 2007; Harris, 2007; Gendron, 2008). For instance, it has been claimed that 'Teachers are placed as the central axis of the educational community and therefore as coordinators for an entire network of interpersonal relationships and educational processes that are within them' (Palomera et al., 2008: p. 446). The ability of teachers to form successful work-relationships with other teachers, as well as with administrators, board members, parents and communities, has been suggested to impact upon school and classroom climate (Boyd, 2005).

Of particular significance are the relationships teachers form with students. Positive teacher-student relationships have been noted to be an important element of quality teaching (e.g. Birch and Ladd, 1997, 1998; Hargreaves, 1999; Mugno and Rosenblitt, 2001; Bar-Lev, 2006; Stronge, 2007). Teachers who had formed positive relationships with students were argued to provide students with stable, safe, supportive and pro-

social classroom atmosphere (e.g. Brackett and Katulak, 2006; Jennings and Greenberg, 2009), and the latter was claimed critical for students' overall growth, well-being, positive behaviours, motivation and academic success (e.g. Nodding, 1992; Birch and Ladd, 1998; Harne and Pianta, 2001; Anderson, 2004; Brackett and Katulak, 2006; Goleman, 2006; O'Connor and McCartney, 2007). Furthermore, positive teacher-student relationships were noted to contribute to a sense of belonging and to a feeling of safety in students, and upon students' perceptions of peer positive and negative attributes and upon students' peer acceptance (Hughes et al., 2001). Finally, a recent study by Split et al. (2011) highlighted the contribution of positive student-teacher relationships to teachers' own well-being.

Positive affect, positive attitudes, closeness, attention, encouragement and positive feedbacks have all been shown to be critical to the development of positive relationships between students and teachers (Birch and Ladd, 1997; Good and Brophy, 2002; Stronge et al., 2004; Goleman, 2006; Stronge, 2007). More generally, a large number of scholars have claimed that EI enhances teachers' ability to establish and maintain effective interpersonal relationships with their students (e.g. Elias et al., 2001; Nelson, 2006; Cohen and Sandy, 2007; Palomera et al., 2008) and to provide them with a sense of self-worth and security (e.g. Haynes, 2007; Brackett et al., 2009).

Conversely, Goleman (1995), Brackett and Katulak (2006) and Harris (2007) all argued that interactions with teachers who are less emotionally intelligent may cause students to experience negative emotions (such as anxiety), may lead to inappropriate student behaviours, and may negatively impact upon students' well-being and self-efficacy (also Brearley, 2001). Furthermore, Jennings and Greenberg (2009) warned

that inadequate relationships between students and teachers may lead to animosity, fear of school, and later to feelings of alienation and disengagement.

ii) Empathy: Students undergo a wide range of emotions that are tied to a variety of experiences, both in school and at home (Brackett et al., 2009; Cefai and Cooper, 2009). Such emotions may impact upon their well-being, manner of interaction (Brackett et al., 2009), motivation (Haskett, 2003), quality of learning (Goetz et al., 2005) and academic success (Brunker, 2007). In view of this wide range of effects, empathy (see Table 2.1), noted to affect teachers' ability to understand students' views and needs (Brooks, 1999; Mugno and Rosenblitt, 2001), has been claimed essential to their ability to develop and maintain caring, meaningful and supportive relationships with students (e.g. Nodding, 1992; McAllister and Irvine, 2002; Mendes, 2003; Jennings and Greenberg, 2009).

Several authors noted links between caring (one aspect of empathy, see Table 2.1), and other teacher-specific positive behaviours such as listening, understanding, encouraging, demonstrating warmth, and seeing students as individuals (i.e. their personalities, likes and dislikes and personal situations) (Stronge et al., 2004; Stronge, 2007). More generally, Boyd (2005) noted the importance of empathy to effective teaching. Conversely, Hargreaves (2001a: p. 1060) argued that lack of emotional understanding (empathy) 'strikes at the foundation of learning and teaching – lowering standards and depressing quality', and noted that teachers who misunderstand students' responses may also have difficulty understanding how students learn. Hargreaves (2001a) further noted that teachers who lack emotional

understanding can easily mistake exuberance for hostility, may view students' emotions as an extension of their own, or may treat students' emotions stereotypically and may attribute certain emotional states to entire groups. Ogernir (2008) further cautioned that emotional misunderstanding could motivate low-empathy teachers to wrongly modify their own behaviours and thus may further undermine both teaching and learning (see also reality testing, p. 67).

iii) Social Responsibility: Iordanoglou (2007) found that teachers with high EI demonstrated higher levels of job commitment (as compared with their low-EI peers), an attribute which could be associated with social responsibility. Kelchtermans (2005) similarly noted that teachers were often motivated by the idea of making a difference in students' lives. Low commitment, associated with low social responsibility, has in turn been linked to low levels of teacher effectiveness and school success (Huberman, 1993; Anderson, 2004). However, in one study by Stone et al. (2005), social responsibility was not found to differentiate between more or less effective leaders among school management staff.

2.3.5.3 Interactions between intra-personal and interpersonal competencies

Highlighting the complex interactions between various EI competencies, several scholars have suggested that emotionally intelligent teachers would be able to recognise, empathise with, and effectively respond to emotions, behaviours, needs and experiences of students (e.g. Harris, 2007). Similar suggestions were made by Nodding (1992) with respect to highly self-aware teachers. Brackett et al. (2007) noted that teachers who had looked for the root causes to the emotional reactions of students

in the classroom (i.e. demonstrated emotional understanding of others) were able to help students to effectively manage their emotions and to become more focused on their learning. Furthermore, it has been suggested that such teachers are more likely to act proactively and to use emotional expression and verbal support to guide and manage students' behaviours (Jennings and Greenberg, 2009); to inspire students; and to increase attention, enthusiasm and motivation in the classroom (Gendron, 2008). Similarly, Perry and Ball (2005), in their study of 357 teachers-college students, found that participants who were identified as more emotionally intelligent (by the RTS measure) were also more sensitive to the emotions of students; were more considerate of students' needs; were more cognisant of the uniqueness of teacher-student interactions; and were better equipped to manage their own emotions in emotionally charged situations, this as compared with their lower-EI peers.

2.3.5.4 Adaptability:

While reality testing and problem-solving, two of the three competencies that comprise this domain (see Table 2.1), have not been widely studied, all three have been suggested to affect teacher-student relationships and teaching effectiveness.

i) Reality Testing: This competency involves the ability to 'read' situations accurately, to size up what is 'going on', and to tap into emotional currents in groups while keeping a broader and correct perspective (Stein and Book, 2000). It was thus highlighted by Drew (2006) as important to teachers, especially in view of the complex current realities in the classroom. Indeed, Bar-Lev (2006) noted it to be characteristic of teachers who are able to form positive teacher-student

relationships (see also Ogernir 2008, p. 65).

ii) Problem-Solving: Stein and Book (2000) noted this competency to characterise effectiveness in both elementary and secondary school teachers. Their findings are congruent with the previously-noted calls on teachers to solve problems of a social and emotional nature in the classroom (Drew 2006; Nelson, 2006).

Referring to both of the above-discussed adaptability competencies, Bharwaney and Paddock (2003) noted that help professionals with high reality testing and problem-solving skills, including teachers, are likely to be solution-oriented, while their less skilled peers may spend much time defining problems.

iii) Flexibility: It has often been noted that teaching calls for a balance between different perspectives, goals, educational processes, expectations, needs and emotional levels (e.g. Adar, 1976; Groman, 2007), and that teachers are often called upon to take multidimensional actions at a moment's notice and to adapt their knowledge and skills to different demands as events unfold (Anderson, 2004; Kennedy, 2006). Stronge et al. (2004) articulated some of these challenges by noting that every school year brings changes to which teachers must adapt. In view of this multi-faceted nature of the teaching profession, flexibility has been proposed to be most important to teachers (e.g. Freedman and Lotan, 1993; Leblanc, 1998; Kennedy, 2006; Back, 2008; Timperly, 2008). In particular, Weare and Gray (2003) emphasised that flexibility enhances tolerance and enables teachers to work effectively when faced with diverse groups of students (also in Liesveld and Miller,

2005), while Sammons (1999) noted its importance to teacher-student communications. Stein and Book (2000) further suggested that high flexibility promotes positive, open and meaningful teacher-student relationships and supports effective teaching, while low flexibility, which may be manifested in rigidity, strictness and reliance on discipline, may lead to poor student-teacher relationships. Finally, in a study by Patrick and Smart (1998) flexibility was found to be the variable most significantly associated with teachers' respect for students (the latter an important element of effective teaching).

2.3.5.5 Stress Management:

i) Stress Tolerance (coping with occupational stress): Teaching is commonly regarded as a challenging, emotionally demanding and stress inducing profession (e.g. Kyriacou, 2001; Carlyle and Woods, 2002; Nelson, 2006), and teachers have often been noted to display very high levels of occupational stress (e.g. Drew, 2006; Harris, 2007). Beyond the impacts upon the teachers themselves (e.g. Weare and Gray, 2003), such stress has been noted to impact upon students and upon teacher-student relationships (e.g. Holmes, 2005; Cohen and Sandy, 2007).

A large number of potential stress-inducing factors in teachers have been cited. These include teacher interactions with students, parents, management staff and colleagues (Lasky, 2005); the efforts required to regulate self-emotions and those of others (Palomera et al., 2008); rapid changes and frequent reforms and innovations within the teaching profession (Elias et al., 2001; Gibbs, 2003; Hargreaves, 2005; Kelchtermans, 2005; Hebson et al., 2007); increasing demands and subsequent work overload

(Carlyle and Woods, 2002; Nelson, 2006; Day et al., 2007); the advent of multicultural societies (Weare and Gray, 2003); and a deterioration in the emotional state, attitudes and behaviours of students (e.g. Goleman, 1995; Elias et al., 1997; Cohen, 2001; Patrikakou and Weissberg, 2007; Saarni, 2007).

High levels of stress in teachers may negatively impact upon teachers' well-being (Holmes, 2005), health (Nelson, 2006), motivation, sense of professional fulfilment, satisfaction (Harris, 2007), identity (Carlyle and Woods, 2002) and self-efficacy (Freedman and Lotan, 1993; Kyriacou, 2001), and may lead to burnout (Dorman, 2003) and early retirement (Harris, 2007). Other outcomes may include low responsiveness to students (Cohen and Sandy, 2007), reduced frequency of teacher-student interactions, lower sympathy levels, and an increase in cynical attitudes (Jennings and Greenberg, 2009; Brackett et al., 2010). Stress can therefore be detrimental to teacher-student relationships, classroom management, classroom climate, teaching attitudes and quality of teaching (e.g. Dorman, 2003; Brackett and Katulak, 2006; Palomera et al., 2008; Jennings and Greenberg, 2009).

As many of the above-noted stressors are beyond the control of teachers (Freedman and Lotan, 1993; Nelson, 2006), internal resources for effective management of emotions, thoughts and beliefs in teachers are highly important (Gibbs, 2003). EI has been suggested to offer such a resource and to act as a moderator for stress (e.g. Slaski and Cartwright, 2002). Palomera et al. (2008) proposed that EI enables teachers to use positive and well-adapted coping strategies, while others noted that EI contributes to teachers' emotional health and may help them to manage daily stress; to remain

effective; (e.g. Brackett and Katulak, 2006; Drew, 2006; Nelson, 2006); and to maintain their well-being (Holmes, 2005). Jennings and Greenberg (2009) drew particular attention to the contribution of self-awareness and regulation of emotions to stress management. More specifically, the inclusion of a stress management scale in Bar-On's model has been noted to render it especially relevant for teachers (Drew, 2006).

Finally, Brackett and Katulak (2006), Chan (2006) and Jennings and Greenberg (2009) all note that while links between teachers' low EI, occupational stress, negative attitudes and burnout have recently been reported, the cause and effect relationships are yet to be resolved.

ii) Impulse Control: In a study of secondary school teachers in England (n=123), Brackett et al. (2010) found emotion-regulation (measured by the MSCEIT and closely related to impulse control) to be positively associated with job satisfaction, positive affect at work and low burnout. Similarly, in their survey of 257 elementary teachers, Stein and Book (2000) noted low impulse control, as manifested in loss of temper, lack of patience or poor organisational skills, to be the competency most often associated with ineffective teachers. Teachers' non-regulated behaviours may contribute to the creation of an unsafe and unpredictable environment for students, which, in turn, could negatively affect students' emotions. In particular, such teachers' behaviours may cause them to internalise and adopt un-controlled affective states and corresponding reactions, respectively, and may thus negatively impact upon their emotional development and regulation (Matthews et al., 2004).

2.3.5.6 *General Mood:*

Specific EI strengths and positive emotions and moods have been examined as part of the study of positive psychology (e.g. Seligman, 1990, 1995, 2002; Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Bilski, 2004; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Gilbert, 2006; Ben-Shahar, 2008; Zimmerman, 2010; Lyubomirsky, 2011). These have been linked with the abilities to handle difficulties, generate new ideas (Fredrickson, 2001, 2009) and regulate emotions effectively, as well as with resiliency (Tugade and Fredrickson, 2004), and creativity and flexibility (George, 2000), all attributes that are highly relevant to teachers. The concept of *flow* (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), i.e. the capacity to become absorbed in an activity, has been linked to positive emotions such as optimism and joy, and more generally was noted to represent EI at its best and to offer an experience which effective teachers can share with their students (Goleman, 1995). Indeed, numerous studies have drawn attention to the importance of moods, and in particular enthusiasm, optimism, joy, cheerfulness and approachability, to teachers' work effectiveness (Haskett, 2003). However, in accordance with the study's framework, general mood is discussed here in terms of the two subscales defined by Bar-On (1997), namely, optimism and happiness.

i) *Optimism:* Optimistic attitudes were argued to trigger positive emotions; to promote tolerance to negative situations (Goleman, 1995; Fredrickson et al., 2003); to motivate action (Ben-Zeev, 2001); and to have a wide-range impact upon physical and psychological health, relationships and work effectiveness (e.g. Seligman, 2002; Fredrickson, 2009). In line with Seligman (2002), recent studies have also referred to optimism in terms of the 'explanatory style' attribute. As noted earlier, optimism has

been identified the most significant differentiator of effectiveness among educators (Stein and Book, 2000; Watkin, 2000; Haskett, 2003).

ii) Happiness: Happiness too was found to characterise effective teachers (Stein and Book, 2000; Haskett, 2003). These findings are in line with more general findings which suggest that happy people tend to form a wide range of strong social relationships and are emotionally capable of reacting appropriately to life events (Diener and Seligman, 2002). Furthermore, according to the Broaden-and-Build model (Fredrickson, 2001), happier employees are more resilient, socially connected, physically and mentally healthy, creative and productive than their less-happy peers (Rego and Conha, 2008).

2.3.6 EI enhancement in students

Teachers, by virtue of their occupation, are concerned with the overall development of their students and wish to provide them with the fundamental social, emotional and academic skills that would secure their success in school and beyond (e.g. Areglado, 2001; Kasem, 2002; Patrikakou and Weissberg, 2007). Indeed, schools nowadays are often expected to combine rational, systematic and practical norms for standards, competition and accountability with a more humanistic, holistic and socio-emotional approach to educational practices (e.g. Claxton, 2005; Nelson et al., 2006; Cefai and Cooper, 2009; Elbertson et al., 2010; Maskit, 2010; Optalka, 2011); attending to students' individual differences (Perry and Ball, 2008); and helping students to become both academically accomplished and socially and emotionally literate (e.g. Claxton, 2005; McCown et al., 2007). In particular, there is a growing recognition that teachers make a crucial contribution to the social-emotional development of children

(e.g. Jennings and Greenberg, 2009) and that enhanced emotional intelligence in teachers may in turn impact upon this contribution (Fopiano and Haynes, 2001; Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; Tal, 2005; Maree and Mokhuane, 2007; McCown et al., 2007; Rosenthal et al., 2008).

For example, a study carried out by the UK Department of Education and Skills as part of the 'Every Child Matters' programme found that development of social-emotional skills in pre-service and in-service teachers was one of the most effective methods to develop these skills in students (Weare and Gray, 2003). Such findings are consistent with the idea that 'it is not possible to teach a competency which one has not acquired, just as it is not possible to have quality teaching in the absence of the teacher's own well-being' (Palomera et al., 2008: p. 441).

While an important part of teaching, this topic is discussed at length in the following section, as it has to do with the more general aspects of EI development.

2.4 The Development of Emotional Intelligence

2.4.1 An overview

The demonstration of links between EI and various aspects of human performance has inevitably led to questions regarding the ability to enhance EI. Noting both previous assumptions that EI-associated abilities or competencies are determined at birth and the subsequent focus on selection and placement, Boyatzis (2007) drew attention to evidence that EI competencies are not fixed and can be further developed.

Indeed, one of the more appealing aspects of the concept of EI has been the claim that social-emotional competencies and related behaviours can be directly targeted and actively enhanced (Ben-Zeev, 2001; Bryan, 2006).

With mounting evidence that enhanced EI may improve life outcomes for both individuals and organisations (e.g. Goleman, 1995; Bar-On, 2006; Wall, 2007), time and effort have increasingly been devoted to EI enhancement in individuals (Matthews et al., 2004). Such efforts have encompassed different settings, mainly commercial organisations, institutions of higher-education and schools (targeting mostly students); a variety of programmes and interventions; different EI frameworks (i.e. both ability and competency); and numerous strategies (e.g. Goleman, 1998a; Orme and Cannon, 2000a; Haskett, 2003, 2004; Ciarrochi and Mayer, 2007). Recent studies have indeed demonstrated the enhancement of EI skills and related behaviours in a variety of settings, including in schools and at the workplace, as well as in clinical settings (Bar-On, 2007). Nevertheless, studies of EI development in teachers remain scarce (e.g. Fer, 2004; Corcoran and Tormey, 2010). Accordingly, the following review opens with a discussion of findings which could be tentatively extended to EI development in teachers, and then presents the available, yet limited, data from teacher-targeted studies. Also included are a review of processes and guidelines for effective EI development and reports of their employment in teacher-targeted EI development programmes.

2.4.2 Development of EI in children

Salovey and Mayer (1990) were the first to suggest that the range of essential skills addressed by the ‘whole child’ pedagogic approach should be expanded to include

social-emotional skills (Goleman, 2007b). It has been argued that all individuals are born with an innate tendency to develop EI, that they acquire and refine it at a young age (e.g. Haviland-Jones et al., 1997; Saarni, 2000; Scharfe, 2000), and that they continue to develop it throughout adolescence (e.g. Bar-On, 1997; Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Saarni, 1997). Neurological studies of synapse formation support these claims (e.g. Goleman, 1995; Greenberg and Snell, 1997; Shapiro, 1997).

The development of EI in children was noted to take place within a social context (e.g. Elias et al., 1999; Scharfe, 2000; Matthews et al., 2004; Saarni, 2007) and the social-emotional learning experiences provided during this critical developmental period were noted for their importance (Nelson et al., 2006). In particular, parents are commonly viewed as the major force responsible for the attainment of emotional competencies in children (e.g. Shapiro, 1997; Patrikakou and Weissberg, 2007; Saarni, 2007; Stern and Elias, 2007) and links between EI levels and EI-related behaviours in parents and children have been noted (Goleman, 1995; Shriki, 2006; Saarni, 2007). Schools and teachers have also been argued to play an important role in the development of social-emotional skills in children (e.g. Graczyk et al., 2000; Brearley, 2001; Weare and Gray, 2003; Tal, 2005; Zins et al., 2007; Jennings and Greenberg, 2009, see also p. 72), and more so when socialization processes at the home are not optimal (Mayer and Salovey, 1997).

Commensurate with the finding of links between students' social-emotional skills, academic success and various additional aspects of students' performance (see p. 54), recognition of the importance of social-emotional aspects of education has increased (e.g. Kasem, 2002; Elias, 2003; McCombs, 2004; Fernandez-Berrocal and Ruiz,

2008), as has the number of students introduced to social-emotional training programmes (e.g. Goleman, 1997; Elksnin and Elksnin, 2003; Goetz et al., 2005; Patrikakou and Weissberg, 2007; Zins, et al., 2007; Rivers and Brackett, 2011). Social Emotional Learning (SEL) programmes (Elias et al., 1997; Cohen, 1999), referred to also as Emotional Literacy programmes (e.g. Steiner, 2003; Claxton, 2005; Cowie and Jennifer, 2007) refer to the knowledge and skills that children acquire through social-emotional education, instruction, activities, or promotion (Zins, 2001). These programmes aim to help students cope successfully with present and future challenges and to improve social-emotional skills, well-being, academic achievements, and behaviours (e.g. Elias et al., 2001; Kusche and Greenberg, 2001; CASEL, 2003; Fleming and Bay, 2004; Goleman, 2004). Such programmes, which focus on both promotion and prevention (Goleman, 2004; Patrikakou and Weissberg, 2007) and which target a wide range of educational goals (Zins et al., 1997) have been referred to as ‘the missing piece’ of education (Elias et al., 1997: p. 1) and as ‘highly relevant for education globally’ (Zins et al., 2007: p. 91). Areglado (2001) however notes that despite this growing recognition, realities often fall short of intentions, and not enough resources and incentives are given to schools who promote social-emotional development.

A rigorous evaluation of SEL programmes has proven difficult, given their wide range of settings and the varying modes of their implementation (Matthews et al., 2004; Humphrey et al., 2007). However, direct and indirect evidence from well-designed and well-researched SEL interventions has demonstrated positive emotional, social and academic outcomes (e.g. Dasho et al., 2001; Cohen and Sandy, 2007; Freedman and Jensen, 2008; Palomera et al., 2008; Payton et al., 2008; Durlak et al., 2010), as well

as a contribution to the prevention of risk behaviours in students (e.g. Patrikakou and Weissberg, 2007; Zins et al., 2007). Such evidence thus suggests that it is possible to enhance social-emotional knowledge and competence in students through social-emotional training (e.g. Goetz et al., 2005; Brackett and Salovey, 2006; Zins et al., 2007; Fernandez-Berrocal and Ruiz, 2008).

In his analysis of outcomes from the pioneering Self-Science programme (Stone and Dillehunt, 1996), Bar-On (2006) reported significant pre-post improvements in EQ-i Youth Version (YV) scores and in particular in emotional understanding; emotional expression and regulation; the ability to understand and relate to others; and school adaptation, in a class of 26 elementary school students. Congruently, McCown et al. (2007) noted that teachers in that same programme reported increased cooperation, improved classroom interactions and increased focus, attention and learning, among the students.

Goleman (2007b) highlighted the importance of data from a meta-analysis of 668 independent CASEL studies which had examined the impact of EI development efforts on school students and which had demonstrated reduction in suspension rates; improvement in school discipline and in pro-social behaviours; greater emotional commitment to the school; and significant increases in indicators of academic achievements. Other widely-employed SEL programmes, such as the Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS) (Greenberg et al., 1995; Cohen, 2001; Kelly et al., 2004; Matthews et al., 2004; Curtis and Norgate, 2007) and the New Haven School Development Program (Shriver et al., 1999; Haynes, 2007), similarly demonstrated positive outcomes. Additionally, in her study of a group of at-risk high

school students who had undergone a ten-week EI training unrelated to SEL, Smith (2004) found significant improvements in EI skills as reported by student and teacher rating, as compared with a control group.

Beyond formal EI development programmes, it is important to note claims that teachers are always engaged in teaching social-emotional competencies (e.g. Goleman, 1995; Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Brearley, 2001), as ‘The way they listen and talk to children, solve problems, cooperate and manage internal and interpersonal moments are on-going ‘lessons’ from which children learn’ (Cohen and Sandy, 2007: p. 63). It follows that teachers continuously serve as emotional role models (e.g. Goleman, 1995; Haynes and Marans, 1999), constructive or otherwise, both intentionally and inadvertently (Brearley, 2001), and both directly and via indirect interactions which students observe (Matthews et al., 2004).

Additionally, teachers have often been noted to develop social-emotional skills in their students by means of informal conversations, immediate reactions to emotions, mediation of emotional experiences, controlled exposure to different emotional-related situations, coincidental teaching, scaffolding dialogues, and by coaching and mentoring (Elias et al., 1997; Elksnin and Elksnin, 2003; Low and Nelson, 2005; Tal, 2005; Rosenthal et al., 2008). Other than role modelling, these various interactions have been claimed to be the most powerful modes by which teachers can develop EI competencies in their students (e.g. Cohen, 2001; Matthews et al., 2004; McCown et al., 2007).

It has been argued that in order to model and enhance EI in students, teachers need

themselves to be highly emotionally skilled (Elias et al., 1997) and highly self-aware (Haynes and Marans, 1999). Others have noted that EI skills are more readily taught and enhanced in an overall positive climate (e.g. Brearley, 2001; Fopiano and Haynes, 2001; Matthews et al., 2004; Low and Nelson, 2005; Harris, 2007), and highlighted the importance of the overall affective environment in both schools and classrooms (e.g. Cohen, 2001; Elias, 2003; Allen and Cohen, 2006; Zins et al., 2007; Palomera et al., 2008) and, in particular, of positive teacher-student relations (Mugno and Rosenblitt, 2001), to the enhancement of EI. The ability to create positive and supportive class climate have been suggested, in turn, to be linked to teachers' EI (see page 63).

2.4.3 Development of EI in adults

Many argue that beyond early development EI can be further enhanced later in life (e.g. Cherniss et al., 1998; Goleman, 1998a; Matthews et al., 2004; Lopes, Côté and Salovey, 2006; Fragouli, 2009), and above and beyond the natural modest increase which takes place until mid-life (Bar-On, 2006). According to Boyatzis (2007: p. 157), long-term research of various therapies, self-help programmes, training programmes and education systems 'has shown that (adult) people can change their behaviours, moods and even their self-image'. In particular, some recent studies have demonstrated that changes in the inter-related competencies which comprise EI can also take place in adulthood (Boyatzis, 2007, 2009). Goleman (1995) cited neurological research that has pointed to a level of flexibility in the synaptic connections between emotional and cognitive areas in the adult brain and to the formation of new synapses when EI learning takes place, as further evidence that EI may continue to develop in adults.

Most of the above claims have been based on studies of EI training programmes in industrial and commercial organisations and in institutions of higher education. Some of these more prominent studies are reviewed below.

2.4.3.1 Development of EI in industrial and commercial organisations:

The increase in recognition of the importance of EI skills to professional and organisational performance increased also the incorporation of EI into professional training programmes in industrial and commercial organisations (e.g. Robins, 2002; Abraham, 2006; Schmit, 2006) as well as the rigorous study of such programmes (e.g. Bar-On et al., 2006; Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2007; Gendron, 2008). Such studies typically assess direct quantitative shifts in EI and/or measure organisational outcomes, such as performance, productivity or financial results, across a range of occupations (e.g. Cherniss and Goleman, 2001; Spencer, 2001; Goleman et al., 2002; Bar-On et al., 2006; Lopes et al, 2006).

Slaski and Cartwright (2003) investigated the impact of four weekly EI-training sessions upon 60 UK managers, six months after the completion of training. They found significant improvements in the mean total EQ-i (from 95.6 to 100.8), in most group competencies, and in the general health and well-being of group members, as compared with a control group. Sala (2002) used the ECI to examine the impact of the one-year Mastering Emotional Intelligence programme upon a group of 20 Brazilian and North-American managers and consultants. While noting the small sample and the lack of a control group, the author reported significant improvements in nineteen and eight of the 20 EI competencies, for the US and Brazilian samples, respectively.

Differences between the groups were suggested to stem from differences in their levels of motivation and commitment (Sala, 2002).

Significant gains in EI and improved financial outcomes were found also in studies of the American Express Financial Advisors EI-training programme (Lennick, 2007). In particular, EQ-i statistically significant increases in total EI score (from 94 to 100) and in self-regard, assertiveness, empathy and reality testing were noted in a pilot for the programme. Even larger EQ-i increases in total EI, from 97 to 106, and in nine of fifteen EI competencies (especially in emotional self-awareness and empathy) were noted among twenty nine managers of a Stockholm construction company who had participated in an EI intervention programme (Sjölund and Gustafsson, 2001 in Bar-On, 2006, 2007a). Those who entered the programme with the lowest EI demonstrated the highest gains, a trend which has also been noted in the above Lennick' (2007) study.

While acknowledging these promising results, Boyatzis (2007) cautioned that the majority of studies on this topic did not examine the sustainability of EI-induced changes.

2.4.3.2 Development of EI in institutions of higher-education:

Evidence of links between EI skills, academic performance and successful occupational future has brought about the increased incorporation of EI development efforts into university curricula (Haskett, 2003; Cavins, 2005).

Perhaps the most well-researched EI training programme in a higher education setting

is the competency-based programme offered at the Weatherhead School of Management (WSOM) MBA programme at the Case Western Reserve University in Cleveland, Ohio (Boyatzis, 2001, 2007, 2009; Boyatzis et al., 2002; Boyatzis and Saatcioglu, 2008). In particular, special emphasis was placed on a series of longitudinal studies which utilized measures such as questionnaires as well as audio- and video-taped behavioural samples to evaluate changes in EI (e.g. Boyatzis and Van Oosten, 2002; Goleman et al., 2002). Significant improvements in general EI levels and over most competencies were found in participants from the school's full-time and part-time MBA programmes (young adults), as compared with a control group. Improvements in EI were evident up to seven years after graduation, rendering this one of the few studies in which long-term sustainability of EI development was measured (Boyatzis, 2007, 2009). Some of the most significant and sustainable gains were noted in two groups of part-time MBA students who had been tracked by Wheeler (1999, in Boyatzis, 2007) for two years following graduation. These included a 63% improvement in self-awareness and self-management, a 45% increase in social awareness and a similar improvement in relationship management, as compared with a control group. Ballou et al. (1999) reported similarly large increases, especially in self-confidence, leadership and goal setting, among executives (45-55 years old) from the Professional Fellows executive education programme in WSOM who had undergone a similar EI training.

In other studies, Jaeger (2003) measured significant gains in total EQ-i scores (from 101 to 106) and in all five composite scales among a group of Public Administration students whose training included an EI segment, as compared with a control group. Similarly, Esmond-Kiger and Kirch (2003) found positive outcomes such as increased

motivation levels, more employment opportunities and higher rates of enrolment into advanced programmes, among business graduate students who had participated in an EI training programme.

2.4.3.3 Development of EI in teachers – current efforts:

Brackett et al. (2009) suggested that in view of the wide-ranging lack of emotional literacy training efforts among teachers, a majority of teachers stand to benefit from a structured and systematic EI development training. Furthermore, in a study among 80 teachers, Boyd (2005) found a nearly perfect bell-shaped distribution of the MSCEIT scores around the normal, thus showing the potential for such benefits. However, a survey of EI-related literature reveals that efforts to develop teachers' EI are not as common as ones in other settings and have not been widely studied (e.g. Kasem, 2002; Corcoran and Tormey, 2010). Much of the available literature on the topic is SEL-related (e.g. Maree and Mokhuane, 2007) and describes programmes which provide knowledge and understanding of the concept of EI; highlight its importance to students and schools; familiarize teachers with an EI curriculum; and provide strategies for teaching it (e.g. Brackett and Katulak, 2006; Cohen and Sandy, 2007). While a few of these programmes include a segment dedicated to teachers' development (e.g. Seigle, 2001), not much has been published about them (Goleman, 2007a).

Findings from the above-noted efforts indicate that they have led to increased use of emotional information, both self-emotions and those of students, in lesson plans and in the classroom (Brackett and Katulak, 2006). In particular such efforts have enhanced teachers' sensitivity to students' emotions in different situations (Brackett et al., 2007) and increased their ability to respond constructively to students' social-emotional

needs (Brackett et al., 2009). Furthermore, preliminary findings from a pilot study in South Africa, in which a teachers' EI-training programme comprised the first stage of an SEL programme, show increased teachers' recognition of the importance of EI to schools (Maree and Mokhuane, 2007). However, most available reports do not offer a rigorous examination of EI development in teachers and findings, and the evidence cited in them on this topic is mostly indirect.

In one of the few studies which focused on EI development in teachers, Byron (2001) examined the effect of an EI training programme upon 37 novice teachers in the state of NY. Participants were given an oral review of the Salovey-Mayer EI model, spent several hours reading EI-related materials, and were asked to keep daily records of emotional experiences and to share their entries with other participants. These measures led to significant increases in emotional integration and in the ability to perceive self-emotions, as measured by the MSCEIT group scores. The absence of change in the model's two higher-hierarchy abilities: understanding emotions and managing emotions, was attributed by Byron (2001) to the training's limited time frame. Fer's (2004) qualitative study, conducted among 20 secondary teachers in Turkey, examined a 15-hour voluntary, teacher-targeted EI development process and revealed similarly positive outcomes. The participants viewed the concept of EI positively, proceeded to gain EI knowledge and claimed to have acquired useful SEL teaching strategies as well as additional professional and life skills.

Walker (2001) examined the impact of a 30-day emotional awareness programme upon a group of elementary school teachers (n=12) from several US schools. The programme employed the 'Research Tool', a set of off-school exercises which the

participants had been asked to do on their own. Comparisons of both pre-post ECI scores and questionnaires with a control group (n=14) revealed some improvements in both groups but no significant differences between them. These outcomes were attributed, in part, to the length of the study, which might have not allowed for changes to be perceived as significant; to the nature of the programme, which had precluded supervision or support; and to the introduction of some EI-related concepts to the control group. Similarly, a very recent study by Corcoran and Tormey (2010) which examined the effects of an EI training programme upon 15 teachers-college students failed to reveal significant changes in EI, as measured by the MSCEIT. The authors attributed these results, in part, to the participants' limited teaching experience which had prevented them from fully benefiting from the training.

The paucity of EI development studies of teachers led Cohen and Sandy (2007: p. 71) to state that 'little attention has been given to the importance of adults being social-emotional learners themselves'. Jennings and Greenberg (2009: p. 496) similarly concluded that 'Although a great deal of attention has spotlighted students' EI development, there has been little focus on teachers' own development'.

2.4.4 Effective processes for EI development – elements and guidelines

2.4.4.1 An overview:

With mounting evidence that certain development programmes can increase EI, it has become important to identify the ones which are most effective, and in particular the ones most suited for EI development in teachers.

Most of the search for effective EI development processes has focused on EI

organisational-training. Using studies on topics as diverse as adult learning, change theories, professional development, counselling, psychotherapy and behaviour modification and a wide range of corresponding training programmes, factors and guidelines that contribute to effective social-emotional learning and development in organisations were delineated (e.g. Cherniss et al., 1998; Orme and Cannon, 2000a, 2000b, 2001a, 2001b; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001; Fragouli, 2009).

Neale et al. (2009) noted that effective EI development is a process which requires a theoretical basis; an understanding of the concept; the development of competencies; and changes in habits, attitudes and behaviours (see also Cherniss et al., 1998). Furthermore, as emotions, thoughts, competencies, behaviours and habits are all unique to each individual, recent EI development processes in all settings (including organisational and academic) recommend that change processes include a focus on individuals (White, 2006; Bharwaney, 2007; Boyatzis, 2007; Wolfe, 2007). Similarly, a focus on the development of individual EI competencies is considered more effective in promoting change than a focus on knowledge transference (e.g. Tal, 2005; Bharwaney, 2007; Boyatzis, 2007). In examining methods to promote such multifaceted development processes, Neale et al. (2009) highlighted the importance of reflective learning, noting that reflections on thoughts, feelings and behaviours which underlie attitudes and habits, both personal and of others, enhance the development of EI competencies.

Of the various available EI development programmes, a majority view the development of emotional self-awareness as their first priority (e.g. Cherniss et al., 1998; Cherniss and Adler, 2000; Ciarrochi and Mayer, 2007; Brackett et al., 2009;

Neale et al., 2009). Cherniss and Adler (2000) went further to note that such focus on self-awareness should go beyond emotions to target values, beliefs and self-perceptions.

Additionally, beyond the development of the four basic emotional abilities described by Mayer and Salovey (1997), competency-based EI training frameworks promote (to varying degrees) holistic approaches to the development of social-emotional competencies (Ciarrochi and Mayer, 2007). Ciarrochi and Mayer (2007: p. 148), although ability approach proponents, went on to emphasize the advantage of such inclusive programmes, noting that ‘no part of an individual’s psychology [i.e. awareness] operates in isolation’.

In his Intentional Change model Boyatzis (2001, 2006c, 2007) attempted to describe effective EI development from a personal perspective. He noted such a process to comprise of five phases, or ‘discoveries’: the ideal self (personal and professional goals and aspirations); the real self (current strengths and weaknesses, based on assessments and feedbacks); the learning agenda (building on strengths and focusing on development while reducing gaps); experimenting with new behaviors, as a pathway towards the ideal self; and the development of trusting relationships that help the process. He also noted that the proposed model is consistent with other theories of individual change, such as those of Prochaska (1999) or the CREIO model for developing EI (Cherniss et al., 1998) (Boyatzis, 2001).

Cherniss et al. (1998) further noted the importance of sustainability efforts, i.e. on-

going support for maintenance of acquired skills, to effective EI training. In particular, they noted that application of newly-learned skills to real-life situations poses a challenge in social-emotional learning, as learners encounter many cues that reinforce and support old habits and behaviours, as well as barriers which discourage the use of new competencies (Cherniss et al., 1998). Addressing the same concerns, Orme and Cannon (2001b) recommended the teaching of relapse-prevention techniques to participants in EI training programmes.

A large number of scholars focused on the effective implementation of EI training programmes in organisations (e.g. Cherniss et al., 1998; Cherniss and Caplan, 2000; Chapman, 2005). Many of them noted that such programmes, as well as the corresponding guidelines which are incorporated into them, involve several, carefully-designed stages of development (with small variations corresponding to underlying models): preparation (gaining organisational and individual commitment, identifying needs and designing a programme); action (implementing the programme – training and development); maintenance (inoculating against setbacks and building on-going support); and evaluation (e.g. Cherniss et al., 1998; Orme and Cannon, 2000a, 2000b, 2001a; Cherniss and Caplan, 2001; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001; Chapman, 2005). In the field of education, Cowie et al. (2004) presented the Cycle of Change, a model for the implementation of a mental health school intervention which includes five stages: pre-awareness (during which schools are unaware of problems and do not yet consider change); awareness (identifying the causes, consequences and solutions for problems); action (researching suitable interventions, developing an action plan and implementing chosen interventions); maintenance; and review and evaluation. Brackett et al. (2009) recently suggested a model for EI implementation in schools, which includes three

main stages: readiness; implementation; and sustainability; and which involves school administration, teachers, students and parents in all stages.

Beyond these general guidelines, following is a more detailed discussion of leading elements and of additional guidelines for effective EI development.

2.4.4.2 Main elements and guidelines for effective EI development:

i) Motivation: According to Boyatzis (2007: p. 160), ‘Most, if not all, sustainable behavioural change is intentional’, while learning which is not self-motivated is disregarded or forgotten and is unlikely to lead to change. Cherniss et al. (1998) further noted that high motivation is especially essential to EI development processes, as these address modes of thinking and acting which often are perceived to be identity-defining, and therefore require changes in deep-rooted attitudes, habits and behaviours and call for much time and commitment. Indeed, motivation during all phases of EI training programmes, both organisational (e.g. Orme and Cannon, 2000a; Kram and Cherniss, 2001; Orme and Germond, 2001a; Robins, 2002), but mainly individual (e.g. Cherniss et al., 1998; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001; Boyatzis, 2007), and in various settings, including schools, has been noted to be crucial to their success (Levi, 2002).

In highlighting potential impediments to motivation, Cherniss and Goleman (2001) drew on Prochaska (1999) to note that potential-trainees may be in the ‘pre-contemplation’ phase and may not realise the need for change, or else that they are in the ‘contemplation’ phase and may not be convinced that they want to or are able to change. Others similarly suggested that EI development processes have the potential to reveal weaknesses that may adversely affect self-esteem which could make them even

more challenging and demanding (Neale et al., 2009). Byron (2001) noted that individuals who are reluctant to participate in EI training programmes may consider their emotions private and personal, or may view the engagement with emotions as a sign of irrationality or weakness, or as personally threatening. Finally, in a specific reference to EI training, Goleman (1995) suggested that teachers may be reluctant at the outset to tackle a topic that seems foreign to their practice and routines, while others argued that school teachers are often conservative and wary of changes and thus in particular need of motivation for change (Fullen and Stiegelbauer, 1991; Levi, 2002; Anderson, 2004; Haynes, 2007).

In light of the above-noted importance of motivation to EI processes and the demonstrated difficulties in generating motivation for change among trainees, and in particular among teachers, many EI studies have examined elements which contribute to EI training motivation. Initial motivation to participate in change processes, including in educational change processes and EI training programmes, has been found to derive from a variety of factors: applicability and perceived relevance of the training (Pruyne, 2009); degree of agreement between new goals and former objectives or educational beliefs (van Veen and Lasky, 2005); confidence in the ability to reach pre-defined goals (e.g. Huy, 1999; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001; Broun, 2007); a sense of personal control over the process (Diedrich, 1996; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001); faith in the process as a means to achieve a desirable change (Cherniss et al., 1998); trainers' credibility (Cherniss and Adler, 2000); and a perception of self-gain, i.e. that the process offers opportunities, including ones for the fulfilment of needs (Lasky, 2005), both at work and off work (Cherniss et al., 1998). Referring specifically to the motivation to become engaged in EI training programmes,

Boyatzis (2001) noted the following motivating goals: to increase effectiveness at work, to achieve personal growth, or to be better equipped to assist others with the development of EI competencies.

The currently leading guidelines for gaining and maintaining motivation for participation in EI training processes were formulated by Cherniss et al. (1998), based on a synthesis of the practice of fourteen model programmes (Boyatzis, 2001). These guidelines address mainly the early stages of the training and commonly include the following features: voluntary participation is highly encouraged; trainers are asked to determine the degree of trainees' willingness to participate in the programme and to adjust the preparation stage accordingly; trainers are encouraged to demonstrate that EI is congruent with the values of participants and that its development can contribute to the achievement and realisation of goals and hopes. Adjustment of the participants' expectations and enhancement of their self-efficacy are also recommended, as is the establishment of trust in facilitators (see also Orme and Cannon, 2000a). Beyond these guidelines, it has been demonstrated that positive relationships between trainers and learners as well as frequent trainer-feedbacks are main sources of motivation through all stages of EI training programmes (Cherniss et al., 1998).

ii) Self-directed processes: Beyond their contribution to motivation, self-directed processes were noted to directly contribute to the development of social-emotional competencies (Cherniss et al., 1998; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001; Boyatzis, 2007; Brackett et al., 2009). In particular, such processes were noted to encourage participants to be personally accountable for their progress (Cherniss et al., 1998; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001; Boyatzis, 2002, 2007; White, 2006); to involve

participants in planning, carrying out, and evaluating their learning experiences (Robertson, 2004; Timperly, 2008); to motivate them to decide which competencies to work on; and to encourage them to set their own goals and to select learning techniques and practice opportunities most suited to them (Cherniss et al., 1998). Goal-setting, an important part of self-directed processes, has been noted to be most effective when the goals are clear, specific, realistic, challenging, broken into manageable steps (Cherniss et al., 1998; Orme and Cannon, 2001a; Robins, 2002) and apply to multiple settings (Wheeler, 1999 in Boyatzis, 2007).

iii) Process-integrated assessments: Assessments of individual competencies have been linked to the quality of EI development processes in a variety of settings, including schools (e.g. Brackett et al., 2009). Delivered usually by means of feedback sessions, results from such assessments provide participants with insights into personal strengths and challenges, increase their awareness of both, and serve as a foundation and motivation for subsequent development processes (Cherniss et al., 1998; Bharwaney, 2007; Hughes and Terrell, 2009). Assessments have been noted to be especially valuable to individuals who are unaware of their limitations or to those who resist speaking about them (Hughes and Terrell, 2009). Indeed, in a study among elementary school teachers, Kaufhold and Johnson (2005) credited competency assessment results with assisting teachers to better understand their personal skills and with enabling them to recognise areas for further self-development.

The above effects often depend on the level and depth of assessment results interpretation (Handley, 2009), on their manner of delivery, and on the credibility assigned to them by participants (Cherniss et al., 1998). In particular, Cherniss et al.

(1998) cautioned that assessment results should be delivered with sensitivity, and in a supportive, respectful and confidential atmosphere, so as to preserve the participants' self-esteem and sense of identity. Additionally, by addressing both personal strengths and challenges, trainers are likely to preserve and enhance self-efficacy and motivation among participants (Boyatzis, 2002). In line with the social context in which EI competencies are manifested, Cherniss et al. (1998) recommended the use of multi-rater assessments, suggesting that these would provide additional insights into trainees' EI.

iv) Varied training strategies: EI development programmes have been noted to be most effective when more traditional training methods, such as lectures and reading-and-writing assignments, are supplemented by a variety of active and concrete experiential learning methods (Cherniss and Adler, 2000; Robins, 2002). These may include role plays, group discussions, simulations, observation of effective models, brainstorming, games, musical and drawing activities (e.g. Orme and Cannon, 2000c; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001; Fer, 2004), as well as mindfulness, expansion and comprehension of emotional vocabulary, cognitive reconstruction and reframing, self-talk, talks with friends, feedbacks from trainers, and techniques that target specific competencies (Ciarrochi and Mayer, 2007). Similarly, both Orme and Cannon (2000b) and Chapman (2005) noted that learning should be cognitive, emotional and multi-sensed, and recommended the use of Gardner's multiple intelligences (1983) in EI training programmes. Several authors noted the importance of practicing newly acquired skills through repeated exercises and feedback sessions and in as many different settings as possible (e.g. Cherniss et al., 1998; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001; Orme and Cannon, 2001a; Boyatzis 2002; Fer, 2004; Bryan, 2006).

iv) Relationships: Relationships within EI development processes were noted to provide participants with context, guidance, support, permission to change, feedback and protection from relapses (Boyatzis, 2007). In particular, relationships with colleagues during teacher training processes and CPD and subsequent colleague support during these processes were argued to promote collaborative inquiry (Zins et al., 1997), to allow for the sharing of ideas, concerns and doubts between peers, and to support peer learning (Anderson, 2004). In one particular example of the importance of peer relationships to EI development, group work during EI development processes was suggested to support the ability to challenge existing status quos, to create a shared vision and to develop group norms (Druskat and Wolff, 2001). Furthermore, group work among teachers within SEL programmes was noted to provide a sense of ownership over processes and to create a sense of synergy (Haynes, 2007). Other than peer relationships, relationships with trainers have also been noted to be highly important to EI development processes, and in particular to the motivation to participate in such processes (Cherniss et al., 1998, also see p. 91).

This element, which has been noted to be central to EI coaching (Boyatzis, 2007) is further discussed in section 2.5.2.

v) Long-term effort: It has been widely acknowledged that EI development requires an extensive, routinised, long-term effort, and cannot be achieved by means of a single workshop, however intensive (e.g. Orme and Cannon, 2000b; Weare and Gray, 2003; Brackett and Salovey, 2006; Brackett et al., 2009; Neale et al., 2009). Extended EI training periods provide time for practice and repetition in a variety of settings

(including work) and allow participants time to change deep-rooted habits (Cherniss et al., 1998).

Grant (2007) highlighted the importance of intervals as an integral part of long-term training processes, noting that post-graduate students who had participated in an extended, but spaced, 13-week EI development training, demonstrated significantly larger EI gains than those who participated in a short-term (two days), block intensive programme.

2.4.4.3 Some pertinent caveats

While most scholars agree on the potential contribution of EI development to professionals in a variety of fields, a few concerns have also been raised. Boler (1999) drew attention to the potential dangers of indoctrination, whereby individuals undergoing EI training would feel compelled to adopt a single ‘right way’ of feeling and behaving. Matthews et al. (2004) wondered whether competencies could be over-developed, e.g. if the targeting of self-confidence could lead to over-confidence and even to narcissism. However, other scholars claim that the above concerns, which appear to apply to teachers too, may be circumvented by employing well-designed, effective EI training programmes (AbiSamra Salem, 2010) and expert trainers (Bharwaney, 2007).

2.4.5 EI development in teachers – proposed venues

It has been argued that teachers are rarely provided with opportunities to engage in self-exploration or in the development of their own emotional competencies (e.g.

Cohen and Sandy, 2007; Jennings and Greenberg, 2009), and are not encouraged to consider the impact of ‘their way of being’ upon their work (Harris, 2007: p. 69), that despite being often involved in SEL programmes (see p. 83). Others noted that SEL programmes often fail to provide teachers with opportunities and support to ‘walk the walk’ (Cohen and Sandy, 2007: p. 70), or to ‘practice what [they] preach’ (Cohen, 1999: p. 18), and thus contribute to their failure to teach EI to students.

A growing number of scholars support the inclusion of teacher-targeted EI competency development as a crucial element of SEL programmes (e.g. Brackett and Katulak, 2006; Brackett et al., 2007; McCown et al., 2007; Palomera et al., 2008), arguing that such inclusion would support EI development in students (Weare and Gray, 2003; Haskett, 2004; Brackett, 2008; Brackett et al., 2009). In particular, it has been claimed that teachers who develop their own EI skills are better able to model desired EI behaviours, apply EI-based principles to everyday situations and facilitate interpersonal problem-solving and conflict resolution (e.g. Elias et al., 1997; Assor, 1998; Cohen, 2001; Cohen and Sandy, 2007; Jennings and Greenberg, 2009).

Furthermore, it has been suggested that EI development should become part of general professional development programmes for teachers (Kasem, 2002; Haskett, 2003, 2004; Weare and Gray, 2003; Boyd, 2005; Tal, 2005; Drew, 2006; Nelson, 2006; Palomera et al., 2008), a less-used venue for EI development efforts as compared with SEL. This latter option has been cited mostly apropos the above-described links between EI and different aspects of teachers’ lives (see section 2.3.5) and in light of suggestions that EI development is valuable for teachers irrespective of the need to formally teach EI to students. In particular, it has been argued that development of EI

competencies could enable teachers to better understand what underlies their motivations and behaviours (Haskett, 2004), and has the potential to enhance less-developed competencies; reduce work stress (Kaufhold and Johnson, 2005); contribute to greater understanding of students' emotions (AbiSamra Salem, 2010); improve teacher-student relationships (Jennings and Greenberg, 2009) and promote effective teaching (Cohen, 2001).

The above-noted potential benefits prompted scholars as early as Hargreaves (1998) and as recent as Jennings and Greenberg (2009) to express their surprise at the scarcity of specific EI development training programmes for teachers. The Emotional Literacy Program for Educators, a recent effort to integrate EI development into teachers' trainings as part of the Emotionally Literate School programme (Brackett et al., 2009), is one example of this shift in views. In a 2008 interview, Brackett (2008) noted that his former 'Emotionally Intelligent Teacher' (EIT) training programme (Brackett and Katulak, 2006) did not adequately prepare teachers to develop SEL skills in students, mainly as it did not address the teachers' own individual skills and 'life stories'. He went on to describe a new, teacher-targeted, EI training programme (Brackett, 2008), remarking that 'When we originally went to do our work, we only trained the teachers how to do the programme. Now we take a step back and we train the teachers themselves. Then we train them how to do the curriculum. And we found that level, that sort of way of working in makes a big difference'. More specifically, Brackett (2008) suggested that development and growth of self-awareness and EI skills in teachers would lead to new attitudes and behaviours in teachers and to social-emotional growth in students.

2.5 EI Coaching

2.5.1 An overview

Coaching, a fast-growing development method (Boyatzis, 2006a) commonly described as ‘learner centred’ (Diedrich, 1996: p. 61), involves individuals in a process of self-discovery, exploration, and the setting and pursuit of personal and personally-meaningful goals. Although definitions of the term vary, most scholars view coaching as a collaborative relationship aimed at attaining personal and professional development outcomes which are valued by the individual (Grant et al, 2010). While self-directed, coaching processes are invariably assisted, monitored and accompanied by personal coaches (e.g. Creane, 2002; Whitworth et al., 2006; Bharwaney, 2007; Grant, 2005, 2007). Unlike other one-on-one training methods such as mentoring (an apprenticeship-like process); counseling (which addresses distress and difficulties); and consultancy (advice based on expert knowledge) (Neale et al., 2009); coaching assumes learners to be experts with respect to their own lives and goals (Katz, 2005; Blanchard and Homan, 2004; Whitworth et al., 2006) and focuses on personal growth and performance enhancement rather than on past problems (Campbell and Gardner, 2005; Katz, 2005; Kemp, 2005). Thus it has been referred to by several authors as a transformational process (Chapman, 2005; Griffiths, 2005).

EI coaching, a very recent model of EI competency development, employs one-on-one coaching sessions as a means for self-exploration and development (e.g. Grant, 2005; Hughes et al., 2005; White, 2006; Wall, 2007; Wolfe, 2007) and is becoming a widely used method for developing EI, especially in organisations (e.g. Boyatzis, 2002, 2007; Bharwaney, 2007; Hughes and Terrell, 2009; Neale et al., 2009). In particular, one-on-one development methods, including coaching, have been recommended for teachers

by several scholars (e.g. Day et al., 2007; McKinsey report, 2007), that even though most training programmes for teachers are group-based (e.g. Levi, 2002; Harris, 2007). For example, Reio (2005) noted that coaching helps teachers to learn about their environments and to adapt accordingly while Brackett et al. (2009) recommended EI coaching as a very effective means to explore personal emotional skills, to develop EI in teachers, and to support SEL efforts. Instances in which one-on-one training has been used in a school setting include the mentoring of novice teachers by more experienced teachers (e.g. Bullough, 2009); efforts to foster school leadership either through peer collaboration (school leaders' coaching partnerships) (e.g. Robertson, 2004) or with the help of external coaches (Baskin and Krindler, 2008); coaching of veteran teachers with the aid of external trainers (Broun, 2007); and one-on-one sessions administered to teachers by external coaches in support of their SEL efforts (Seigle, 2001; Brackett et al., 2009) and to develop their EI skills (Brackett et al., 2009). Preliminary studies of coaching-incorporated, teacher-targeted, school training programmes revealed positive changes in academic measures, students' behaviours (Baskin, 2010), self-efficacy and personal life outcomes (Broun, 2007), and an increased ability to coach and to develop coaching skills in others (Robertson, 2004). While affordability and time constraints have to be considered whenever external coaches are involved, data from the above-cited studies suggests that coaching-based EI training could be within the reach of schools, especially if combined with other methods, such as workshops (Caruso and Wolfe, 2001; Bharwaney, 2007).

2.5.2 EI coaching methodology

While social-emotional elements have been recommended as a means to increase effectiveness in several types of coaching programmes (e.g. David, 2005), EI coaching

is specifically designed to help adults develop their EI skills so that they can become more effective and productive, both at work and otherwise (Bharwaney, 2007).

Typical EI coaching processes encourage individuals to select certain, and often interrelated, competencies that require development (Hughes and Terrell, 2009) and to define personal and professional goals that these enhanced competencies can help achieve. A competency-development action plan is then designed and later employed (Peterson, 1996; Bharwaney, 2007; Boyatzis, 2007). Despite being a highly personal process, effective EI coaching incorporates the theoretical and empirical aspects of EI and often utilizes an EI assessment tool (Orme and Cannon, 2000a; Haskett, 2004; Jennings and Palmer, 2007) such as the EQ-i (Bharwaney, 2007; Hughes and Terrell, 2009). Thus it is a flexible yet structured and carefully planned process, designed to ensure consistency and high quality (Bharwaney, 2007). Boyatzis (2007: p. 160) further lauded EI coaching for ‘helping individuals along their intentional change process’, and noted it to be especially suitable for addressing the discoveries which had been described in his intentional change model.

It has been suggested that the inclusion of one-on-one segments supports positive trainer-trainee relationships, an element which had been noted for its importance in EI development processes (Chapman, 2005), and allows trainees to better address personal competencies, unique circumstances, strengths and challenges (Robertson, 2004). The success of EI coaching programmes is thus dependent on the characteristics of the coaches that deliver them (Boyatzis, 2006a; Wolfe, 2007) and the relationships coaches establish with their trainees (Chapman, 2005). Effective EI coaches base such relationships on mutual respect, support and care (Diedrich, 1996);

demonstrate sensitivity, empathy and optimism with regards to individuals' potential for change (Boyatzis, 2006a); help set short-term and long-term goals; provide trainees with personally-tailored strategies (Brackett et al., 2009); and act as emotionally-intelligent role models (Orme and Cannon, 2001a; Wolfe, 2007).

Bharwaney (2007) distinguished between two main forms of EI coaching: individual-based (in which individual trainees achieve personal and/or professional goals through a series of one-on-one coaching sessions); and group-based (in which several individuals from the same organisation are assisted in achieving collective goals through both one-on-one coaching sessions and facilitated group workshops).

Although individual-based EI coaching programmes are often the first choice of organisations, and hence often used for executive coaching (Haskett, 2004; Chapman, 2005), group-based coaching has been argued to be cost-effective, to provide a high return on investment (ROI), and to be less time consuming (Caruso and Wolfe, 2001). At the same time, group-based coaching has been recommended as an effective EI-development tool which combines the advantages of one-on-one coaching with essential group elements (Chapman, 2005; Bharwaney, 2007). Furthermore, group-based coaching has been noted to address the interdependence between learners and their environments (Dasho et al., 2001); to facilitate peer support (Cherniss et al., 1998; Boyatzis, 2007); to provide real-world training opportunities; to help solve social problems within the group (Caruso and Wolfe, 2001); and to enhance collegiality and collaboration (e.g. Caruso and Wolfe, 2001; Cherniss and Caplan, 2001; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001; Cohen and Sandy, 2007).

Due to its novelty, critical reviews of EI coaching are still scarce. Two concerns, however, have already been raised. White (2006) noted the possible risks involved in exploring challenging and painful topics during the coaching process, while Bharwaney (2007) noted that coaching in organisational settings can be risky for some organisations, as engagement in critical conversations with a personal coach may accelerate a desire to leave a ‘toxic’ workplace.

2.5.3 Evaluating the effectiveness of EI coaching – methods and findings

Like in other EI development programmes, evaluations of EI coaching processes rely to a great extent on pre-post EI assessments and on assessments of individual and organisational changes (e.g. Cherniss and Adler, 2000; Orme and Cannon, 2000a; Chapman, 2005). Based on her own experiences, Bharwaney (2007) recommended the use of Kirkpatrick’s (1994) Four Levels of Training Evaluation criteria: reaction (level of satisfaction); learning; behaviour; and results (including EI assessments and organisational outcomes).

A number of studies have recently employed such evaluation tools in order to examine the effectiveness of EI coaching. Participants in an EI coaching process at the Dell Computer Corporation were reported to have acquired knowledge about the concept and to have recognised the importance of identifying, understanding and managing their emotions (Wolfe, 2007). In another EI coaching programme which included five one-day workshops, several personal coaching sessions, and the keeping of a feeling diary, subsequent interviews revealed that the participants had improved their ability to identify personal goals; had widened their perception of themselves and others; and had become aware of links between their thoughts, feelings and behaviours (Chapman,

2005).

Gains in EI, a measure which has acquired dominance recently, were reported in several studies (White, 2006; Bharwaney, 2007; Boyatzis, 2007; Jennings and Palmer, 2007), including in a study of 47 UK executives by Orme (2003, in Bar-On, 2006), where significant post-training gains of 5-10 points in a large number of competencies had been found. Other EI coaching studies indicated significant improvements in targeted behaviours (Cherniss and Adler, 2000), as well as positive organisational outcomes (e.g. Caruso and Wolfe, 2001), such as improved work effectiveness; promotions; a sustained commitment to professional development (Wolfe, 2007); improved manager-subordinate relationships; enhanced job satisfaction (Jennings and Palmer, 2007); reduced stress levels; and increased life satisfaction (Luskin et al., 2005).

2.5.4 Teacher-targeted EI coaching

The above-described Emotionally Literate Schools programme (Brackett et al., 2009, p. 88) includes what appears to be one of the first published group-based EI coaching models for teachers. The model comprises assessments, group workshops and one-on-one coaching sessions. While some of these sessions are designed to support SEL efforts, others aim ‘to help teachers and leaders achieve their vision and enhance their professional practice through goal setting and [EI] skill building’ (Brackett et al., 2009: p. 349). The group segment is largely dedicated to methods of teaching SEL to students. Empirical evaluations of the model have not yet become available.

2.6 Summary

EI appears to be a viable and well-supported concept, and one which is linked to positive outcomes in a variety of domains. EI studies comprise a dynamic field of research, and as new studies are constantly being conducted, the concept is continually being refined. Although more rigorous studies are called for, mounting evidence suggests that EI programmes may enhance EI in individuals (including adults), enable the development of specific EI competencies, and lead to a range of positive outcomes in both individuals and organisations and in a variety of settings. While EI development efforts in teachers are still rarely practiced and explored, evidence of the links between EI and different aspects of effective teaching is starting to emerge. In particular, while certain aspects of EI in teachers, such as positive emotions or self-efficacy, have already been discussed in the non-EI literature, the concept of EI allows for a multi-dimensional view of the competencies underlying effective teaching (Haskett, 2003). Furthermore, while different EI competencies may impact upon different aspects of teachers' lives (alone or in clusters), it has been suggested that in themselves they do not account for teachers' performance, and that only a balance between them can lead to improved teaching effectiveness and to teachers' well-being (Weare and Gray, 2003).

Several scholars have already recommended the use of EI as part of the training in teachers-colleges (Drew, 2006). However, others noted that schools regularly rely on existing staff and that in-service EI training may therefore be of value to teachers, students and schools. In particular, the targeting of personal EI competencies as part of professional development programmes for teachers has been recently recommended (e.g. Haskett, 2003).

Elements that appear to be suitable for teachers were identified in organizational EI-training studies (e.g. Cherniss et al, 1998) and were recommended as part of teachers' CPD (e.g. Guskey, 2003). Furthermore, group-based EI coaching was noted to successfully incorporate many of the guidelines for effective EI training, and has been recently recommended as especially suitable to schools (Brackett et al., 2009).

In light of the above findings, the Bar-On model was chosen as a basis for the conceptual framework for the present study. Accordingly, EI has been conceptualised as a multiple-set concept, comprised of multiple social-emotional competencies that are interrelated and act in synergy. In line with this model and with previous studies, it has been further assumed that EI competencies are associated with emotionally intelligent behaviours, and are linked to teachers' effectiveness, which is in itself a multifaceted concept.

In line with evidence that EI can be developed in adults through training, the present study followed and examined a process designed to develop teachers' EI competencies. It appears that the study is the first to explore a group-based EI coaching model for training within a school setting and the first to examine processes of individual development of EI (in its 'multiple set of competencies' conceptualisation) in teachers.

Chapter Three: Methodology

3.1 Background

As stated in Chapter 1, the present study was designed to narrow the knowledge gap regarding EI training programmes for teachers. In particular, and as noted in Chapter 2, only a few of the studies of EI development in commercial and higher education settings have qualitatively explored the EI development process itself or the perceptions and experiences of those involved in such processes (Fer, 2004). Similarly, van Veen et al. (2005: p. 918) claimed that much of the research on teachers' reactions to change had been reported 'in rather cognitive, rational terms, failing to articulate the layers of emotion that seem to be involved'.

The study aimed to explore whether a single teacher-targeted, group-based EI coaching programme, conducted in a single, Israeli school setting, would enhance teachers' EI and would bring about positive professional and organisational changes, as demonstrated in other contexts (e.g. Wheeler, 1999 in Boyatzis, 2007). The study's methodology was chosen to fit the proposed conceptual framework and the study's goals: to gain a deep understanding of the specific EI training programme at the centre of the study; to capture the experiences of participants and to present rich data regarding EI development among Israeli teachers; and to examine perceived impacts of the training programme upon personal conceptions, perceptions, behaviours, effectiveness and life outcomes among both participants (teachers) and students and upon the school in which the study took place.

The choice of methodology was further motivated by a search for an effective design

of future EI training programmes. Thus, it has been argued that while EI interventions (both as SEL programmes among students and in the workplace) have already been shown to enhance EI, ‘what we now need to explore is exactly what it is about these programs that makes them effective’ (Salovey, 2007: p. 295).

This chapter describes the research approach and methodology utilised in the study and provides details of the training programme at its core, as well as of the setting, the research sample and the data collection methods employed. Additionally, data analysis methods, ethical concerns and limits of the study are reviewed.

3.2 Research Paradigm and Framework

The choice of research paradigm and framework for the present study derived from the theoretical and empirical questions that had occupied the author. In line with the study’s conceptual framework, an interpretive paradigm and a mainly qualitative framework, typically associated with the interpretive view (Brannen, 2005), were adopted. Choice of methodology was further informed by the assumptions underlying the paradigm and framework, including ones on the nature of reality and knowledge and of their interactions. In line with Fer (2004), it has been assumed that the experiences of teachers could serve both as powerful tools in pedagogic research and to provide insights into EI development processes in general.

The interpretive paradigm envisions reality as a complex, multifaceted (Patton, 1990), subjective, socially constructed and context-sensitive system (Shkedi, 2004). Accordingly, interpretive studies aim to capture the depth, complexity, meaning and

richness of various phenomena (Stake, 1995; Creswell, 1998; Bassey, 1999; Marshall and Rossman, 1999) while taking into account context and setting (Yin, 1993; Shkedi, 2004; Shalsky and Alpert, 2007), or as noted by Patton (1990: p. 37), ‘to inductively and holistically understand human experience in context specific settings’.

Since an underlying assumption of the interpretive paradigm is that reality cannot be separated from human experience and knowledge of it, interpretive studies assume that all relationships between researchers and knowledge are subjective and relative (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). It follows that interpretive researchers are co-creators of meaning, bring their own subjective experiences to their research, and always negotiate knowledge within specific cultures, values, relationships and social settings (Shaviv-Schnieder, 2006).

EI development, the subject of the present study, is considered a complex, multi-levelled (Neale et al., 2009) and highly individual process (Boyatzis, 2007), involving multiple realities (Fer, 2004) and interrelated personal and organisational objectives (Bharwaney, 2007). Such individual processes touch upon issues of personal identity and deep-rooted habits and behaviours (Cherniss et al., 1998) and are affected by their settings (e.g. Kram and Cherniss, 2001). With respect to the other important aspect of the present study, namely teacher training and enhanced teacher effectiveness, Day et al. (2007) noted that studies related to teacher effectiveness increasingly explore the impact of context.

Thus an interpretive paradigm was deemed to be best suited to the topic of study and to its goals. In particular, such a paradigm appeared most likely to promote a deep

understanding of the EI development process under study.

The choice of a *qualitative research framework* arose naturally from the selection of an interpretive paradigm. Based on the interpretive view of reality and of knowledge, qualitative research frameworks call upon researchers to study phenomena in their natural settings; to understand and interpret the world constructs of individual participants; to attach much importance to personal knowledge, views and perspectives; and to note the meanings attributed by participants to personal experiences which had gone through during the research (Patton, 1990; Sabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1990; Boyatzis, 1998; Creswell, 1998; Fer, 2004; Shkedi, 2004).

As qualitative research is inductive, the qualitative researcher aims to gain a general analytical or thematic understanding of a given phenomenon (Shaviv-Schnieder, 2006) by gathering rich and varied data, examining it in depth and discerning existing patterns, while ensuring that preconceptions and pre-formulated hypotheses would not affect either the design of the study or the data analysis process (Shkedi, 2004). As such, qualitative research often provides information that cannot be gleaned from quantitative measurements (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005).

A qualitative framework has been recommended for the study of many education-related phenomena and for a variety of settings (Sabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1990). It is considered to be especially well suited for describing and examining development processes, including ones that involve complex phenomena and a multitude of highly entangled, and yet not fully-elucidated, factors (Shaviv-Schnieder, 2006), as is the case for EI development in teachers.

It was thought that a qualitative research framework would allow the author close proximity to the participants' experiences within the training and to the meanings they had attached to such experiences; facilitate the accumulation of *thick* and rich descriptions (Geertz, 1973); and provide insights into the participants' unique personal constructs (Shkedi, 2004). In accordance with both Creswell (1998) and Marshall and Rossman (1999) it was also presumed that a qualitative framework would enable the author to take into account the setting of the school in which the study was set and would illuminate the cultural, social, organisational and personal contexts in which the above-noted constructs had been developed. Additionally, and in line with Shaviv-Schnieder (2006), a qualitative framework was expected to allow the author to examine a wide range of events, effects and nuances which have been part of the long process undertaken by the participants; to recognise various patterns in the accumulated data; and to discern personal effects specific to individual participants

It should be noted that while quantitative measures have been seen to offer some indication of the effectiveness of past EI-development processes (e.g. Bar-On, 2006), it was thought that a quantitative approach would not allow for the collection and analysis of multi-faceted data of the type expected at the onset of this study.

3.2.1 Validity and reliability of qualitative studies: All researchers seek tools to ensure the quality of their findings and to demonstrate that these findings are reliable and valid. While the rationalistic, positivist paradigm employs internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity as criteria for precision and accuracy, Guba and Lincoln (1981) have developed the concept of 'trustworthiness' as a tool for

examining rigour in qualitative inquiries. Designed to reflect the researcher's ability to persuade others (and oneself) of the logic, consistency, meaning and importance of qualitative results (Sabar Ben-Yehoshua, 2001), trustworthiness comprises four criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability, corresponding to internal validity/face validity, external validity/generalisability, reliability, and objectivity, respectively (Seale, 1999; Trochim, 2006).

i) Credibility: This criterion refers to the extent to which the collected data accurately reflects the multiple realities associated with the studied phenomena (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). It is achieved through prolonged engagement with informants (Sabar Ben-Yehoshua, 2001); triangulation of data; and the sharing of emerging concepts and categories with participants (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). In the present study, the author followed closely the EI training from the time of its inception. This prolonged, two-year involvement limited researcher bias, compensated for the effects of unusual events, and allowed the author time to gain the trust of the participants. Triangulation was achieved by incorporating the results of two instruments: an EI measure (the EQ-i) and interviews. Data interpretation was validated by member checking, whereby two participants (selected in accordance with availability and convenience), were approached over the phone and asked to comment on lists of emerging categories which had been based on their own personal interviews (see p. 132). In both cases, details were either fully corroborated or required only minor modifications.

Peer debriefing, another measure which was noted to contribute to credibility (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), was achieved by data sharing with a member of the training team. The shared data included emerging categories and other analytical results. Bearing in

mind the risk for increased bias, peer comments were restricted to issues related to data analysis and the proposed categories, and discussion of the training itself was avoided. It is important to note that while the choice of a peer external to the training process might have appeared more rigorous, such a choice would have violated the participants' confidentiality (p. 122). Furthermore, external peers likely would have lacked the depth of understanding required in order to assess the process under study.

Credibility can further be enhanced by 'negative case analysis', i.e. by examining deviations from patterns in the data and attempting to account for them (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Such analysis was incorporated into the present study.

ii) Transferability: Transferability reflects the extent to which findings can be applied to other contexts (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). While inferences of transferability are mainly made by readers (Marshall and Rossman, 1999; Fer, 2004), transferability is enhanced when various perspectives and experiences of participants, as well as research details such as methodology, interpreted results and emerging conclusions, are all thoroughly described, in accordance with the 'thick description' principle (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Shkedi, 2004). Purposive sampling, i.e. purposely selecting locations and informants that differ from one another in order to maximise the range of the information that can be obtained, is also been suggested to increase transferability (Teddlie and Yu, 2007). In the present study, an effort was made to adhere to the above transferability-promoting elements. However, as the training programme was a unique case and involved only one group, purposive sampling could not be employed.

iii) Dependability: Dependability ensures that the gathered data represent the changing

conditions of the phenomenon under study (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). To that end, the researcher is asked to describe both the changes that had occurred in the setting during the study and their impact upon the study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommended an ‘auditing’ approach, whereby detailed accounts of each stage of the research process, from design, through analysis, to conclusions are provided, as a guarantee that correct procedures are followed and that data are coded and categorised correctly.

In the present study, dependability guidelines suggested by Gay and Airasian (2000) and by Trochim (2006) were adopted. Accordingly, reflections, concerns and uncertainties which were raised in the course of the study, as well as research procedures and field notes, were all recorded and referred to by the author during data analysis.

iv) Confirmability: This last trustworthiness criterion reflects the degree to which results and interpretations can be confirmed or corroborated by other scholars (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). To achieve confirmability researchers have to demonstrate that their findings were not biased by their own ideas, values, or a priori assumptions (Trochim, 2006). Confirmability may be promoted by the inclusion of an audit trail; by checking and rechecking data; by critically reviewing results (Trochim, 2006); by peer analysis and peer interpretation of results (Lincoln and Guba, 1985); and by ensuring congruence between research questions, reviewed literature, participant sampling, data collection procedures, and data analysis (Morse et al., 2002). In the present study, the author thoroughly checked the data and critically reviewed the results, aiming to achieve coherence, and had used peer debriefing as a means for corroboration of methods, analysis and interpretations. Efforts were taken to avoid any type of bias both

during the data collection phase and during its analysis.

3.3 The Case Study Approach

As part of the interpretive paradigm and qualitative framework selected for the study, a case study approach was adopted. Case studies constitute an essential form of social inquiry (Bassey, 1999; Flyvbjerg, 2011) and were found suitable for the study of contemporary complex social phenomena in real life contexts when the boundaries between the phenomena and their contexts are not clearly evident (Yin, 1994), as well as for documenting and analysing social processes and outcomes (Yin, 1993). Commonly employed as part of qualitative research (Shlasky and Alpert, 2007), case study methodology is often used to analyse pedagogic innovations and implementations (Bassey, 1999).

While a single setting (in the present case, a single school) could be argued to be limited and constrained, and while the corresponding data could be argued to represent a single, specific incidence (Yin, 1993), case studies are especially designed to deal with uniqueness rather than with generalisations. By yielding insights into the characteristics and meanings of single cases (Stake, 1995), case studies provide a nuanced view of various phenomena and in particular of human behaviour (Flyvbjerg, 2004).

In the present study, the author followed a group-based, EI-coaching training programme undertaken by a group of teachers in a secondary school in Israel (referred to here as the HB school). At the time of the study, this was the only school in Israel

where such a programme was known to be employed. As the programme provided an opportunity to closely observe a unique phenomenon in its natural setting, a case-study approach suggested itself as appropriate. In particular, this approach offered a chance to study an EI development process in all its complexity over an extended period of time; to take into consideration the circumstances and context of the school; and to gather rich and varied data. These, in turn, provided insights into the perspectives of all participants, and brought about a deep understanding of both the setting and the studied phenomena.

3.4 Research Methods

In line with the qualitative, interpretive framework and case study approach adopted, in-depth semi-structured interviews served as the main tool for data collection. However, in order to enhance rigour, bolster and enrich the data, and increase the depth and scope of the inquiry, the results of a quantitative measure (the Bar-On EQ-i) which were part of the training programme, were also incorporated into the study. Accordingly, a mixed-methods design within a qualitative framework was employed.

Support for the use of combined quantitative and qualitative sources of evidence within the same study has been increasing (e.g. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Shkedi, 2004). In particular, combined sources are often used in case studies (Sabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1990; Yin, 1993; Shlasky and Alpert, 2007) and in pedagogic studies (Brannen, 2005). According to Brannen (2005: p. 9), many researchers claim that the combined use of qualitative and quantitative approaches and tools ‘produces better outcomes than single method research’. Similarly, Seale (1999) suggested that mixed-methods research could increase the scope, depth and coherence of findings, and

Seidman (2006) noted that it is appropriate for cases in which research interests have many levels. Finally, Denzin and Lincoln (2005) noted that mixed-methods research provides researchers with a degree of triangulation for the various findings, while Brannen (2005) noted it to generate new perspectives.

Referring to studies in the field of EI, Bar-On (2006) has recently recommended the use of a wide variety of methods, while the Consortium of Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organisations (CREIO) has been promoting the development of in-depth qualitative inquiry to complement existing quantitative assessments of effectiveness. Orme and Cannon (2001b) urged EI trainers to include participants' feedbacks and insights in their evaluations of EI training programmes.

A number of EI studies (Ballou et al., 1999; Jennings and Palmer, 2007), including those in educational settings (e.g. Boyd, 2005; Drew, 2006), have indeed used both quantitative and qualitative sources of data in the same study. However, whereas such studies had relied mainly on quantitative research and followed it with only a limited number of interviews, the present study employed a predominantly qualitative methodology with a minor quantitative element, referred to by several authors as a 'simultaneous QUALITATIVE /quantitative' design (e.g. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, Brannen, 2005, and Johnson et al., 2007).

This mixed-methods design within a mostly qualitative framework suited the topic and the aims of the present study as well as the type of knowledge sought, and was supported, even if indirectly, by the above-quoted studies.

In line with the search for the participants' unique perspectives as well as with the more general search for a holistic view of EI development in teachers, advantage was taken of available pre-training and post-training EQ-i results as a complement to the personal interviews. The use of EQ-i results was three fold: during the interview stage, as a means for eliciting additional perspectives from participants on changes in their EI; during data analysis, as a means for examining the impact of the training upon teachers' EI levels; and finally, as a means for examining congruence between measured scores and teachers' perceptions of EI changes, thus providing the author with a degree of triangulation for the various findings (see p. 116).

3.5 Research Setting

Both the EI training programme at the core of this study and the study itself were set in the HB secondary school in rural Israel. At the time of the study the school had a staff of 70 full-time teachers, and a heterogeneous population of approximately 600 students, age 13-18 from both rural (moshavim and kibbutzim) and urban (towns) settlements; from different home environments; and of different ethnicities, economic status and academic abilities, including some with special needs.

3.6 Research Sample

For the duration of the EI training programme the research sample comprised the entire group of 21 training participants: 4 males and 17 females, age 33-64. As noted earlier, participants in the training programme had joined the research by consenting to take part in it. While invitations to take part in the training programme (as opposed to the present study) were initiated by the school management staff and were based on the participants' position and level of involvement in school activities, participation

was entirely voluntary and open to other teachers who had expressed interest in the programme.

The above-noted male-female ratio in the research sample is similar to that found among teachers in other schools in Israel. More than half the participants were homeroom teachers, a position which in Israeli schools implies a strongly pastoral role (Israeli Ministry of Education, 1975). The rest included the school principal and his deputy, mid-management staff (department heads, coordinators), educational counsellors, subject specialists, the head secretary and the librarian. At the time of the study all but two of the participants were actively teaching (the exceptions were the librarian, who acted as a part time substitute teacher, and the head secretary). None of the participants were novice teachers, perhaps because teachers who were approached by the school to participate in the training were selected based on their professional position, in which seniority must have played a role.

As in the training programme, participation in the research was completely voluntary. During the interview stage of the research, one training-group participant, a homeroom teacher, was on an extended leave of absence. Consequently, the research sample during the interview stage included only 20 participants, 4 males and 16 females.

Despite the limited size of the research sample, selection bias was reduced by the fact that research participants included all but one of the teachers who had participated in the training programme. However, as noted above, most of the training programme participants were experienced teachers, and thus not representative of the entire school staff.

3.7 The EI Training Programme

3.7.1 General features of the training programme

The group-based, teacher-focused, EI-coaching training programme at the centre of the study (hereafter referred to as ‘the training’ or ‘the training programme’), had been initiated by the principal of the HB school and was introduced to staff as part of the school’s CPD programmes in the course of the 2006-2008 academic years.

The training was based on the Bar-On model and was administered by an external team of three EI experts (referred to hereafter as trainers, facilitators or coaches), who had all specialised in EI development in organisations, were all certified Bar-On EQ-i facilitators and coaches, and had all worked in the field of education.

This choice of the Bar-On model and the EQ-i tool associated with it to serve as a framework and as a development tool, respectively, in the training, was made by the training team, and independently of the researcher.

The first year of the training comprised a series of interactive group workshops (each typically lasting from a few hours to a full day, but in two cases lasting a few consecutive days) punctuated by intervals of typically one month. The second year comprised 10 individual coaching sessions in 2-3 weeks intervals, accompanied by additional (less frequent) group workshops. Both these elements of the training programme and their sequence were identical for all participants during the entire training period.

3.7.2 Leading training elements and associated contents

Group workshops and coaching sessions comprised the two leading elements of the EI training programme. Other important elements were the EQ-i assessments and the confidentiality granted to all participants.

Group workshops focused on EI's theoretical and empirical foundations; its relevance to effectiveness among individuals, teachers, students and schools; and on each of Bar-On's 15 EI competencies. Facilitated activities were conducted with the entire group of participants, in smaller sub-groups, or in pairs. These included presentations, discussions, exercises, games, film viewing, role plays, and the sharing of experiences, feelings, and ideas. Additionally, work carried out individually included written exercises and questionnaires which both addressed various competencies and associated behaviours. In some cases participants had first evaluated themselves and then asked colleagues for re-evaluations or feedbacks. In the course of these various activities participants became engaged in exploring personal skills, values, habits, attitudes and behaviour patterns; identified areas of interest; and discussed communication modes and leadership styles. Furthermore, participants were able to share personal insights with other group members at their own discretion.

During *coaching sessions* each participant was randomly assigned a personal coach and was encouraged to develop his/her EI and to create a personal vision by means of questions and answers, discussions, exercises and written assignments. Participants were further provided with EI development tools (such as the 'self talk', 'circle of influence' or the 'self regulation process') and engaged in designing real-life practice opportunities and in reflecting upon them.

EQ-i assessments: Pre-training EQ-i assessments were carried out by the training team during the first, introductory group workshop. The resulting group profile was presented during the subsequent group workshop while personal (individual) EI profiles were presented personally to each participant by one of the trainers in the course of one-hour personal feedback sessions which took place during the interval between the second and third group workshops. These pre-training profiles served the training team as an exploratory and developmental tool in subsequent coaching sessions.

Post-training EQ-i assessments took place in 2008, at the final group workshop. The trainers used this data to evaluate the effectiveness of the training by comparing it with the pre-training EQ-i scores.

A number of scholars recommend that EI training programmes include the presentation of post-training EQ-i profiles so that participants may become aware of their progress, and of areas which require further improvement (Bharwaney, 2007). However, budgetary constraints prevented this from being done in the training programme under-study. As noted in section 3.4 (p. 117), the author presented all research participants with their post-training EI profiles in the course of their personal interviews. It is important to note that training-participants' access to this information was not conditioned on their participation in the research. Both the EQ-i measure and the exact manner by which EQ-i assessments were administered and handled in the present research are described in detail in sections 3.8-3.10.

Confidentiality during the training programme: Prior to the training, the trainers guaranteed all training-programme participants full confidentiality of all personal data, including EQ-i assessment results, corresponding profiles and associated verbal feedbacks.

Measures to maintain the confidentiality of all research participants during and after the research are discussed in detail in section 3.10 and 3.12 (p. 128 and 133 respectively).

3.8 Research Tools

Semi-structured in-depth interviews comprised the main research tool in the present study, while the above-described EQ-i assessments, administered by the training team but later used by the author, provided a second tool. Both are discussed here in further detail.

3.8.1 Semi-structured, in-depth interviews

Semi-structured, in-depth interviews comprise a primary tool in qualitative research (Patton, 1990; Creswell, 1998; Marshall and Rossman, 1999).

In-depth interviews allow for a detailed exploration of various topics (Cohen et al. 2007); yield personal information; and promote deep understanding of experiences, meanings, perceptions, feelings and knowledge of interviewees (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Patton, 1990; Marshall and Rossman, 1999; Seidman, 2006) and in particular of teachers (Sabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1990). Open-ended questions, typical of in-depth interviews, ‘enable the researcher to understand and capture the points of view of other people without predetermining those points of view’ (Patton, 1990: p. 24). In the case of the participants in training programmes, in-depth interviews allowed the researcher

a view of the complex social context (Brannen, 2005) in which the programme was set.

Semi-structured in-depth interviews provide a tool which is both structured and flexible. Such interviews typically follow an instruction guide that outlines a basic structure for the interview and a list of topics. These two components enable researchers to ask similar open-ended questions of all interviewees and result in interviews that are focused, systematic, comprehensive and time efficient (Hoepfl, 1997). Conversely, the time allotted for each question, the detailed follow-up questions and the order of some of the questions may differ across interviews and may be adapted to interviewees' responses. This flexibility allows for a free-form interaction (Drever, 1995) and ensures that interviewees not only can elaborate on topics that they have found most compelling, but may raise new issues that are related to the subject of the interview and which were not referred to in the initial list of questions (Shkedi, 2004). Furthermore, by allowing researchers to clarify, probe, and understand meanings, such interviews promote broad and deep understanding of the topics under discussion.

In view of the demonstrated complexity of EI training processes, semi-structured in-depth interviews designed to explore and address all research questions were determined to be most suitable as the main data collection tool for the present study. The questions which had been formulated as guidelines for all personal interviews are included in Appendix 5.

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3.8.2 *The Bar-On EQ-i* (Emotional Quotient inventory, Bar-On, 1997):

As noted in the literature review (p. 37), the EQ-i, a product of 20 years of psychometric research and extensive use, is considered the leading competency-based EI tool, with a large normative base and satisfactory validity and reliability and has been peer reviewed by the Buros Institute's Mental Measurement Yearbook (Bar-On, 2006). It has been argued to provide a well-researched tool for the evaluation of social-emotional skills such as stress coping and interpersonal relations, all of which are closely related to behaviours and outcomes in individuals (Bar-On, 2006). These attributes, as well as the measure's self-report aspect, chime with the purpose of the present study to explore individual processes and experiences (see p. 106). More generally, the Bar-On model (see p. 34), which is associated with the EQ-i, includes competencies specifically relevant to teachers (Drew, 2006), and has a history of use in educational research (e.g. Stein and Book, 2000; Haskett, 2003) and in organisational development efforts (e.g. Bharwaney, 2007). The model thus suits the topic of the present study, as well as its setting (school) and participants (teachers).

As noted earlier, both the Bar-On model and the EQ-i were selected by the HB school to serve as a framework and as a development tool, respectively, in the teacher-targeted training programme under study (independently of the researcher). This combined choice was beneficial for the present research, since although it is not absolutely necessary to use associated models and tools to examine the outcomes of trainings, such use allowed for the very same competencies that were targeted for teachers' development (by the model) to be examined (by means of the associated tool).

The EQ-i questionnaire contains 133 items in the form of short statements and employs a five-point Likert Scale with a textual response format ranging from ‘very seldom or not true of me’ (1) to ‘very often true of me or true of me’ (5). While the publisher does not permit reproduction of the entire EQ-i instrument, sample items from the EQ-i include the following:

- *I know how to keep calm in difficult situations (Stress Tolerance)*
- *I would stop and help a crying child find his or her parents, even if I had to be somewhere else at the same time (Empathy)*
- *It’s difficult for me to change my opinions about things (Flexibility)*
- *I think that most things I do will turn out ok (Optimism)*

The measure also includes four validity indicators: omission rate, inconsistency index, positive impression and negative impression, as well as a built-in correction factor which uses these impression scores to enhance the questionnaire’s reliability (Stein and Book, 2000; MHS, 2006). The questionnaire is suitable for individuals aged 16 and older. While it commonly takes approximately 20-40 minutes to complete the EQ-i forms, respondents are not subject to any time limits (Psychological Consultancy Limited (PCL), 2002; MHS, 2006).

EQ-i raw data are processed by the publisher (MHS publications) and are automatically tabulated and converted into standard scores based on a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 15. Each set of data generates three types of EQ scores: a total score, 5 composite scale scores and 15 subscale scores, as well as validity indicators scores. According to MHS (2006), response omission rate higher than 6%; an inconsistency index score higher than 12; and/or a positive impression score higher

than 130 (more than two standard deviations above the mean), each invalidate the submission.

Table 3.1 lists the interpretive guidelines for standard EQ-i scores (MHS, 2006).

Table 3.1: Guidelines for interpretation of standard EQ-i scores (MHS, 2006: p. 74)

| Standard scores | Guideline | Standard scores | Guideline |
|------------------------|--|------------------------|---|
| 130+ | Enhanced skills: Atypically well-developed capacity | 70-85 | Area for Enrichment: Underdeveloped emotional skills |
| 115-129 | Enhanced skills: Well-developed emotional capacity | Under 70 | Area for Enrichment: Markedly under-developed emotional skills |
| 86-114 | Effective functioning: Typical, usually adaptive emotional capacity | | |

3.9 Data collection

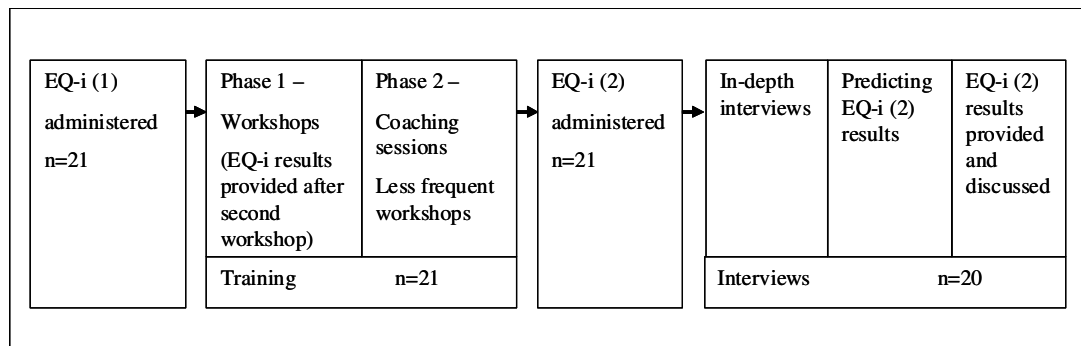
Pre-training and post-training EQ-i results were collected by the training team at the beginning of the training and at its end, respectively. As described above (p. 125) all raw data were processed by the publisher, and results and profiles were later returned

to the training team and shared with the author (herself a trained EQ-i administrator). Personal interviews with the participants were conducted by the author four months after the end of the training, and over the course of one month (see Figure 3.1 for complete sequence of data collection steps).

In view of the personal nature of the information involved, some of the participants asked for their interviews not to be audio-taped. Accordingly, all interviews were recorded in shorthand and transcribed prior to their analysis. While audio-records have been suggested to capture data more faithfully than other methods and to support researchers' focus during interviews (Hoepfl, 1997), Lincoln and Guba (1985) had warned of the intrusiveness of recording devices and of the potential for technical failure, and recommended the use of handwritten notes, of the type employed in the present study.

Finally, the author kept a research journal in which she documented insights gained during her extended presence in the research setting. These insights later served to design the interview questions and provided an added source of data during interview-transcript analysis.

Figure 3.1: Schematic representation of the research design



3.10 Research Procedures

Research procedures comprised the following four elements:

1. *Consent*: At the onset of the study, both members of the school management staff and the participants verbally consented to participate in the study. Later on, at the end of the training and prior to the interview stage, each participant was approached individually to obtain their full and detailed written consent for the following: participation in the study; the sharing of EQ-i scores with the author; analysis of EQ-i scores by the author; the use of EQ-i scores as part of the study; being interviewed by the author; and the use of post-training EQ-i scores in the course of personal interviews. A sample Informed Consent form may be found in Appendix 7.

2. *EQ-i administration procedure*: The EQ-i, in its Hebrew, pen-and-paper form, was administered to the participants in accordance with the publisher's specifications, both at the beginning of the training (pre-training) and at its end (post-training). The raw data were uploaded onto a secure computer account and scored by the publisher, and the results, including individual pre- and post-training EQ-i scores, as well as the

group data and the corresponding graph representations (see Appendix 4), were returned to the training team and made available to the author for analysis.

3. *Interviews:* All personal interviews were conducted by the author at the beginning of 2009, four months after the completion of the training programme. This interval allowed the participants to practice newly acquired knowledge and to gain insights into the manner by which the training had impacted upon their real-life experiences and practices. In accordance with Slaski and Cartwright (2003), it was expected that this time interval would also help minimise the potential impact of the so-called Honeymoon (Hawthorne) Effect (i.e. the often observed modification of participants' behaviours immediately following training, succeeded by a sharp drop in performance within a few months (Boyatzis, 2007)). While the time and locations of all interviews were scheduled according to the participants' convenience, care was taken to select quiet and secluded locations, outside of the school grounds, in order to ensure privacy and to encourage intimacy and openness. All interviews were approximately one and a half hours long and were conducted within a single, one-month period.

As noted above (p. 123), in order to start all interviews under the same conditions, a single list of open-ended questions was developed by the author and used flexibly with all participants (see Appendix 5). Based on previous studies described earlier in the literature review, this list reflected also insights which had been documented in the author's research journal all during the training programme. The questions were first piloted with two teachers who had not taken part in the training but were familiar with it. In keeping with the principles of semi-structured in-depth interviews (p. 122), the interview process was interactive, flexible and dynamic, and the time allotted for each

question, the order of questions and the more detailed follow-up questions varied in line with the participants' individual responses.

As part of each interview, participants were invited to predict their post-training scores (of which they had not yet been informed and which the author too had previously refrained from viewing in order to avoid bias). Once these predictions were recorded, the author viewed the post-training EQ-i results, revealed them to the participants, and asked the participants to comment on them.

4. *Reducing interview bias*: Research interviews have been noted to be highly susceptible to bias and distortion. These detrimental effects owe both to the perspectives and opinions which researchers bring with them to the interviews (observer bias) and to the very presence of an interviewer during the interview process (observer effect) (Gay and Airasian, 2000). In the present study, the author took great care to minimise these potential effects. Great efforts were made to avoid the use of leading questions and to maintain a neutral position during the interview process. To further avoid bias, and in line with Silverman (2000), participants were not informed of the specific topics of the study other than its general focus on the EI training programme. As training participants were aware of the author's affiliation with the EI field, and as the training programme was promoted by the school, the issue of social desirability (described in Drever, 1995) had to be taken into consideration. The interest of the author in the participants' true perceptions and experiences was therefore repeatedly emphasised.

Interviews are known to be highly dependent on the rapport between interviewees and

interviewers, and may be affected by the interviewees' willingness to share their thoughts and experiences (Crawford, 2007). Great efforts were therefore invested in building participants' trust, ensuring their comfort, and creating a relaxed atmosphere during the interviews. These efforts were made easier by the author's two-year acquaintance with the school and with its teachers. The rapport which had been previously established with the interviewees promoted an atmosphere of openness and facilitated the discussion of potentially sensitive topics.

It should be noted though that during the time of the research and following it the researcher remained independent of the school, had no professional ties or any long-term relationships with the school staff, and could in no way influence the participants' careers. It was hoped that this detachment from the school apparatus would make the interviews as non-threatening as possible and would allow for greater candour and trust. Similarly, given the degree of familiarity the author had established with the school and with the participants, great care was taken to maintain personal objectivity and to avoid bias.

3.11 Data Analysis

EQ-i scores, coded and standardized by the EQ-i publisher (MHS) were provided to the author in the form of Microsoft Excel files. The scores were then analysed by the author using the SPSS programme. Differences between pre- and post-training scores were used to determine EI shifts among individual participants. For group analysis, differences between pre- and post-training scores were examined with the non-parametric paired Wilcoxon Z test, reflecting the relatively small sample size and the non-normal distribution of the scores. For the same reason, Spearman correlations

between EQ-i scores and participants' age were examined, while the Mann-Whitney test was used to compare the scores of homeroom teachers (who were expected to hold a strong pastoral role) with those of subject specialists.

The qualitative (interview transcripts) data were organised and analysed using a thematic content analysis approach as described by Weber (1990), following a clearly defined and methodical procedure. Such thematic analysis enables researchers to use information in a systematic manner, increases accuracy and sensitivity in understanding and interpreting data (Boyatzis, 1998), and allows them to create rich descriptions by engaging in a step-by-step process of uncovering the dominant themes in the data (Patton, 1990). A qualitative software (Atlas-Ti 6), designed to support the analysis, interpretation and processing of data in qualitative research, was employed. This software facilitated a methodical yet flexible management of the data, simplified screening and comparisons of data and supported the reassembling of significant data units (Shaviv-Schnieder, 2006).

Each interview transcript was analysed and coded separately, using open coding (a method described by Strauss and Corbin, 1990) to identify emerging themes. Sections or quotes were repeatedly compared with others in order to decide whether they should share the same code. Cross interview categories, or families, were then constructed and codes were again compared in order to ensure that items were properly sorted and coded. In accordance with Shkedi (2004), interviews and codes were examined using the same conceptual perspective. Major categories (themes) were then identified, allowing for clusters of codes within a conceptual category to converge into 'clusters of meaning', a key step according to Creswell (1998).

Throughout this process, the author made frequent use of notes from her research journal to further support proper coding and categorisation. Finally, the original interview transcripts were reviewed again to ensure that the analysis process yielded an accurate account of the participants' experiences.

The author's frequent visits to the school throughout the research period and her role as an observer during the training process created a relatively high degree of understanding of the topics which were discussed in the interviews and increased her sensitivity to nuances, and thus contributed to the data analysis process. As noted above, throughout the course of data analysis, as well as during all stages of the research process, great care was taken to avoid bias and preconceptions.

3.12 Ethical Concerns

Beyond the written consent forms signed by the school management and by each of the participants at the end of the programme (see also p. 128 and Appendix 7), the voluntary nature of the study was emphasised both by the author and by the school principal throughout the study. The anonymity of the participants and the confidentiality of personal details and results during all stages of the study and following it were guaranteed by the author and carefully maintained.

To that end, the author was the only one to know the identities behind individual EQ-i scores and the only one to see and analyse interviews' transcripts. All results were coded for privacy, stored under aliases and kept securely on the author's personal computer. As the research was conducted in a school setting, the anonymity of the school had to be preserved as well. The school was referred to by a pseudonym (HB),

and details which could have identified it (including details pertaining to the school staff) were all omitted.

3.13 Limits

The research methodology imposed several limits:

1. As a single case study, the present study was confined to one school with its unique characteristics. Although qualitative studies are set to provide a holistic and rich description of unique phenomena in their natural settings and do not aim at generalisations, topics such as transferability can not be ignored. Chapter 5 includes a discussion of these topics.
2. The research sample comprised 21 participants, of which only 20 took part in the post-training qualitative stage of the study. This relatively small sample limits the ability to generalise from the present findings to a wider population of teachers.
3. Many of the participants were senior teachers or ones in school-leadership roles, in terms of position, experience or involvement in school activities. These characteristics were a given, as this was the only group of teachers to undergo the training-programme under study at the time. However, while leaders are important to processes of organisational change, examination of EI development processes among teachers in other, less senior positions is important. Such examination had not been carried out in this study.

Similarly, the study was confined to one group of facilitators. Although most EI coaching models are similarly constrained, the quality of facilitators may have an

impact on the effectiveness of EI training programmes and might have played a role in the present study.

Chapter Four: Results

In accordance with the conceptual and methodological framework of the study and with the research questions, the findings presented in this chapter rely mainly on the analysis of interviews with the participants and explore three themes: experiences and processes undergone by the participants during the training; the perceived impact the training had upon the participants, students, and the school as a whole; and the training elements to which these impacts were attributed. Special attention is paid to a pilot EI training programme which the participants had initiated and which was considered by many of them to be the culmination of their own training.

Analysis of the interviews was supported by quantitative results from the Bar-On EQ-i pre- and post-training assessments. This integrated analysis of data was motivated by several features of this research. First, as pre-training personal EI profiles played an important part in the development of the participants' personal EI competencies, deep knowledge of the EQ-i results promoted deeper understanding of the participants' training experiences. Second, results from post-training EQ-i assessments served as a device to prompt discussion of perceived changes and experiences in the course of the interviews, and hence an integrated look at these two sets of data appeared beneficial. Third, EQ-i scores served to triangulate the qualitative findings and thus to broaden the scope of the research. Finally, as studies of EI competency development in teachers are scarce, and as a majority of EI training studies are quantitative, quantitative findings may help place the present research in the general context of such studies.

In the following, findings from the pre- and post-training EQ-i assessments are first

presented and analysed. These are followed by a more extensive review of the interviews. For the interested reader, detailed analyses of the EQ-i can be found in the Appendix.

4.1 EQ-i – Results and Analysis

All twenty-one participants completed the Bar-On pre-training EQ-i test at the beginning of their EI training and were assessed again on the same measure at the end of the two-year training process. As may be recalled (see p. 37), the EQ-i measures emotional and social competencies (as reflected in EI-related behaviours) and the underlying construct of social-emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 1997). More specifically, and in accordance with the Bar-On EI model, the EQ-i measures the total EI level, as well as the five composite scales which are presumed to comprise it: Intra-Personal, Interpersonal, Stress Management, Adaptability and General Mood. Each composite scale comprises two to five subscales for a total of 15 EI competencies. Similar to IQ scores, the standard score for the EQ-i is 100, with a standard deviation of 15.

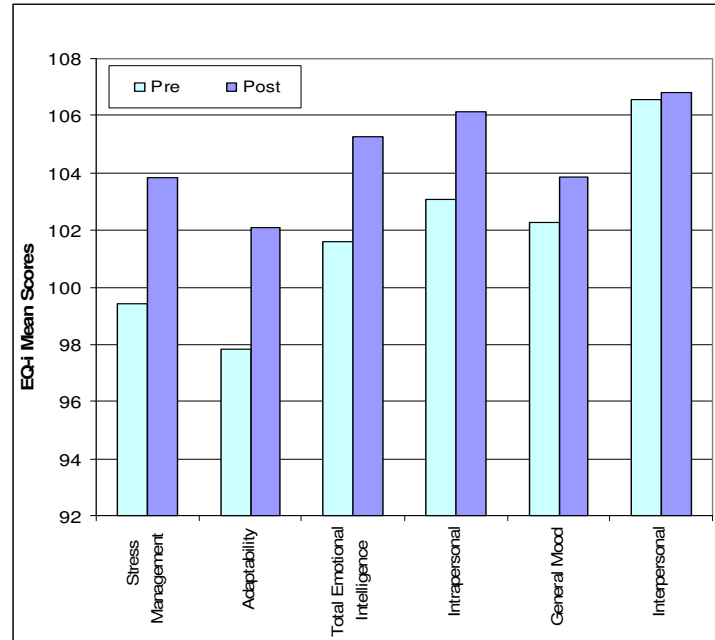
4.1.1 Group level results

Following the method commonly used in recent organisational EI studies (e.g. Bar-On, 2006), the quantitative impact of the EI training was evaluated by examining differences between pre- and post-training EI assessment results. Descriptive statistics which indicate the degree of change at the group level are therefore presented first, followed by results from a non-parametric paired Wilcoxon Z test designed to measure the significance of such changes.

4.1.1.1 Total EI and the five composite scales— mean scores: Pre- and post-training mean EQ-i group scores for the total EI and for the five composite scales are presented in Figure 4.1. The findings indicate that prior to the training the mean total EI group score was slightly above the measure's standard mean value of 100 (101.57; SD=14.98), as were three of the five composite scales mean scores: Intra-Personal (103.05; SD=14.02), Interpersonal (106.57; SD=11.33), and General Mood (102.24; SD=14.00). The two remaining composite scale scores, Stress Management and Adaptability, fell slightly below the standard value (99.43; SD=19.41 and 97.81; SD=14.68, respectively).

Analysis of *post*-training assessments indicated positive gains in mean total EI and in mean scores for all five composite scales, all of which were above-standard value. Highest pre-post training gains were noted in Stress Management (99.43 versus 103.81; Gain=4.38), and in Adaptability (97.81: 102.10; Gain=4.29). It should be noted that pre-training mean scores for these two competencies were lowest, as compared with other composite scales. The Interpersonal composite scale featured the lowest post-training gain (106.57: 106.81; Gain=0.24). As this scale showed the highest pre-training score, a ceiling effect may be surmised. Finally, the post-training gain in the mean total EI value was 3.67 (101.57: 105.24).

Figure 4.1: Pre- and post-training mean EQ-i group scores for the total EI and for the 5 EI composite scales (n=21, arranged according to gains, from high to low)

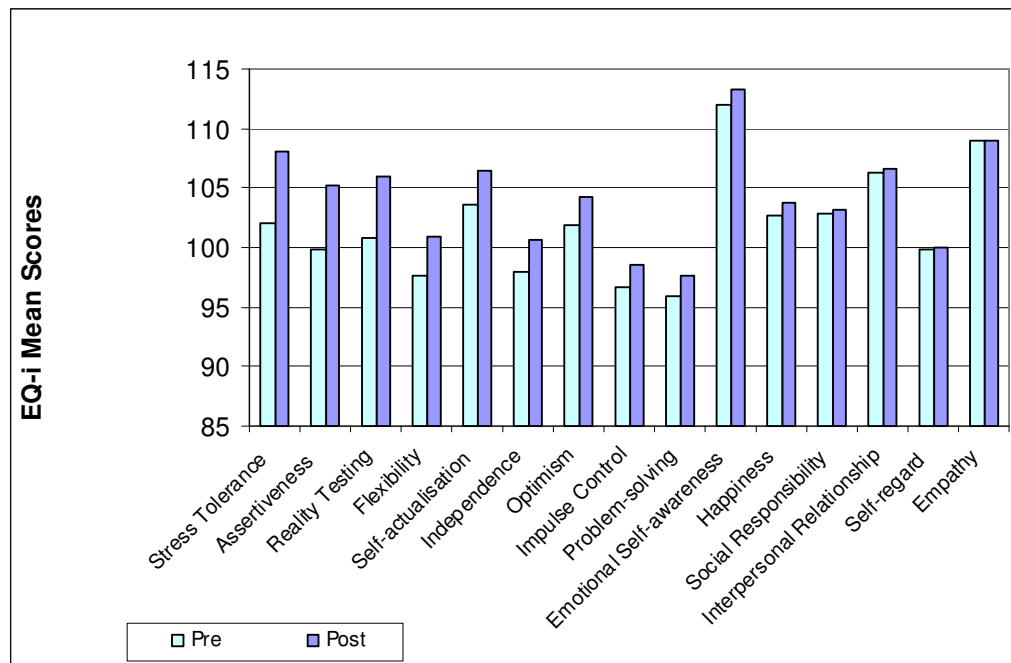


4.1.1.2 Mean subscale scores: As depicted in Figure 4.2 below, pre-training mean scores for nine of the 15 subscales were above standard, with the three highest values measured for Emotional Self-Awareness (M=112.00; SD=9.38), Empathy (M=108.95; SD=11.19), and Interpersonal Relationships (M=106.38; SD=11). Mean scores for Flexibility (M=97.57; SD=15.98), Impulse Control (M=96.62; SD=19.12), and Problem-Solving (M=95.95; SD=15.90) were the lowest.

Twelve post-training mean subscale scores were above the standard score of 100, with Assertiveness, Independence and Flexibility shifting from below to above standard. The highest post-training mean scores were found for Stress Tolerance (M=108.10; SD=12.59), which also showed the largest gain (6.05), Emotional Self-Awareness,

Empathy, and Interpersonal Relationships. The last three also had the highest mean scores at pre-training. Impulse Control (M=98.52; SD=17.12) and Problem-Solving (M=97.67; SD=11.63), among the lowest-score competencies at pre-test, had the lowest post-training mean scores. However, both showed small pre-post mean score increases (gains of 1.90 and 1.72, respectively). Other than the above-noted gain in Stress Tolerance, large pre-post training gains were found also for Assertiveness (99.86 versus 105.24; Gain=5.38), and for Reality Testing (100.71 versus 105.95; Gain=5.24). Altogether, pre- post training mean score gains in 14 of the 15 subscales were found. Only Empathy, among the highest at pre-training, showed no gain.

Figure 4.2: Pre- and post-training mean EQ-i group scores for the 15 EI subscales (n=21, arranged according to gains, from high to low)



4.1.1.3 Analysis of statistical significance: While the descriptive analysis showed a positive gain in the mean group scores for the total EI, the five composite EI scales and fourteen of the fifteen subscales, further analysis of statistical significance was conducted. Due to the relatively small sample size, the categories were non-normally distributed. Accordingly, pre-post EQ-i changes in mean group scores were examined with a non-parametric paired Wilcoxon Z test. The standard means, standard deviations and gains can be found in Appendix 1.

Most of the above-noted increases in post-training mean scores, including increases in total EI and in the five EI composite scales, were found to be non-significant. Significant gains ($p < .05$) were found only in two of the fifteen subscales: Assertiveness (Gain=5.38) and Stress Tolerance (Gain=6.05). Although these gains may be of importance in themselves, the general lack of significance in mean total EI shift and in shifts in composite and subscale mean EI levels, suggests that post-training gains, albeit positive, were not as large as might have been expected from a long and extensive training. These findings stand in contrast to findings from earlier studies in commercial organisations (e.g. Slaski and Cartwright, 2003; Sjölund and Gustafsson, 2001, in Bar-On, 2006, see also p. 80), in which significant gains in mean total EQ-i scores and in different competencies were reported.

A number of statistical factors might have contributed to the noted low gains in group mean-scores in the present study. One such factor is the relatively small sample size ($n=21$). However, while many studies had indeed relied on larger samples, the sample size in other studies in which post-training gains had been noted (e.g. the Sjölund and Gustafsson (2001, in Bar-On, 2006) study, $n=29$, see p. 81), was not much larger than

the one in the present study.

The group's initial, above-standard mean total EI score (101.57, SD=14.98) could be another such factor, that is producing the possibility of a ceiling effect. Indeed, pre-training mean total EI scores in some of the studies described earlier and in which pre-post training total EI gains in group scores had been noted, were below 100 (94 in the study by Lennick (2007), 95.6 in the study by Slaski and Cartwright (2003), and 97 in Sjölund and Gustafsson (2001, in Bar-On, 2006)). However, while higher than the standard, it cannot be determined whether the pre-training mean total EI value in the present study is large enough to support either a ceiling effect or a regression to the mean effect as explanations for the low pre-post training gain.

Regardless of the possible explanations, if group shifts in EI were the only method to evaluate the effectiveness of EI-development training, one might have concluded that such training may not be very effective in educational settings. However, EI development is an individual process, and the examination of individual shifts, although not common in commercial studies, was expected to provide further insights and to increase the understanding of the EQ-i results.

4.1.2 Individual results

4.1.2.1 Total EI scores and the five composite scales: While the group pre-training mean total EI score was above the standard value, the corresponding individual scores varied greatly, ranging from 56 to 124, with twelve participants scoring above the standard, and with five of these in the 'enhanced functioning zone' (above 114). Of the nine below-standard scores, two were in the 'area for enrichment' zone (below 86)

(see page 126 for EQ-i interpretation guidelines).

Comparison of pre- and post-training individual total EI scores revealed a generally positive training impact upon many participants. Fifteen participants improved their total EQ-i scores, with positive shifts ranging from 1 to 29 points. Gains were found among participants with both high (including above-standard) and low pre-training EI scores. A majority of participants whose pre-training scores were below the group mean score showed large gains. Commensurate with previous findings (Sjölund and Gustafsson, 2001, in Bar-On, 2006; Lennick, 2007) participants with the lowest pre-training scores showed the largest gains.

A decrease in the total EI score was noted for five participants. Of these, three maintained above-standard scores (105, 107 and 112, respectively) while two shifted from above-standard to below-standard scores. One participant, with a below-standard pre-training score, showed no change in her total EI score.

Analysis of pre-post training shifts in the five composite scales revealed complicated trends. Each personal profile showed a mix of large and small gains. Additionally, in the majority of cases (n=13), gains in some scales were accompanied by losses in one or more of the remaining scales.

4.1.2.2 Subscale scores: Individual scores for subscale competencies revealed complex patterns. In each personal profile shifts of different magnitudes and over different competencies were noted. Furthermore, post-training gains in total EI were often accompanied by losses over one or more competencies, and vice versa.

Spearman correlations between age and pre-post training gains in both total EI and in the 15 subscales (following their conversion into residual, adjusted, gains to control for pre-study differences in the participants' scores) revealed non-significant links and a random pattern. Similarly, differences in pre-post training EQ-i gains between homeroom teachers (n=12) (assumed to play a pastoral role) and other teachers or staff members (n=9), proved to be non-significant. Thus, age and pastoral role did not appear to moderate the effects of the training.

The small number of males in the research sample (n=4) precluded the consideration of gender as an independent variable. With the exception of Muyia and Kacirek (2009), who did not find significant correlations between gender and post-training EQ-i shifts, studies of links between gender and EI development are not readily available. However, as gender differences in specific competencies, although not in general EI levels, were noted by Bar-On (2006), their possible role in development efforts may warrant further investigation.

Table 4.1 demonstrates the individualised nature of shifts in total EI scores for each of the participants and the complex patterns of individual competency changes.

Table 4.1: Changes in individual EQ-i scores for total EI, the 5 composite scales and 15 competency subscales (n=21, blue = gains, red=losses, blue and orange highlights represent positive and negative shifts of ≥ 5 EQ-i points) respectively. The bottom row features post-training total EI scores.

| Participant number/ Competency | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 |
|--|----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|----|-----|-----|----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| Total Emotional Intelligence | 6 | -6 | 3 | 7 | 9 | 1 | 5 | 8 | 22 | 29 | 4 | -16 | -8 | -2 | -13 | 18 | 0 | 5 | 1 | 3 | 1 |
| Intra-Personal | 11 | -2 | 0 | 9 | 8 | 1 | 1 | 10 | 12 | 26 | 5 | -14 | -8 | -3 | -9 | 17 | -6 | 1 | 0 | 4 | 2 |
| Self-Regard | 8 | -2 | 0 | 3 | -1 | 4 | -5 | -1 | 11 | 24 | 3 | -14 | -6 | 0 | -8 | 7 | -17 | 0 | 3 | -6 | -2 |
| Emotional Self-awareness | 5 | -2 | 6 | -3 | 14 | -9 | -1 | 12 | 7 | 9 | -4 | -7 | -10 | 0 | -4 | 16 | 9 | 1 | -10 | -4 | 3 |
| Assertiveness | 3 | 8 | 1 | 20 | 12 | 3 | 0 | 10 | 12 | 22 | 21 | -19 | -3 | -13 | -11 | 21 | 2 | 3 | -7 | 19 | 9 |
| Independence | 12 | -9 | 3 | 14 | -2 | 5 | -4 | 2 | 6 | 17 | -2 | -5 | -11 | -5 | -1 | 8 | 12 | -1 | 13 | 0 | 2 |
| Self-Actualisation | 19 | -5 | -11 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 12 | 13 | 13 | 30 | 3 | -13 | -4 | 0 | -15 | 13 | -21 | 2 | 3 | 8 | 1 |
| Interpersonal | 6 | -16 | -4 | 2 | 8 | 0 | 5 | 16 | 6 | 6 | -7 | -9 | -9 | -7 | -19 | 12 | 13 | 3 | 1 | 4 | -6 |
| Empathy | 9 | -3 | -8 | -8 | 7 | -18 | 4 | 0 | 9 | -2 | -12 | -10 | 7 | -1 | -14 | 13 | 20 | 1 | 4 | 4 | -2 |
| Social Responsibility | 12 | -18 | -5 | -2 | 3 | -6 | 3 | 18 | 4 | -2 | -2 | -7 | 2 | -2 | -21 | 18 | 16 | 4 | 0 | 4 | -13 |
| Interpersonal Relations | 3 | -6 | -3 | 4 | 5 | 11 | 3 | 10 | 5 | 11 | -11 | -9 | -16 | -8 | -16 | 9 | 1 | 3 | 5 | 4 | 0 |
| Stress Management | -3 | -7 | 16 | 13 | 3 | 3 | -3 | -2 | 36 | 33 | 10 | -10 | -5 | -3 | -18 | 12 | 6 | 21 | -3 | -2 | -5 |
| Stress Tolerance | -8 | 3 | 13 | 15 | 11 | 9 | -1 | 8 | 31 | 29 | 11 | 0 | -2 | -11 | -11 | 7 | 4 | 23 | -3 | 0 | -1 |
| Impulse Control | 4 | -14 | 14 | 9 | -4 | -4 | -4 | -11 | 28 | 25 | 6 | -15 | -7 | 6 | -17 | 15 | 7 | 12 | -3 | -2 | -5 |
| Adaptability | 4 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 18 | -3 | 7 | 3 | 28 | 27 | 5 | -17 | -16 | 8 | -7 | 18 | 7 | 1 | -1 | -3 | 6 |
| Reality Testing | 13 | -4 | -3 | -8 | 29 | -14 | 10 | 14 | 17 | 25 | 4 | -3 | -7 | -3 | 7 | 29 | 12 | 2 | 5 | -14 | -1 |
| Flexibility | 1 | 16 | 2 | 9 | 7 | 9 | 3 | -5 | 27 | 23 | 14 | -25 | -12 | 8 | -15 | 7 | -13 | 6 | -5 | 1 | 14 |
| Problem-Solving | -2 | -9 | 10 | 3 | 8 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 25 | 17 | -7 | -16 | -22 | 16 | -11 | 8 | 16 | -8 | -2 | 3 | 1 |
| General Mood | 1 | -1 | 1 | 7 | -2 | -1 | 10 | -2 | 15 | 28 | 4 | -8 | 0 | -7 | -16 | 14 | -21 | 6 | 6 | 1 | -1 |
| Optimism | 3 | 1 | 7 | 4 | -1 | 0 | 2 | 4 | 14 | 25 | 15 | -4 | 2 | -6 | -15 | 15 | -14 | 8 | -13 | 9 | -6 |
| Happiness | -2 | -2 | -3 | 9 | -2 | -1 | 15 | -5 | 15 | 27 | -6 | -10 | -1 | -6 | -14 | 11 | -24 | 1 | 20 | -5 | 4 |
| Total Emotional Intelligence at post-training | 99 | 112 | 122 | 101 | 113 | 113 | 92 | 100 | 115 | 85 | 111 | 87 | 96 | 105 | 107 | 119 | 92 | 119 | 96 | 101 | 125 |

* Highlighted areas are marked in accordance with a system first used by the training team to show the extent of the shifts and do not represent statistical significance.

While the above-noted quantitative findings may be analysed further, such analysis is beyond the remit of the present study.

In accordance with the premises of the study, and in view of the complex and individualised patterns which were revealed during data analysis, an exploration of personal experiences of participants during the training seemed desirable. In the following sections, the results of the interviews are discussed, providing such an in-depth exploration. While quantitative data had been used to prompt discussion during the interviews, allusions to such data are limited to the participants' own references.

4.2 Interview Analysis

4.2.1 An overview

Personal interviews, the main research tool in the present study, focused on topics pertinent to the research questions:

- What impact did the EI training programme have upon the participants' EI competencies, behaviours, practice, and other life outcomes, and upon the school as a whole?
- In what manner had these impacts, if any, been achieved?
- What experiences and personal processes had the participants undergone in the course of the training?

Overall, the participants viewed the training as a professional development programme dedicated to the development of their EI competencies, and, more generally, to their personal and professional development and growth. They considered the training to be designed '*...for each of us to gain self-knowledge and self-understanding... so we can*

all understand ourselves, know ourselves better...and overcome our difficulties and internal barriers' (OR). In particular, participants frequently described the training as *individual, personal and internal*, and often used first person terms such as *I, me* and *myself*, and phrases such as *I saw, I realised, I felt, I understood, I gained, I received, I changed* or *I developed*. At the same time, they often referred to EI in its wider pedagogical context.

As previously noted (see Chapter 3, p. 119), the training was designed and conducted by a team of facilitators (also referred to by some participants as trainers or coaches) and was based on two main elements: group workshops and personal, one-on-one coaching sessions.

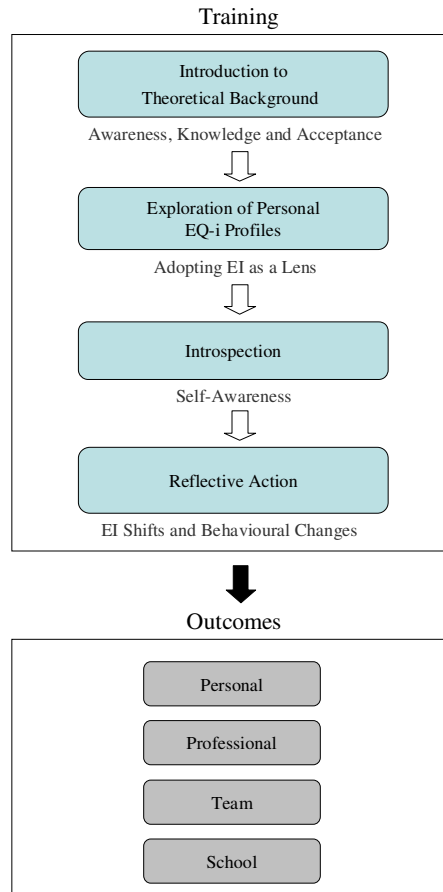
Analysis of post-training interviews with participants pointed to highly individual journey-like experiences, which had been navigated with the aid of the training team and supported by the unique design of the training programme. Each journey included personal, professional and pedagogic explorations and was comprised of four stages: Introduction to theoretical background; Exploration of personal profiles; Introspection; and Reflective action.

Each of these stages ultimately had led to an outcome which provided the basis for the next stage and played a part in the individual development process. It should be noted that the term 'outcome' is used in this context to describe a development which followed engagement in one of the above stages and thus describes an on-going process rather than a defined and finite change.

The above four stages were noted to have impacted upon four different domains of school hierarchy: personal; professional (at the individual level); team (the entire group of participants in their professional capacity); and the entire organisation (the school).

Figure 4.3 illustrates the general process undergone by the participants in the course of the training, in terms of stages and domains of impact. As these domains are not mutually exclusive, the impacts associated with them were neither chronological nor linear. However, consistent with an overall attempt to present the results in as clear a manner as possible the four stages of training and the four domains of impact will be discussed separately while highlighting their interdependent nature. References to the elements of the training and their contribution to the development process are embedded in the descriptions of the different stages.

Figure 4.3: The four stages of the training process (blue highlight), the subsequent outcomes (grey) and the domains of impact (grey highlight)



4.2.2 The four stages of the EI training process

When discussing the participants' individual journeys and the four stages that comprised them it is important to note that these journeys, similar to other processes and impacts discussed above, were not completely linear and did not follow a stage-by-stage process. Firstly, the stages referred to in Figure 4.3 often overlapped. Thus, individual participants often were at different stages of development in relation to

different EI competencies or domains (personal or professional), spent different amounts of time at different stages, and were engaged in each stage to different extents and intensities. Furthermore, several participants diverged from the path followed by the majority, both in terms of the actual stages and their order. All these attest both to the complex nature of EI development processes in schools and to the flexible nature of the training programme.

It should also be noted that while following their own development paths, participants were noted to have become increasingly aware of their classroom conduct, relationships with students and colleagues, other participants' and students' skills, EI development processes undergone by other participants, and of various pedagogical topics, mainly ones associated with EI development. Thus, a majority of the participants followed a path dedicated to understanding EI and its education-related outcomes in others, alongside and intertwined with their own personal/professional development paths. Accordingly, in the following sections special emphasis has been placed on instances of links between stages, paths and corresponding personal experiences.

4.2.2.1 Stage 1 – Introduction to theoretical background:

i) Overview: As noted earlier (p. 120), the EI training programme under study began with a series of workshops which introduced the participants to the concept of EI and provided them with the theoretical framework for understanding it. Particular attention was given to the theoretical and empirical aspects of the concept, to EI competencies and related behaviours, and to the links between the concept and various life-outcomes. Additional workshops took place throughout the training. Those provided

participants with further theoretical knowledge, explored the nature of EI competencies in depth, highlighted mechanisms that underlie these competencies, and introduced EI-development tools and discussed other related topics.

ii) Processes and experiences during the 'Introduction to theoretical background' stage: A majority of the participants had not been familiar with the concept of EI prior to the training and found this stage to be especially important: *'First of all, it is the academic side of EI' (FE), 'It is the basis, and you need it' (SE)*. More generally, many participants noted that prior to the training they had not been equipped with the knowledge or the tools to effectively and methodically deal with the social-emotional aspects of school- work.

EI-related knowledge was referred to by many participants as *'interesting and engaging, deep and new'* (VA), and almost half of them noted that it had enhanced their sense of self-gain. A relatively large number of participants testified that they had sought to extend their knowledge beyond the workshops' curricula, and that they engaged in reading the recommended books and in searching for new reading materials.

Once initial receptivity towards the concept of EI had been established, the participants were encouraged, in the course of facilitated workshop discussions, to explore additional meanings of the concept within the field of education and in terms of their own professional experiences. While the trainers refrained from imposing any type of education-related agenda throughout the course of the training, it was during these workshops that the participants themselves noted links between EI and different

aspects of education, and in particular their own school experiences: *‘[The training team] did not assume to know everything. They allowed us to discover [the relevance of the concept to education] on our own...’ (FE).*

Analysis of the interviews revealed two major complementing conceptualisations of EI that had been formed and shared by most participants in the course of this stage. These are referred to here as a ‘broad educational’ conceptualisation (representing a set of educational beliefs and values) and an ‘applied’ conceptualisation (representing a set of competencies). Both conceptualisations were embraced by all of the participants.

In line with the first conceptualisation, the participants tended to describe EI as a concept which centres on the social-emotional aspects of education, and therefore related to the ‘whole child’ approach. A majority of the participants viewed this social-emotional focus as highly important to schools: *‘After all, our work has an emotional component. This is what teaching is all about. It’s not only about academic content. You deal with people, and even more importantly, with children’ (SE).* Some even referred to social-emotional intelligence as being at *‘the heart of education’ (WN)*, or as *‘the essence of schoolwork... the basis for everything’ (OR).* Moreover, the idea of *‘putting the child at the centre... focusing on all aspects of children’s personalities’ (AL)* was found to be congruent with the educational beliefs of a majority of the participants. Thus, the ‘broad educational’ notion of EI appeared to validate participants’ pre-existing educational views: *‘It reassured me that what I believed in until now is true, that what I thought to be most important for schools really is’ (FE).* One management staff member noted that the congruence between EI and teachers’ beliefs and practices *‘made teachers embrace it [the concept] immediately and without*

reservations, unlike in many other training programmes' (RY). This almost immediate receptivity (in a majority of cases, from the very first workshop), was further highlighted by another participant: 'It [the concept] clicked, right from the start, and I thought to myself, wow, here is something I believe in' (BP). Another participant noted that 'the minute the workshops started, I said: 'at last...here is something which is the most, and maybe the only, important topic in education'' (GY).

The participants' acceptance of EI as in line with their core values and pedagogic ideas increased their receptivity towards the second, less familiar ('applied') conceptualisation of EI, and encouraged them to explore its links to education. Accordingly, participants often referred to EI as a list of competencies that underlie the effective behaviours of teachers, students and individuals, and perceived it to offer '*something tangible that you can use and act upon...*' (SE) and to provide a comprehensive, practical, useful and easily applied framework with which '*...to look at students, at colleagues, at ourselves ... at what one teaches, ...[to] know what affects our practice, behaviours and successes and what can be done about it*' (LI). Additionally, many participants noted EI competencies to provide them with a framework for addressing social-emotional challenges in the school as a whole.

Employing light-related metaphors, participants noted that EI can '*illuminate*' (BP) new areas; '*cast more light*' (OY) upon generally known topics; present certain topics in a '*different light*' (LI); and act as a '*guiding light*' (FE). In another such example, one participant noted that '*it [EI] acted like a spotlight - it trained the light on subjects I hadn't thought of in a long time*' (SE).

These perceived attributes of the second, competency-based conceptualisation convinced the few participants who had previously considered EI to be a '*soft concept that has to do only with asking students how they feel*' (RY) to become engaged in the training programme. Summing up the importance of this stage to personal EI development, one teacher noted: '*[During the theoretical stage] you build cognitive and emotional readiness ...you have to have this knowledge, it's the basis for future personal experiences*' (SIH).

iii) Outcomes –

Awareness, knowledge and acceptance of EI and additional consequences: The introduction to the theoretical aspects of EI resulted in a variety of outcomes, some of which were alluded to in the above section.

First and foremost, this stage promoted awareness of EI among the participants and provided them with a large body of EI-related knowledge, as demonstrated throughout the interviews. In particular, some participants noted that this stage had led to the opening of a small EI library at the school. The participants accepted EI as a valid, theoretically based and empirically sound concept that is related to success and can be applied in different contexts. More specifically, this stage highlighted the concept's relevance and importance to teachers in general and to the school. Based on their adoption of the EI competency view, many participants came to believe that teachers' EI competencies make an important contribution to effective teaching: '*Teachers first have to identify their feelings, understand them and manage them*' (USH), '*... [EI is] necessary if I want to keep on teaching and if I want to become a really good teacher*' (MS), '*EI is useful to all teachers – it could help them interact better with both parents*

and students' (TD), 'EI is a critical skill... It affects all aspects of our work, it impacts upon the students' (SE). Finally, a majority of participants noted links between EI, behaviours, well-being and academic success in students: 'EI is highly related to students' school success' (RY), 'Students need EI to succeed in school... and in life too... even more so' (SE).

Participants viewed awareness of such links as relevant to both their personal and professional effectiveness. They were thus motivated to further engage in the training and to further examine EI from a personal perspective, through their personal competency profiles.

4.2.2.2 Stage 2 – Exploration of personal EQ-i profiles:

i) Overview: Following the first two theoretical workshops, and while still engaged in theoretical learning, the participants were invited by the trainers to further engage in EI. In particular, participants were invited to take part in individual and confidential feedback sessions; to take a first look at their own EI in the form of personal, assessment-based, EQ-i profiles; and to have the trainers interpret these profiles for them.

ii) Processes and experiences during the profile exploration stage: When describing the process of becoming familiarised with their personal EI profiles, participants tended to begin by describing their reactions to their total EI score. Those who had been presented with high scores typically described feelings of contentment (*'It was nice to see that I was emotionally intelligent' (WN)*), while those who had been presented with low scores often noted feeling surprised, disappointed or alarmed (*'Can*

you believe it? A below-average [Total EI] score! Me!' (USH)). Nevertheless, most participants recalled a sense of revelation upon seeing themselves in a new way. In particular, the EQ-i results were never dismissed or contested and the profiles were wholly embraced by all participants.

A majority of the participants noted that the profiles had provided them with valuable information about themselves. The profiles were seen to validate and organise existing self-knowledge; highlight, elucidate and sharply define areas which participants had been generally, albeit at times vaguely, aware of; and to bring to light personal aspects of which participants had been previously unaware. As one experienced teacher noted: *'The assessments ... benefited each of us personally. I was able to get a 'scientific proof' of what I knew about myself, and to learn new and surprising things about myself' (OY)*. Indeed, a helpful image that was used by several participants and which captures the above notions was that of a mirror: *'[The profile] behaved like a mirror ... it showed me who I really am' (TD)*. Terms such as *order, focus, structure* or *framework* were also frequently employed: *'More than anything, [EI] competencies provide a framework... They sharpen your view and help you to sort things properly: What underlies different behaviours and outcomes, how to interpret certain behaviours. It [EI] offers a theory in place of intuition, and it is focused and structured' (OY)*.

Almost all of the profiles listed areas of strength as well as areas requiring further improvement. Interestingly, during the interviews the participants tended to focus on the latter, addressing competencies which received below-standard scores or ones that scored lower than other competencies: *'I looked at my report, and all my weaknesses*

appeared to materialise right in front of me' (USH). Despite the inherent difficulty in acknowledging and facing challenging behaviours, the participants tended to perceive low scores as conveying important information about themselves and as providing them with 'tangible materials to work with' (FE). As noted by another participant: 'Each of us was looking to find our weak points, those inner-obstacles that were holding us back' (OR).

Surprisingly, in the few cases where participants found no specific areas for improvement, they viewed their profiles as less useful: *'Overall, my report was good so I put it away' (TE)*. Indeed, only a third of the participants chose to discuss their experiences upon being presented with their areas of strengths. Those who referred to such experiences noted that awareness of personal social-emotional strengths enhanced their sense of self-efficacy, provided explanations for past accomplishments, and highlighted attributes important for future achievements and for coping with difficulties: *'I learned good things about myself...[e.g.] that I have an open and versatile personality...It was very important for me' (AL), 'I learned that I should rely more on my interpersonal skills... that my main strength lies in face-to-face interactions' (BP)*.

iii) Outcomes –

Adopting EI as a lens and additional consequences: At the outset, personal EQ-i profiles provided participants with a personal perspective of EI which supported further theoretical learning and which *'made the learning experience more powerful' (SIH)*. Once participants had become aware of their EI profiles and had embraced them, they began to use the EI competency lens to look at themselves. The profiles

became the basis for introspection, self-evaluation and personal development at the workshops, and even more so during personal coaching sessions. In turn, this process also laid the foundation for a later process of looking at other people, mainly students, through the same lens.

In turn, this increased awareness motivated the participants to engage in a more thorough exploration of the profiles, to infuse them with meaning, and to attempt to understand the manner by which EI competencies manifest themselves in their behaviours and impact upon their lives. These processes, which comprised a major share of the EI development process, are described in the following section.

4.2.2.3 Stage 3 – Introspection:

i) Overview: Following the EQ-i profile exploration stage the participants proceeded to attend group workshops and personal coaching sessions. Group workshops, which were offered throughout the training, provided participants with opportunities for self-exploration and reflection; promoted personal awareness of self-thoughts, emotions, different EI competencies and their impact upon behaviours; and highlighted potential personal, professional and pedagogic outcomes. A more in-depth introspection took place during the personal coaching sessions. Both the group workshops and the personal coaching sessions thus enabled participants to link their newly acquired theoretical knowledge of EI competencies with their personal views of themselves and others.

ii) Processes and experiences during the introspection stage: As this stage comprised one of the more complex processes in the training programme, different aspects of

these processes are discussed here separately. General considerations of the process itself are first presented. These are followed by a detailed description of themes which were found to be at the centre of introspection and which featured prominently in the narratives of most participants. Such themes were found to touch upon both the personal and professional domains and are organised accordingly. Finally, experiences related to participants' engagement in the above themes are presented.

General considerations: All of the participants embraced the introspection stage and considered it to be important and meaningful to them, even though they had embarked on it at different starting points, and even though they had each chosen their own pace, depth and intensity of exploration.

Group workshops were viewed as instrumental in launching the stage. In particular, the workshop facilitators were noted to engage participants in self-introspection by means of group discussions, group activities, peer work and personal exercises (the latter were carried out individually but were often discussed by the group at a later stage, see p. 120). Referring to these activities, one participant commented: *'There was a lot of personal work involved [in the workshops]... We didn't just sit and listen. There were many exercises that made us think and look deeper inward...'* (BP). Another participant discussed the specific contribution of facilitated group discussions to his own process of self-exploration: *'For me it all [introspection] started during the workshops, when the trainers asked us what it is that we would like people to say about us when we retire... it got me thinking...'* (TE). A colleague noted that the question *'How do you feel today?'* (VA), posed to the entire group during one of the first workshops, prompted a process of emotional self-examination.

While the dominant contribution of the trainers to the above-described self-exploration process was often evident, the group's role in the process was noted to be equally important. Participants actively shared feelings, experiences and insights with the entire group or with smaller subsets; and, when hesitant to share *'things that were deeply private and involved exposure'* (TE), listened to others. Furthermore, colleagues were noted to provide each other with a frame of reference. Thus group processes allowed participants to learn from their colleagues, to see themselves through their colleagues' eyes and to receive feedbacks regarding their own insights: *'Often [in the course of the workshops] I would hear other people and I would think to myself: Wow, these are 'my questions' that he (sic) is asking' (FE), 'Whenever someone would raise a topic that was related to my own experiences [I was able to] learn and understand something new about myself' (MS)*. In particular, one participant noted that carrying one-on-one peer discussions helped her gain personal insights. Many participants noted that group workshops had given them *'room to express themselves'* (RY) and had encouraged them to interact and discuss personal concerns as well as pedagogic beliefs and ideas.

Personal coaching was a self-directed process in which the participants selected the competencies they most wanted to explore; the domains they most wanted to refer to; and the topics they most wanted to address. Coaches, for their part, helped the participants identify areas in need of improvement, including ones which might have been missed earlier; promoted deeper self-exploration by means of questions, discussions, feedbacks and personally tailored activities; and provided a safe and supportive atmosphere for exploration. Participants often described the relationships they formed with their coaches as warm, close and trusting: *'I felt I was in a safe*

place, I discussed many things that I had not discussed before... I was able to be me...lowered my defences. There aren't many people who I trust to that extent' (VA).

While evaluations of the contribution of group workshops to participants' self-understanding varied, personal coaching sessions were highly valued by all participants. Moreover, a majority of participants emphasised the important contribution of personal coaching to the exploration process, and credited it with facilitating deep personal probing and with enhancing personal insights. The privacy, intimacy, trust and personal guidance that characterised the personal coaching sessions were particularly critical to some participants: *'I would not have identified many of the issues [that I had to address] myself [without my coach]. Even the personal segment of the [group] workshops was not enough' (BP)*. These participants emphasized that during coaching sessions they were able to openly discuss weaknesses, fears, thoughts, dreams and doubts, and to share personal stories: *'I could pour my heart, open up and discuss sensitive issues... I was able to take risks' (RI)*. They were cognisant of their coaches' professionalism and valued the coaches' insights, opinions and general contribution to their own development, often referring to the coaches as figures who are *'...there just for you' (FE)*, or as ones who are able to listen and *'who care about you' (OY)*. Participants further noted that this confidence extended to topics beyond the ones associated with EI development.

Many participants drew attention to the novelty of the above processes and testified that the introspection stage motivated them to ask themselves important questions *'...which I had never posed before' (MT)*, to engage in a process *'[which] wouldn't have happened otherwise' (LI)*, and to make new discoveries: *'...things that otherwise*

we wouldn't have revealed' (BP). Finally, a majority of the participants considered the resulting increases in self-knowledge and self-understanding to constitute a personal self-gain: *'The main strength of the process derived from its self-discovery aspects: learning about oneself, examining oneself, each teacher focusing on his/her own traits. You (sic) were able to gain new insights into topics you hadn't thought of or dealt with before' (MS).* Participants who initially had not found their profiles to be useful were now able to identify areas in need of further development.

The individualised nature of the introspection stage and of the corresponding insights is clearly demonstrated by the two following and contrasting accounts. While one participant noted: *'I realised that I had to take ownership over my work... that I was responsible for it...' (MS),* her colleague noted: *'[Introspection] made me realise that I could let go of some of the responsibility... I'm not alone in it, there are others and they too can help' (TD).*

Themes, domains and topics at the centre of the introspection: The themes examined by participants in the course of the introspection stage fell into two broad categories: 'Who am I' and 'Who would I like to be'. It was up to each participant to decide which of the two themes to explore first, and to determine the extent and duration of these explorations. In practice, the two themes were often explored simultaneously.

A majority of participants explored themes which were closely associated with the first category, i.e. their own thoughts, emotions, EI competencies, related behaviours and outcomes: *'What it [the EI competency profile] means and how does it express itself in my life' (USH), 'How does it (EI) really affect me' (SE).* Participants also engaged in

reflections upon values, beliefs, habits, perceptions and paradigms, past decisions, current life situations and different aspects of their lives and work: *'I examined my beliefs and values... the way I conduct myself around students and the ideas I hold as truths' (BP)*.

Additionally, most participants explored, albeit to varying degrees, the 'Who would I like to be' theme. This exploration, often referred to as a search for 'vision', touched upon topics such as self-fulfilment and actualisation, aspirations, dreams, goals and personal and professional advancement: *'I started thinking about myself, about what I want and what is good for me, whether I'm being driven by the right goals' (GN)*.

It should be noted that the participants were encouraged to identify competencies which they would need to develop in order to achieve their visions and goals, a process which often was intertwined with reflections upon current selves and life situations, and therefore inadvertently engaged in both of the above-noted categories of introspection.

Several participants who became highly engaged with the 'vision' theme noted that it had provided them with a new and proactive view of their lives and work: *'I began [the self-exploration process] by choosing a direction and by setting future goals, and this process took a big part of my exploration time' (LI)*. Others found this theme to be less relevant to them, or else to be of a lower priority as compared with the need to develop their EI competencies: *'I said to my coach: I don't want to explore visions right now, I'm not ready for that. I first need to work on some competencies that impact upon my life' (AL)*. While the small sample size precludes a firm statement,

veteran teachers tended to be among this group: *'I didn't have unfulfilled dreams or big aspirations. At my age, I had already managed to do and experience a lot. I was therefore looking into [more immediate] goals such as improving my EI competencies and/or improving the way I work with my class' (OY).*

Inevitably, introspection took place in a social and professional context, and the participants explored the effects of their competency-related behaviours upon a variety of relationships, including ones with students and colleagues. Links between EI competencies, behaviours and outcomes in others (mainly students) were similarly explored: *'I have to say, I started seeing people in terms of their EI. I now use the same 'lens' when I look at others, even at my own children. I look to see what they need to improve and whether I can help them with it' (MT).* Additionally, participants became engaged in more general pedagogic topics, such as what makes a good teacher, or how does EI apply to pedagogical goals.

To highlight themes which featured more prominently in the narratives of the participants, their views and insights are organised and presented here according to the domains they touched upon (personal and professional), and according to the common topics which were featured in these narratives (e.g. general approach to life, relationships, current life situation, and visions or goals).

It should be noted that in actual fact, personal and professional experiences often overlapped as they were often underlain by common competencies or by similar related behaviours: *'I realised that I don't take time to listen to my students ...and that the same is true of my interactions with my daughters' (TE).* Similarly, interactions

between competencies were often evident. For the sake of clarity, and despite this complexity, experiences and comments associated with the personal and professional domains are presented here separately. Additionally, various competencies which were referred to in the course of the interviews and which were noted to underpin the narratives are denoted in bold letters. Additionally, efforts have been made to point to interactions between distinct competencies.

I - The personal domain: The participants embarked on the introspection stage by considering various aspects of their personalities, and by reflecting, each to varying degrees, upon their overall life outlook, attitudes, habits views, past experiences, current life status (e.g. residential, financial, academic), and social relationships. They explored the manner and extent to which they addressed their own needs; the ways they coped with different challenges, life choices and outcomes; and the goals they hoped to achieve: *'[During the introspection stage] many personal issues were revealed. I saw what my life looked like and what choices I had made. It [the introspection stage] showed me where I stood at that point in time. It provided me with new and more general insights about myself. For me it was a powerful experience and it marked a new start' (OR), 'The introspection made me look at my personal life differently, to see things I have not seen before' (WN)*. A number of participants noted that such thoughts often accompanied them to the classroom. It should be noted that some participants were more reticent than others when speaking about their private lives, and instead limited themselves to general comments.

The various themes which were noted by the participants during this stage and which appeared pertinent to the personal domain are detailed in the following sections:

a) *General approach to life and current life situation*: While some participants noted the personal consequences of positive, friendly and optimistic attitudes, others dwelled on the effects of more self-limiting attitudes, and in particular on the effects of low **self-regard**, and of the underlying low levels of **assertiveness**, **self-actualisation** or **independence**, on their lives. A number of participants came to realise that they had often doubted themselves, had been afraid of failures and had not acknowledged accomplishments. They linked such behaviours with a variety of outcomes such as missing opportunities, putting themselves last, neglecting to manage certain tasks, forgoing their own needs, feeling worried or unhappy, failing to attain desired goals, or avoiding social activities. For example, one participant blamed low **assertiveness** for preventing him from taking care of an important personal and administrative matter, which, in turn, had held him back in his career: *‘I had tried to deal with this issue, but once I was refused I gave it all up. All the efforts which I had put into it were wasted, and I didn’t receive the accreditation I deserved’ (BP)*. Other participants explored a wider range of attitudes related to their general outlook on life, such as being overall reactive, pessimistic, achievement-oriented, ascetic, over-caring, and/or defensive. One participant noted: *‘Anything related to enjoyment, any hint of self-indulgence, seemed wrong... That’s the way I had been brought up’ (MS)*.

b) *Relationships*: A large number of participants explored their relationships with family members, friends, neighbours and others. In particular, participants reflected upon the nature of such relationships, how fulfilling they were, their own role in the relationships, and the manner in which they had addressed social conflicts. A variety of EI competencies and corresponding consequences were discussed in this context.

These included low **empathy** – failure to understand, care for or express interest in others, which had led to superficial relationships and, at times, to hurting others’ feelings; low **interpersonal relationship** skills – difficulties in communicating thoughts and feelings, social awkwardness, or cynical attitudes, all of which had negatively impacted upon relationships; low **impulse control** – impetuosity or loss of temper, which, at times, would result in offending people; low **independence** – over reliance on others, even to the point of becoming a burden on others; low **flexibility** – often resulting in judgemental or unadaptable behaviours; low **reality testing** – misinterpreting social cues and acting inappropriately; and low **self-regard** – placing much emphasis on others’ opinions, trying to please others, being easily offended or withdrawn. Referring to this last competency, one participant noted: *‘[In the course of this stage] I came to realise that I had always worried about what my friends would think... I allowed them to put pressures on me... It was exhausting. I had no energy left, not even for my own work. Such relationships can drain you completely’* (AL).

Explorations of parent-child relationships and of effective parenting were particularly common. Participants identified modes by which their own EI profiles had impacted upon their interactions and behaviours with their children: *‘I realised that I had not been patient with my children, that I wasn’t always attentive to them... That I would often lose my temper...’* (SIH), *‘I often worry and I let it affect my kids. Whenever they have an idea or want to do something, I discourage them... I don’t demonstrate optimism... If I keep at it, they may end up being like me...’* (OD). Furthermore, participants explored manifestations of EI competencies in their children and the impacts of such competencies upon their children’s lives.

c) *Personal visions and goals*: A relatively large number of participants explored visions and goals unrelated to their work. These included long-awaited personal dreams, new areas of activity which promised fulfilment (such as different types of recreational activities, volunteer work, or other new projects), and personal goals they wanted to achieve (such as attaining higher academic degrees). Some participants came to realise that certain under-developed EI competencies had stopped them from fulfilling their personal visions: *'I always wanted to make an impact, to create something new... But I wasn't confident enough ... I was afraid that I would fail and that it would hurt my self-esteem ... that I would take it to heart. Instead, I chose not to try'* (OD).

II - The professional domain: Explorations of personal subjects were often intruded upon by references to professional topics, and very often at an early stage of the introspection process: *'[During the introspection stage] you often ended up thinking both about your (sic) private life and about your performance as a teacher'* (MT). Unlike the personal domain, to which some participants tended to refer relatively little, instances and insights involving the professional domain were noted in all narratives and were referred to frequently and at length by a majority of the participants. In particular, the close links between EI and teachers' effectiveness, as perceived by the participants, were highlighted, as was the wide-ranging nature of reflection, which extended beyond the direct impact of specific competencies.

The topics most often referred to during this part of the introspection included the following:

a) *Daily work with students and classroom practice*: Engagement with this topic is very effectively demonstrated by the case of a homeroom/math teacher, whose high **interpersonal skills** were evident from his personal profile. However, as he explored the combined impact of low **self-regard** and low **assertiveness** (both **intra-personal** competencies) upon his work with students, he came to recognise in himself behaviours of which he was previously unaware. These included a tendency to avoid confrontations with students, to delay deadlines, and to overlook inappropriate class behaviours. Reflecting upon these attitudes the participant noted: *'I came to realise that at times I had cut corners. I had given in to students, I had tried to please them... That these attitudes [lowering my expectations] appeared to work only because I avoided looking at some of their indirect consequences'* (BP). The same participant further reflected upon his low level of **independence**, and upon his constant need for approval, both of which had prevented him from responding immediately and appropriately to challenging behaviours in the classroom: *'I sought reassurance for every decision I had to make. I always sought someone to back me up. I was reluctant to make my own decisions'* (BP). In another example, a highly experienced homeroom teacher who had found it difficult to maintain classroom discipline and to promote learning, attributed these challenges to very high levels of **empathy** and to her efforts to *'always understand and forgive'* (OY).

Another participant, an art teacher, reflected upon the links between her low **reality testing** skills and her ability to assess social and academic dynamics in the classroom and to react accordingly: *'I was being unrealistic... [I failed to evaluate correctly] what they [the students] knew... whether they had understood what I was teaching*

them and what I was asking them to do. I was unaware of all that at the time... (OD). That participant further noted a tendency to 'jump' from one topic to the next rather than teaching them each thoroughly. She went on to note that her lack of perseverance prevented her *'from making a real impact [as a teacher]'* (OD). Similar attitudes and behaviours were previously noted to be linked with low **impulse control**, i.e. the inability to delay gratification or to persevere in long-term activities (Stein and Book, 2000).

Finally, several participants explored technical aspects of classroom practice, such as poor time management, lack of pre-class preparation, or low organisational skills.

b) Relationships with students: Though teacher-student relationships are an integral part of teachers' daily work with students (a topic which was addressed in the previous section), a large number of participants focused on this particular aspect of their work and explored the specific impacts of EI competencies, or lack of, upon their relationships with students.

One homeroom teacher had viewed his relationships with his students as generally positive, but came to realise that these relationships had in fact been superficial, as he had refrained from addressing his students' emotions or difficulties: *'I didn't have the ability... to see what others were going through... that there are two sides to every story. I only saw my own side'* (TE). He attributed these behaviours to low levels of **emotional self-awareness** which resulted in low levels of **empathy**: *'[I was] unaware of internal and external [self] processes, of what I wanted and felt, of what I needed to do... [I was] afraid of emotions... I now realise that I was emotionally shallow...'*

(TE).

A number of participants reflected upon behaviours related to low **impulse control**, such as reacting impulsively, and at times inappropriately, to various situations, getting angry at students and/or shouting at them. One school counsellor/teacher noted: *‘When things wouldn’t go the way I wanted them to... or when they [the students] wouldn’t behave the way I thought they should... I would just ‘shoot from the hip’, act impulsively, offend students... I wouldn’t stop to think beforehand... Once we started talking about it [discuss these behaviours in the workshops and with my coach] I was able to identify where and when I snapped. These are things that I hadn’t paid attention to before’* (SE).

Several participants referred to the impacts of low **self-regard** upon relationships with students. These included defensive behaviours – a tendency to be reserved and withdrawn when around students, as well as offensive behaviours – being overly sensitive, sometimes misinterpreting daily interactions, mistaking such interactions for manifestations of disrespect or criticism, and reacting aggressively. One homeroom teacher noted: *‘I learned that my low self-confidence had made me less attentive to others... that I had been preoccupied with my own internal conflicts... Additionally, my fear of failure [in interpersonal relationships] prevented me from establishing personal interactions with students... I preferred to work with them in groups instead’* (AL).

Other participants discovered self-behaviours typically associated with low **flexibility**: *‘I would never compromise [in class], I would show no flexibility... I would never*

forgive' (GN), *'I tended to be judgmental. I always knew what had to be done, what's right and what's wrong, and I didn't give them [the students] enough room [to form their own opinions]'* (SE). One participant highlighted the need *'to be more open to understand others, not to worry about always being right, not to judge those who would disagree with my definition of what is right. I came to realise that... just because my students' view of the world isn't identical to mine doesn't mean it's wrong'* (OR). A few participants linked low **flexibility** to discriminating and otherwise negative attitudes towards students which they admitted having (e.g. to suggestions that students embody a shallow and self-centered youth culture, or to biased stereotypes of specific ethnic or socio-economic sub-groups).

Finally, many participants explored their own role as perceived by their students: whether their students viewed them as important and significant figures in their lives; whether students would seek their advice and guidance in personal and other non-academic matters; whether the students were aware that their teachers cared about them; and whether the participants impacted upon their students' lives, or, in the participants' words, *'made a difference'* (GY). The term *'meaningful'* was often used in this context: *'We felt that we weren't meaningful enough to them [the students]'* (MS). Similarly, the participants explored ways to create more meaningful relations with their students. A large number of participants linked this goal to their own sense of purpose.

c) Relationships with colleagues: A number of participants considered the impact of their EI skills upon their relationships with their peers. Some cited low **interpersonal relationships** skills as a likely cause for difficulties in approaching, communicating

with, or feeling comfortable around some of their colleagues. One participant attributed his *'self centred and uncooperative'* (TE) attitudes to both low **interpersonal relationships** skills and low **empathy**: *'I was often cynical, always making jokes... often, not knowingly, I would hurt their [colleagues] feelings'* (TE). However, highlighting the deep nature of introspection called for by the training, the same participant described how he had come to recognise additional underlying reasons for his behaviours: *'...I realised that while appearing to be a hero and a 'show off', I was, in fact, running away... Because I needed to hide my fears, I kept my distance [from the rest of the staff]'* (TE). The participant credited group workshops for allowing him to discover the impact of these behaviours upon his colleagues, and for enabling him to see himself through their eyes.

Another participant, a school administrator, noted that her low **stress tolerance** drove her to seek control over stressful situations in an attempt to reduce stress level. This, in turn, prevented her from delegating responsibilities to her colleagues, thus infringing upon their **self-actualisation** and adversely affecting their relationships with her.

A few participants discussed the combined interactions of low **self-regard** and low **assertiveness** with other competencies, and the subsequent effects upon their relationships with colleagues. One participant noted: *'[because of my low self-regard] I used to be withdrawn. I could be angry or offended, but still I wouldn't tell [my colleagues] what it was that I thought or needed'* (RI). Reflecting upon those same competencies and her work effectiveness, another participant noted: *'I had trouble saying 'no', I was afraid to disappoint others... I would take upon myself to do too many chores... All of that impacted upon the quality of my work'* (AL). Another

participant attributed similar behaviours to overly high **empathy** and **social responsibility**.

Other testimonies that described the impacts of low **impulse control**, low **independence** or low **flexibility** upon relationships with colleagues were similar to those noted in the personal domain section (see p. 167).

d) Professional well-being: A number of participants reflected upon their **general mood** and well-being at work. Several of them described low levels of **optimism** and **happiness**, which made them focus on difficulties rather than on positive occurrences or on opportunities. One participant elaborated on her burnout levels and noted her frustration with teaching and her thoughts of retirement. While prior to the training that participant had attributed these feelings to students' attitudes and behaviours, she now began looking at the contribution of her own low levels of **flexibility** and **impulse control** and of her own view of her students to such feelings: *'For the past few years I have often felt that students are disrespectful and that they don't have any boundaries... that they aren't interested in learning... [I have come to realize] that I bear some of the responsibility for these behaviours...that I need to regulate my emotions and to be more flexible with the students... that there's more to learning than just going through more material...'* (GN).

Another participant explored her capacity for **stress tolerance** and its impact upon her well-being: *'...The stress made me feel sick and interfered with my performance... For instance, on the nights before final exams I wasn't even able to sleep. I would worry that something would go wrong'*(TD). Yet another participant became aware of the

impact of low **self-regard** upon her well-being at work: *‘I was always comparing myself to those other teachers who were saying that their students liked them. I would wonder: do my students like me? ...’* (AL). In several cases low well-being at work was associated with a low sense of **self-actualisation** in a particular position or role.

e) *Professional visions and goals*: Exploration of the professional aspects of the ‘Who would I like to be’ theme, described above on p. 163, challenged the participants to examine their professional visions and goals. In particular, the participants engaged in exploring their passions, dreams and interests, in setting future professional goals, and in exploring elements which could lead them towards self-fulfillment and success. As noted by one participant: *‘Only after we had embarked on the process did I start wondering what my [professional] goals were, and where I would like to be in the future’* (LI). Another participant noted: *‘I realised... that the area which interests me and which I would like to specialize in is movement therapy for students with special needs, that it would challenge and fulfil me more... No, I had never gone through a [introspection] process like this before...’* (FE). Noting the close links between personal skills and the ability to advance his career, a mathematics teacher commented: *‘I realised that I want to teach students who are more academically advanced, students that would challenge me and would allow me to self-actualise... Until now I was afraid to reach for and get what I wanted...’* (BP), and then added: *‘Later on I would like to become a subject coordinator or a grade coordinator’* (BP). Citing a more student-focused goal, another participant said: *‘I wanted to find a way to succeed with my class, to advance my students’* (OY).

f) *Pedagogic approach*: Several participants reflected upon pedagogic ideas, teaching

methods, concepts and paradigms that underpinned their teaching practice: *'I tried to determine what good teaching is' (MS), 'I realised I needed to focus on learning processes, not only on academic content' (VA), 'The main thing I became aware of was the need to teach students how to think' (GN)*. One participant further noted: *'During the [introspection] process I came to realise that I had been using wrong paradigms... that I hadn't made the teaching relevant... I now realise that to teach effectively I have to engage students in the learning experience. It was a revelation to me, after all these years of teaching... It's amazing that I was unable to come to this realisation on my own' (MS)*. As with other pedagogic measures which the participants had proposed, this last measure (i.e. engaging students in the learning experience) was seen by participants as one which would provided added meaning for both teachers and students.

g) Attitudes towards academic achievements: Several participants discussed their attitudes towards learning and academic achievements in terms of specific EI competencies. One teacher attributed a tendency to reduce homework loads and to design overly easy exams to his low levels of **assertiveness** and **self-regard**: *'I wanted them [the students] to like me and so I hadn't demanded enough from them – much less than they were able to accomplish... I later came to realise that their academic accomplishments had been partly a sham, [that often they received high marks because] I had been making things easy for them' (BP)*. Another participant attributed similar over-indulging attitudes to over-**empathy**.

Many participants explored their attitudes towards students' academic achievements in a more general manner and without referring to specific competencies. These

explorations took place mainly during group workshops. A large number of participants acknowledged that they had tended to be over-protective and overly tolerant towards their students when it came to academic learning: *'giving them [the students] a million chances, doing things for them'* (MS). Several participants referred specifically to the students' (poor) performance on the matriculation exams: *'Did you know that only 37% of our students qualify for a Bagrut (matriculation) certificate? It's a disgrace. [And yet,] we haven't done anything about it...'* (LI), *'It's been like that for years and we've never given it a thought. It didn't bother us enough... It was a given that the school is like that'* (MS).

Prior to the training, the participants had viewed such attitudes as an expression of care and as integral to the school's ethos. Furthermore, participants had expected such attitudes to reduce competition, stress and feelings of incompetence in students. In what was referred to as *'a major paradigm shift'* (RY), many participants became aware of the negative effects of these attitudes: *'They [the students] didn't have to make an effort because they knew we would do their work for them'* (LI), *'Over the years, learning became our goal, not theirs...'* (OD). The participants further realised that their own attitudes had prevented students from taking responsibility and ownership over their learning and from acquiring important learning skills: *'They are not motivated, they don't know how to learn, how to work hard and how to achieve their goals'* (LI), *'We didn't give them tools to...overcome their difficulties'* (OR). A few participants further noted a possible negative impact upon students' self-efficacy: *'In a way, [by lowering our expectations] we were telling them that we did not believe in them'* (LI). Articulating her view of the need for shifts in teachers' attitudes, the same participant further noted: *'It is all up to us, the way we view learning, the way we*

view students' assignments, what we communicate to the students...[It is important that we] change the way we talk about learning and achievements' (LI).

h) Becoming aware of students' EI: Early in the training programme, and in parallel with the process of personal introspection, a second intertwined process of looking at EI in others, mainly students, had begun to evolve. Engagement in this process came about in an impromptu fashion (motivated by personal insights) and through facilitated group discussions: *'We were looking at our own skills and at our own development, and we said: let's look at students, let's see how it (EI) works for them and what we can do to help them' (FE).* Similarly, participants began looking for specific EI competencies which could promote school and life success among students in general, and among their own students in particular: *'I started thinking of skills that students need in order to become more motivated and in order to improve their academic achievements...'* (RI). A majority of the participants considered all EI competencies to be highly relevant to students: *'EI competencies, they are highly important to students, [they impact upon their] learning... and even more so upon their lives!'* (SE). The participants further noted that they had begun *'to view students in light of their EI competencies'* (SIH), and *'to evaluate students also in terms of their [EI] competencies... to identify competencies which might interfere with their success'* (AL). Many participants noted that EI had helped them to understand *'why students behaved in a certain way, what their weak points were... and what to do in order to help them... All of a sudden it all came together... EI helped me understand all that...'* (SE).

III – Emotional challenges: While valued and embraced by all participants, the

introspection stage gave rise to a wide range of emotional reactions. A majority of participants used terms such as *work*, *personal work* or *internal work* in reference to the broad and deep scope of the introspection process and of the efforts which had been put into it. Furthermore, almost half of them found this stage to be especially difficult, and described it in terms such as *hard*, or in a few cases even *painful* or *emotionally unsettling*. These latter participants tended to elaborate more on their emotional experiences during the stage: *'I would go to sleep thinking about it [the introspection process] and I would wake up still thinking about it' (SIH)*, *'I became consumed by it' (USH)*, *'I put my guard down [in the process] and took risks' (AL)*. Several participants with lower than average pre-training EQ-i scores traced back the onset of their emotional turmoil to their first encounter with their EQ-i profiles, but noted that these initial difficulties had often been compounded in the course of the introspection stage, upon revealing areas of weakness which previously had not been identified or dealt with. All participants in this more emotionally-vulnerable group noted aspects of their personal or professional identities, as well as aspects of their practice, which they questioned, thereby giving rise to feelings of self-doubt and uncertainty. One homeroom teacher noted: *'I thought I was doing fine, everything was going well... and then the questions started coming, and the doubts, and the ground was cut from under my feet... I was in a state of great uncertainty and confusion... It [the introspection process] touched upon my self-esteem and affected my image as a teacher and as an educator... It was really hard to go through this process' (MS)*.

In a majority of cases, the above-described unsettling emotions did not discourage participants from engaging in further introspection and development. Rather, such emotions were often perceived to be part and parcel of deep personal processes, or in

their words: *'real processes'* (SIH) which, in turn, were seen as beneficial. One participant described the process as *'painful but necessary'* (MS). Another, a subject specialist, noted that the introspection stage *'was not always easy, it was painful at times, but I learned a lot about myself [in the process]. I grew in the process. It freed me [from my internal constraints]'* (OD). A third participant referred to this stage as *'a wake up call'* (BP): *'I thought of where I would be in five years... [in terms of my career and my personal life]. I realised that I would probably still be at the very same place, and I became deeply discouraged, because I realized that I had never made an effort to change'* (BP).

Moreover, participants who had reacted more emotionally to this stage also tended to be more enthusiastic about the entire training as compared with the rest of the participants, referring to it as a *'powerful'* (RI), or even *'life-altering'* (USH), experience. These high levels of enthusiasm were often noted to match the amount of effort that they had invested in the introspection process and the depth of exploration they were committed to. For example, one relatively young homeroom teacher noted: *'For me it [the introspection process] was an amazing experience... the best thing that had ever happened to me... It wasn't easy, it was very hard even, but I was deeply moved by it... I started seeing things differently and I had to reassess my positions accordingly... I found it to be a deep and meaningful process'* (SIH). This particular participant also drew attention to the emotional support provided by the group, and to the group's role in alleviating feelings of pain and uncertainty: *'You (sic) were not alone... other people were going through the same difficulties... It was emotionally important for me to know this'* (SIH).

iii) *Outcomes –*

Enhanced self-awareness and additional consequences:

While some of the outcomes associated with this stage have already been discussed above (such as new EI-related insights, newly defined goals or other elements which comprised an integral part of the introspection process itself), several more general outcomes require noting. In particular, the introspection stage had further stimulated the participants' interest in EI development and further enhanced their self-awareness. This additional gain in self-awareness was widely noted by all participants: *'I became aware of my abilities, my feelings and my goals... of what my work requires... of what happens to me and what happens to others... of who we are... of processes and aspirations... perceptions and paradigms' (LI).*

Accordingly, participants were able to understand the role played by their own EI in their personal and professional lives: *'[Now I'm aware of] those things that are good for me, that serve me well, and of those that don't... [I now know] how best to impact upon various aspects of my life' (BP), 'I used to complain that my students wouldn't learn and wouldn't listen, that they weren't interested in anything. I suddenly realised that it was I who had to change' (MS).* Another participant noted: *'[I realised that] things that I had been doing all those years, perhaps I could have done them differently, or even better' (MT).*

Concurrent with the increase in self-awareness, participants enhanced their awareness of others, mainly students, and of the role that EI competencies might play in others' lives.

Finally, participants had come to realise that personal attributes could be modified, and that such modifications call for personal work: *'I thought it [the element which had motivated my behaviours] was my temperament, something that was part of me, I never realised [that some of my personal attributes] could be improved' (USH)*. Accordingly, participants were motivated to actively develop their EI competencies and thereby to improve their personal and professional effectiveness as well as their well-being: *'It [development of EI competencies] can help our performance ... [We can] improve and become better' (TD)*.

4.2.2.4 Stage 4 – Reflective action:

i) *Overview*: The reflective action stage involved the participants in active development of EI competencies and in behavioural changes. While tools to develop EI competencies were introduced and discussed in the workshops, the trainer-moderated coaching sessions were the main arena in which active EI development processes took place and in which participants were encouraged to become responsible for their own development.

ii) *Processes and experiences during the reflective action stage*: Enhanced self-awareness, the leading outcome of the introspection stage, acted as a catalyst to the reflective action process, promoting an engagement in EI development among a majority of the participants: *'Once you (sic) had understood things, you could start changing... From there on I had to start working on myself' (USH)*. A majority of participants demonstrated commitment to developing their competencies and took an active part in the process: *'I worked on myself... I viewed it as a task which required the highest responsibility and commitment' (SIH)*. None of the participants doubted

their ability to develop their EI, indicating that a sense of confidence in their ability to successfully affect self-changes has been created.

While most of the participants tended to speak relatively little about the processes and techniques that were involved in developing their competencies, preferring instead to focus on the training outcomes, analysis of interview transcripts pointed to a self-directed EI development process. At the same time, the trainers' role in the process was often highlighted: *'The personal accompaniment was very important... Having a trained professional help you (sic) to develop...' (GY).*

In particular, participants noted that throughout this stage they had been encouraged by the facilitators to define visions; set goals; select competencies, behaviours and habits which they wanted to develop or modify; and choose both the order and the scope of their EI work. In most cases participants chose to work on competencies for which they had received low scores in their pre-training EI profiles: *'[I needed to work] on relinquishing my need to control, not to take everything so seriously, not to judge others, to move from being reactive to being proactive, to initiate processes rather than criticise their absence' (SIH).* However, at times participants also chose to work on higher-score competencies which, they had felt, still needed improvement.

Once their respective development plans had been formulated, the participants proceeded to develop the selected competencies and attain their goals. This step involved facilitated discussions and the use of a variety of competency development methodologies and coaching techniques: *'You (sic) would discuss certain topics with your trainer, and [consequently] you would see everything in a new light... things*

would become clearer... I loved the tools she [the trainer] used, they were new to me and [I found them to be] very helpful. Tabulating my thoughts for instance...' (GN). Other participants described additional new concepts and specific techniques which they had been introduced to and which they found helpful, such as pausing before responding to a stimulus and choosing the proper response.

In an additional activity, coaches and participants would plan practice opportunities, both in and out of school, and would follow-up by reflecting together on the participants' experiences. Participants' motivation for exercising newly acquired skills was generally high. One participant noted: *'I was presented with a goal that seemed important to me [i.e. improving certain aspects of my EI], and I learned how to accomplish it, and I was eager to practice [these new or improved skills] anywhere I could'* (SE), *'After every [coaching] session I would go and practice diligently [in different settings]... I was constantly experiencing, doubting and reassessing'* (SIH). A number of participants noted that successful experiences had encouraged further practice and further improvement: *'Each successful step I took, a potentially stressful phone call that I previously would have refrained from making, an assertive talk with the principal... made me stronger'* (AL). One participant described this entire process, which had included one-on-one sessions with his coach and practice sessions with his students: *'I was amazed at the way it [the exercise] worked from the very first time I practiced it... I couldn't believe how easy and unthreatening it was. I felt that the students had been waiting for me to act like that... [Later on] there was the comfort of having someone [the coach] to support me and help me plan the next stage... That was very important for me'* (BP).

While individual coaching sessions appeared to be at the centre of reflective-action processes, the role of colleagues in this stage was also discussed: *‘Our group meetings [i.e. group workshops] gave me tremendous support. I was able to see how other people had coped and how they had dealt with issues similar to mine. I was able to find out what their opinions were on things that had happened to me. I heard many new and different ideas that I was able to employ’ (BP)*. One participant recounted an instance in which her colleagues complimented her on her improved **assertiveness**. Another described a case in which he had asked for the group’s assistance in practicing **independence**, and the group’s response, encouraging him to make his own decisions.

Divergent experiences parallel to the reflective action stage: While a majority of the participants chose to engage in reflective action and to develop specific EI competencies, two participants, both veteran teachers who had been involved in the preceding stages of training, decided not to pursue reflective-action processes but to further engage in one or more of the previous stages: learning about EI; adopting it as a lens to look at others and for their work with students; and reflecting upon their own practice. In view of this choice, the coaches adapted the coaching sessions to the two participants’ needs, and encouraged them to develop their EI by following their own path.

One of these two participants attributed her decision not to become engaged in reflective action to a pre-training state of burnout. This prior state of exhaustion, which had sparked her interest in EI as a means to overcome her frustrations in the first place, prevented her from actively engaging in some reflective-action practices: *‘I could not internalise and incorporate [these new ideas] ... [even though] I knew that*

EI is good and important' (GN). Instead, the participant used her coaching time to prolong the introspection stage. She explored the causes for her burnout; examined pedagogic paradigms and her own pedagogic beliefs; and considered ways in which she could improve on her work and well-being.

The second participant expressed her objections more strongly: *'I didn't want to change anything [in myself]'* (MT). Describing the reasons that made her join the training programme in the first place she noted: *'I wanted to find new tools to use with my students... I was also hoping to improve some personal skills, like time management'* (MT). The participant self-described emotional reticence, which she had attributed to her stern upbringing, might have discouraged her from engaging in deeply personal processes. Instead, throughout this stage, she examined her pedagogic beliefs, professional attitudes and practice, and considered ways in which she could introduce EI to her students.

iii) Outcomes –

EI shifts, behavioural changes and additional consequences:

As the reflective action stage comprised the fourth and final stage of the training process, outcomes from this stage inevitably reflected the entire EI-development process. Indeed, while a majority of the participants credited this stage with enhancing their EI and with helping them to develop as individuals: *'I think I improved... because I worked on myself'* (AV), *'I made progress only after I took upon myself to work and to self-improve'* (SIH); they were highly aware of the contribution of the three preceding stages to these outcomes: *'I developed as a teacher and as a person. It [the training in its entirety] gave me a lot, I developed immensely... I'm a different*

teacher and a different person now. It's a shame I hadn't come across such a training programme before' (WN).

The changes and underlying EI shifts that were credited to this stage were highly individual in nature and extent, and encompassed most EI competencies and a wide range of EI-related behaviours. In the following pages, these shifts, as perceived by the participants themselves, are first presented. Congruent with the above observations, quotes that demonstrate outcomes from this 4th stage may include general references to the whole training process.

Additionally, as participants' reactions to their post-training EQ-i assessments were taken to reflect some of the changes undergone during the 4th stage of the training as well as in the course of the entire training, these reactions are also presented here.

Finally, participants' impressions of behavioural changes in colleagues and their predictions of corresponding students' reactions, were taken to further demonstrate the training outcomes, and therefore are also included.

I – Perceived changes in personal EI and in corresponding behaviours: In describing the effects of the reflective action stage and the entire training participants noted a variety of shifts, including ones in general EI level; specific EI competencies; their views of themselves, of others and of various phenomena related to education; and behavioural changes. Participants tended to combine general statements, such as: *'I feel like a new person' (TE)*, or *'I have completely changed... it [the training] changed my life' (USH)*, with testimonies about specific shifts. The terms *changed*,

developed, improved, different, before and after, and then and now, were widely used in this context, reflecting a sense of transformation. In particular, a relatively large number of participants referred to a sense of empowerment and noted that the reflective action stage had enabled them to assume greater control over their lives, actions and choices: ‘As far as my life is concerned... [I now] take the lead, rather than let things happen... I take responsibility...’ (AL), ‘I learned that if I want something to happen in my life...I don’t have to wait, I can do it myself, my own way... I learned to trust my intuition and my abilities and to dare’ (RI).

A majority of participants were convinced that they had enhanced their EI and that this enhancement had been accompanied by positive and notable shifts in at least some of the competencies which they had targeted for development: *‘I think I had enhanced my EI, especially my **emotional self-awareness**, it has sharpened immensely...and also my **impulse control**’ (SE), ‘I definitely improved my **assertiveness**’ (FE). Furthermore, many participants noted links between these shifts in EI and changes in EI-related behaviours: ‘Those who have undergone a process of [EI] development behave differently. You can feel it in each behaviour and in every interaction... You can see it in the way they talk and make decisions and in the way they behave with students’ (USH). Many of the participants’ narratives included detailed and personal descriptions of modified EI-related behaviours: ‘Yes, I’m more in control now, I don’t act rashly... I no longer shout at the children and I try not to offend them... When I’m really angry and when I feel like taking it out on someone, I stop to choose the right response, not the first one that pops into my head’ (SE), ‘I’m much more self-confident. I’m more likely to express my opinions in public’ (OD), ‘I’m better at solving problems. I first check if my solution is the only possible one. Are there other options?’*

Are there other factors that I just hadn't seen or hadn't considered? I try to be more open-minded' (TD).

Conversely, several participants, while acknowledging some personal development and an enhancement in their EI, credited these with only subtle changes in behaviours, or else suggested that their newly modified behaviours have not yet been internalised or routinised, and required further practice: *'I improved the competencies that I had worked on, but I still don't use them consistently' (RY), 'The training encouraged me to embark on a deep process... But there's still a long journey ahead of me... The change I experienced ...it hasn't yet affected my career or my life...'* (MS). Despite such reservations, other statements by the same participants did reveal some post-training behavioural changes. For example, participant MS noted that she had established more open relationships with her students, initiated more out-of class interactions and made some changes in the way she used her off-school hours.

Unlike the majority of participants, the two participants who had chosen not to engage in reflective-action (GN and MT) both stated that they had not improved their EI. They attributed this outcome to their avoidance of this last development stage. However, analysis of their respective interviews revealed that both had benefited from the reflective action stage as well as from the entire training. In particular, both were noted to have acquired EI knowledge and to have gained self-awareness, and both demonstrated shifts in their pedagogic views. GN noted that by focussing on her own contribution to class situations she had gained fresh insights: *'Before the training I used to think that I knew what needed to be done. I thought I was a good teacher, but still, I wasn't professionally successful... I experienced burnout. Now I'm trying to*

understand how I can change... I don't want to be inaccessible to my students, I want to try and understand them, communicate with them... I now realise that it's up to me...' (GN). She further expected that after taking *'some time to figure out what it all means'* (GN), she would modify her teaching practices and would become more effective and less frustrated. MT's testimonies similarly indicated that she too had undergone a process of emotional development, even if one not related to specific competencies, and similarly demonstrated shifts in her pedagogic views: *'There are many things I'm more aware of nowadays, things that I took for granted before... The fact that I hadn't engaged in the [personal] development process doesn't mean I didn't gain insights, that I didn't come to think of things a little differently... The training allowed me to open up... this is the difference. I didn't want to change anything but I did look into myself and I did work on myself...'* (MT). Despite declaring her reservations, this latter participant brought EI into her classroom; practiced skills associated with **empathy** and **interpersonal relationships**; and modified some of her EI-related behaviours, such as increasing her collaboration with colleagues or attending more to students' emotions.

Finally, a majority of participants described EI development as an on-going process, and did not perceive their own EI development, even if transformational, as complete: *'You have to keep doing it, keep on developing'* (BP). They also noted specific competencies which had not yet been improved, or ones which had not improved to the desired level or which were only manifested in certain contexts: *'My **impulse control**'*, one management member noted, *'it is my Achilles heel... I tried to work on it, but I'm not sure if it really has improved much'* (LI), *'I used to be very reactive, maybe I still am to a certain degree... I'm still going through a [change] process'* (RI),

'I'm less dependent on others for approval, but there's still room for improvement. It's an ongoing process' (FE). One of the homeroom teachers similarly noted: *'The other day I was able to stand up in a meeting and to state my opinion, a big step for me. But I had still sought the other teachers' approval and became angry when they disagreed with me. In this respect I haven't changed much' (SIH).* She went on to draw attention to the fact that the development of certain EI competencies may be domain (or setting) -specific: *'At home, the changes I had undergone were less pronounced and the tools I had acquired somehow didn't work as well. ...I had less **impulse control**' (SIH).*

II – Participants' reactions to their post-training EQ-i assessments: While professing to be highly aware of their post-training emotional development, participants nevertheless sought 'formal' validation for the changes they had intuited. Post-training EQ-i scores, presented to the participants in the course of their personal interviews (see p. 117), were considered by many to provide such validation. Furthermore, both the participants' predictions of their post-training profiles and their reactions when presented with the actual data provided valuable insights into their personal development.

A majority of the participants displayed an interest in the post-training EI profiles and eagerly awaited the opportunity to find out what their post-training EQ-i scores were, thus demonstrating both the importance they attributed to their EI development and the confidence they had in the validity of the measure. Congruent with this interest, most profiles were greeted with excitement and some trepidation: *'I have a feeling that it [my total EQ-i score] has increased, but what happens if I find out that it hasn't?' (FE), 'I kept thinking, I just wish it [the change in my EQ-i score] would be*

positive...so that I know that I really had improved... It was so important to me' (SIH), 'I know I made a lot of progress, and nothing in the [EQ-i] assessment can make me think otherwise...Deep inside I know I'm a different person now, I act differently, and that's all that matters... But still, I would be glad to know that the assessment report reflects these changes' (AL).

When asked to predict the pre-post training shifts in their EI profiles, a large number of participants predicted large changes, reflecting their belief that the training had a significant impact upon their EI and upon related behaviours: *'I think my [EQ-i] scores had improved...in all parameters...because I had changed' (VA), 'I think this profile will be very different from the previous one...I can't wait to see it' (RI).* The few participants who expected small shifts in their overall EQ-i scores were the ones who had considered the behavioural manifestation of changes that they had undergone to be limited and believed the measure to reflect only major behavioural changes. Similarly, the two participants who had not engaged in reflective action did not expect to see measurable changes in their EQ-i scores: *'I looked at the list of competencies and I said to myself: there can't be any change, and if there is, it's minimal...[after all] I didn't want to change anything' (MT).*

Once the post-training profiles had been revealed and examined, it became evident that the pattern and general magnitude of the total EI shifts and of shifts in competencies which had been targeted for development were broadly in line with many participants' predictions. Despite having been confident about their earlier predictions, participants were glad when expectations for large positive shifts were validated: *'I'm glad that I have improved [in terms of my EI], and that I had*

*undergone a [transformative] process, just as I thought I had. It was important for me to know that' (OD). A few participants, including those whose predictions for small positive shifts were validated, even described a sense of relief: 'Wow, I'm so relieved. All I could think of was that I wanted it [the change in my EQ-i scores] to be positive' (SIH). Similarly, most participants were glad to see shifts in competencies they had targeted for improvement: 'I'm glad that the main improvements were in **self-regard** and **reality testing**, the competencies which I had worked on the most' (OD).*

Cases where shifts in pre-post training EQ-i scores were smaller or bigger than expected, were similarly embraced: *'**Problem solving** skills? I didn't think they had increased but it makes sense. There were many challenges that I had to deal with and many problems to solve...' (EF). The same was true of participants who had encountered negative shifts in their pre-post training EQ-i scores, and that despite the fact that such outcomes had not been considered during the training. While expressing their disappointment: 'Well, it is a disappointment... I thought I had already made some progress and the report doesn't show that' (GY), these participants also highlighted the fact that EI development is a continuous process: 'I know I'm still in a process and I know I still have some ways to go' (MS). Furthermore, they pointed to the deep introspection process they had undergone; to the focus on previously-unrecognised areas of weakness; or to situational factors, mainly the involvement in school changes, all of which might have impacted upon their second EQ-i assessment: 'If you think about it, changes are unsettling and may hold you back temporarily, it takes time' (GY), 'The fact that problem-solving went down, I didn't think it would... [It is perhaps] because I started dealing with challenges that were new to me... It makes sense' (OY). Several participants, who were unable to account for negative*

shifts in specific competencies at the time of the interviews, said they needed more time to understand these shifts.

Several participants whose predictions did not agree with their actual pre-post training EQ-i shifts argued that their EQ-i scores did not contradict the fact that they had changed. In particular, some suggested that changes in their behaviours might have been too small to be identified by the measure. They all predicted that once EI-related changes would manifest themselves more fully in their behaviours, additional EQ-i assessments would reflect these changes: *‘I believe [my future EQ-i scores] will be higher because I really feel a change... I feel that I had developed, and I’m sure my [EQ-i] scores will increase’ (GY).*

The two instances in which the EQ-i results were challenged was the case of two participants who felt that the decrease in their social responsibility scores did not reflect their actual performance and their increased commitment to the school.

III – Added perspectives – hypothesised peer and student outlooks: Seeking to examine EI-related behavioural changes from additional perspectives, the participants were presented with two questions. The first – whether they thought their fellow participants had been positively affected by the training, and the second, more hypothetical question – whether the changes they themselves had undergone would be perceived by their students.

A large number of participants thought that all their colleagues had been positively impacted by the training and had developed emotionally, albeit to different extents.

Their descriptions confirmed many of the above noted self-perceptions, while attesting to the participants' growing awareness and understanding of EI processes: *'Everyone has become more emotionally developed... each at their own pace. Some are still going through it [the development process] and have not undergone a change yet... [This may be partly because] participants had entered the training at different starting points... They also reacted differently to the process...saw it in a different light'* (WN), *'teachers changed, all of them, each in their own way. The main change was that they had opened up, dared to be themselves, became aware of their own needs, experimented and took risks'* (FE).

Conversely, some participants noted a small number of colleagues that have not changed: *'I think some have not changed much...you don't see any changes in their behaviours...perhaps this (the level of change) has to do with how much each of them decided to take from the training'* (OD).

While a majority of participants were confident that most of their colleagues had undergone some EI changes, some participants predicted that their students would not notice these changes while others expected that the students would perceive changes to be smaller than they really were. In explaining such predictions, participants again drew attention to the slow nature of the EI development process and to the time required for EI-related changes to become observable and to impact upon others. Participants also noted the gradual (rather than radical) nature of EI-related changes and suggested that the lack of a specific turning point further complicates the identification of such changes by others: *'It [an EI-related behavioural change] is not something you notice immediately, it is gradual and it takes time. The students may*

grow used to [the 'new'] us without noticing that we had changed... but we had' (MS).

4.2.3 Perceived impacts of the training

The training programme, and in particular the above-described EI shifts and related behavioural changes, were noted by the participants to impact upon different aspects of their lives, both personal and professional. Additionally, they were noted to impact upon the entire group of participants and the school as a whole (see Figure 4.1).

Testimonies and underlying themes associated with these four domains of impact are presented in the following sections. All of the above noted impacts were deduced from the participants' testimonies and therefore were perceived rather than measured.

4.2.3.1 The personal domain:

A large number of participants suggested that their personal lives had been impacted by changes in EI-related behaviours and by the active pursuit of personal goals. Following are several areas in which the most prominent impacts were noted.

i) General life attitudes and the handling of professional and personal challenges: The perceived impact of the training upon the general life attitudes of several of the participants is illustrated by the following testimony: *'I've opened up to the world around me... I even went and bought myself some new clothes... I go out more... I feel like 'living it up' a little' (SM).* A fellow participant felt better overall, demonstrated a more positive and more optimistic outlook on life and was able to appreciate and celebrate her achievements more than before. Yet another participant became less defensive and more trusting. Several participants linked improved well-being to

improved **self-regard**, noting that the training had allowed them to appreciate themselves more and had increased their self-confidence.

A number of participants described changes in the way they handled different challenges, and noted the links between such changes and enhanced EI competencies. For example, a teacher who had enhanced his **assertiveness** levels noted: *'Before the training, if someone had said 'No' to me, I would have just thanked them and left. But [after the training] I was able to plan everything in advance. How to convince the 'other side' and how to explain my position' (BP)*. He described a particular case where he was able to successfully overcome a complex administrative hurdle which he had previously avoided challenging, and which had prevented him from getting his long-awaited accreditation: *'I knew I had a case and I knew I had the interpersonal skills to present it...and it worked' (BP)*.

ii) *Relationships*: Shifts in the nature of relationships with spouses, children and friends were among the most frequently discussed personal-domain impacts. Different participants noted that they had become more attentive and empathic to others; were more open, supportive and friendly; communicated more effectively; were less dependent on others; or were more proactive and assertive. One participant noted: *'I speak differently now, even with my wife. I share with her the things I have learned, I listen more attentively to the things she says, I deal with home-related issues in a different way' (VA)*. A large number of participants spoke of becoming more aware as parents, of noting their own behaviours and the corresponding consequences as well as their children's needs, and of acting accordingly: *'I listen to my girls more, I spend more time with each of them, I help them think rather than just answer their questions'*

(TE). A majority of these participants mentioned that they had become aware of their children's EI competencies, and a few spoke about trying to informally develop EI skills in their children, noting that they expected such skills to enable their children to cope better with challenges and to succeed.

iii) The pursuit of personal visions and goals: About a third of the participants made changes in their leisure activities, including the addition of at least one off-school activity. While some had long sought to engage in new activities, they credited their enhanced EI competencies and the clear identification of personal goals and visions with the impetus to actively pursue them. Others pursued activities which they had identified as attractive in the course of the introspection stage and which later became part of their (reflective) action plan. New off-school pursuits included creative activities (such as dance and writing); advanced studies and enrichment courses; volunteer work; and/or community projects, with some being engaged in more than one such activity. Participants credited their involvement in these new off-school activities with enhancing their well-being and promoting a sense of fulfilment: *'At last I was able to fulfil one of my dreams, something I've been dreaming of ever since I was a child... This is one of the best things that has ever happened to me... I've [also] started studying in a programme that really interests me... I may even try to introduce it into the school one day... I'm happy that I had the courage to do these activities, that I believe more in myself'* (AL).

4.2.3.2 The professional domain:

Changes in professional performance were often seen as an extension of personal changes and were referred to by a majority of the participants. While noting that the

training impacted upon their practice through changes in personal competencies, many participants highlighted the contribution of the profession-related introspection to such impacts: *'Teachers that work on themselves, on those things that hold them back, those who try to overcome difficulties, are bound to improve their workplace performance'* (OR), *'A teacher who has participated in a process, like the one we had participated in, and then works with students... sees things differently, treats students differently, emphasises different things'* (WN).

As noted earlier, participants became engaged in modifying different aspects of their practice to different extents and in different ways. Hence, the impacts upon different elements within the professional domain varied greatly. These variations are explored in the following sections.

i) General classroom practice: In a direct reference to their experiences during the introspection stage (see page 168), participants highlighted the impacts of specific, enhanced, EI competencies upon their classroom practice.

Demonstrating the impact of enhanced **self-regard** and **assertiveness** on his work, one teacher noted: *'I no longer yield to pressures from my students. I don't give exams which are overly easy and I don't help students during the exams, [two things] which I used to do just to avoid confrontations. I don't allow students to speak during exams and I'm not afraid to be assertive [when rules are challenged]...When you are sure of yourself, you are less likely to feel pressured, you do what you believe in...you make the right decisions'* (BP). Similarly, a homeroom teacher who had managed to reduce her overly high levels of **empathy** said she was now better at maintaining discipline in

the classroom and at expecting more from her students. Both teachers noted that students had reacted well to these changes and had improved their classroom behaviours.

A number of participants suggested that improvements in their **impulse control** had enabled them to maintain a more positive classroom atmosphere and to better manage their classes. Finally, several teachers discussed the impact of EI development upon technical aspects of their work, such as following up on tasks, being punctual, being more organised, or managing their time better and planning their lessons ahead of time.

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ii) Relationships with students: In a more specific reference to interactions with students, participants described a variety of shifts associated with their improved (and more effective) communication skills. Those included listening more attentively to their students, allowing students to express their own opinions more often, and being open to and accepting of different views in the classroom. The participants attributed these shifts to enhanced **empathy**, **interpersonal relationships** and **flexibility**. One teacher noted: *'I went through a tremendous journey ... [I developed] the ability to understand their needs...to form closer and more open relationships with them'* (MS). Another teacher described the impacts of enhanced well-being and **happiness** upon her students: *'I had always loved them and listened to them and respected them. But when you are happier and at peace with yourself these things are more likely to shine through and to affect others'* (SIH).

A number of participants noted that as a result of enhancing their **emotional self-**

awareness they had become more attuned to students' emotions and were now more aware of emotional situations in the classroom. One participant who had modified her practice as a result of this enhanced emotional self-awareness noted: *'I see it more often now...the role emotions play in almost every class situation... Now, whenever the students seem agitated, I stop the lesson and together we discuss their feelings. I have come to realise that [negative emotions] interfere with learning... that I should acknowledge students' emotions, even at the expense of my original lesson plans' (MT).*

A large number of participants described a general shift towards more personal relationships with their students, but refrained from attributing it to specific competencies. Instead, they ascribed this shift to the entire training, and in particular to the identification of the need to gain a deeper knowledge of their students and to conduct more meaningful relationships with them: *'...[I wanted] to get to know their world' (MT), 'Students should leave the school knowing that they had been seen for who they are, as human beings...that their abilities had been recognised...[I now take the time] to conduct personal conversations with my students, something which I haven't done before' (OY), 'I dedicate more time to personal encounters [with students], to becoming meaningful to them and to doing meaningful things with them' (AL).* One participant noted: *'This is the biggest gift... to know that I should be attentive to emotional processes, to take the time to look at what they [the students] are going through...to talk to them about how they feel and how we can best work together... All these things that I didn't understand or do before' (TE).*

Several participants described specific measures they had taken and which led to

improved relationships with their students. These included the use of a positive manner of speech, engaging students in dialogues rather than lecturing them, using open-ended questions and focusing on students' strengths: *'I made several major changes... [I now pay] attention to each student, and the tone [I now use] in conversations with students is constructive and empowering rather than didactic and reprimanding' (BP).*

iii) Relationships with colleagues: A number of participants referred to the impacts of improved EI competencies upon their relationships with colleagues. A participant who had worked on his **interpersonal** competencies noted an increase in the number and quality of interactions and collaborations with colleagues.

Other participants noted that they had become less controlling and better at delegating responsibilities and at collaborating with others (as a result of enhanced **stress tolerance**); that they were now more confident and less withdrawn and/or defensive (enhanced **self-regard** and **interpersonal relationships**); and that they were more likely to make independent and confident decisions, or to assume a more dominant role among their peers (higher **independence**, **self-regard** and **assertiveness**): *'Even though my opinion went against everyone else's, I wasn't afraid to state it. That's one way in which I had changed' (SHI).* One participant, an activities coordinator, noted: *'I started involving teachers in planning school trips, rather than presenting them with 'ready made' plans. It worked out great' (MT).*

iv) Parent-teacher interactions: Several participants noted that the training had increased their ability to interact with parents effectively, proactively and assertively.

One participant described her recent response to a call from an upset mother: *'I was polite but firm, and I was able to calm her down. Before the training I would have avoided taking her call, or else I would have become defensive and would have spoken harshly'* (TD). Another teacher noted that he now approached parents more often to discuss their children's problem behaviours.

v) *Career changes and professional self-actualisation*: Almost half of the participants credited the training with a variety of career changes, all of which they had initiated themselves. They attributed these shifts to their enhanced EI skills, and in particular to the proactive pursuit of professional visions. One participant described changes in her professional attitudes and work conduct which had the potential to affect her career: *'I went to the principal with my plan. I was well prepared. I showed him the plan's benefits, that it would be good for him too. I had never done anything like that before'* (FE).

Two participants described recent promotions to management roles and two others noted that they had been nominated to newly created, EI-related positions (a school EI-coordinator and an excellence-and-motivation coordinator, respectively). One participant commented: *'Without this [training] process I wouldn't have made it... I wouldn't have reached the position I now hold... I needed to increase my [low] **self-regard** and to have the courage to promote myself...'* (USH). Another participant similarly noted: *'I realise that I had reached my current position as a direct result of the process I had undergone... examining my beliefs and exploring my personal goals'* (LI).

Several participants took upon themselves to teach classes they had never taught before, such as advanced-level classes, a higher grade, a new subject, or special education classes.

vi) *Employing EI as a pedagogical tool*: In one far-reaching consequence of the training, and one which has been alluded to earlier (see p. 178), all of the participants started to use EI competencies as a lens through which to look at the non-cognitive factors that informed their students' behaviours, actions, learning habits and achievements. Furthermore, they have all become aware of their students' EI competencies: *'Once we saw ourselves differently we were able to see our students differently, everything became clearer...'* (BP). The participants reported that this increased awareness of others enabled them to better address students' individual needs and to react more appropriately to a variety of students' behaviours and associated outcomes: *'When students don't write an exam, they may be affected by low self-regard, and therefore may be thinking that they cannot succeed, or perhaps they have low impulse control which had adversely affected their ability to study... The EI competency model is a good tool for teachers. It helps me see beyond the things they [students] say and do... [to understand] what stops them from advancing...and to act accordingly'* (GY).

Many participants used terms such as *professional, methodical, and structured* to describe the manner by which the competency framework had increased their effectiveness, and contrasted it with their earlier, more intuitive manner of handling social-emotional issues: *'EI provided us with a professional and structured framework for those things that we felt were true but had previously done intuitively, in a*

*haphazard, non-structured way' (WN). In a description which was shared by many participants, one homeroom teacher noted: 'I'm now able to react properly and effectively... [I am able] to help students in real-time situations rather than after the fact... As a teacher, you (sic) always deal with social-emotional issues which are related to EI skills, such as students' low **impulse control**, but [the training] helped me become more professional and more focused... [Consequently] my work now has much more impact' (SIH).*

Several participants described other training-motivated shifts in pedagogical practices: a move towards highlighting the relevance of the studied material, promoting thought and understanding, and employing a wide range of methodologies. As noted by one participant: *'I've completely changed the way I teach. I now look for the ideas behind the text...I try to understand [the material I teach] more thoroughly...I try to involve students in thinking' (VA).* Another participant drew attention to the difficulties inherent in such shifts: *'I understand why I hadn't always been successful as a teacher, and what I have to do to change this, but it isn't easy...'* (MS).

vii) *EI development in students:* More than a vehicle to better understand their students, the participants all adopted the view that EI competencies should be developed in students as well: *'Important, absolutely. I think it [for students to have well-developed EI competencies] is a must, the most important thing' (SIH).* Participants began to employ EI development as a means for equipping students with life skills: *'[We want to teach them] not only to react to situations' (SIH), '[We would like] to provide students with [EI] life skills' (GY).* A number of participants noted that proactive EI-development initiatives demonstrated a long term and broader view of

their role as teachers, as compared with their pre-training views: *'I no longer look at students in terms of the topics I want to teach them or the classroom behaviours I want to promote... [but rather] I try to imagine the kind of people I would like them to be'* (SIH). Elaborating further, another participant added: *'I'm trying to raise confident and open-minded students, ones who can ask for help and who readily help others...who are assertive but [at the same time] respect boundaries'* (TE).

Participants generally expressed the view that students can be taught EI informally, and at times inadvertently, from teachers who had undergone EI training: *'It [EI] is catching - you use it everywhere and it affects others'* (AL), *'It [the training] has a ripple effect – you go through a development process yourself and then you impact upon your students and upon others'* (SIH). This latter participant also noted that teachers who had undergone EI development training demonstrated an ability *'to use concepts in a relevant manner, at the right time and in the right way, and to utilise new situations [as a vehicle] for teaching coping-strategies and [other important] behaviours'* (SIH).

In line with the above insights, three quarters of the participants began to voluntarily use class activities and informal interactions to develop EI skills in their students: *'I wasn't doing it [developing EI in students] because I was expected to...I was motivated by my desire to be relevant to my students...by my views of their needs and of what my relationships with them should be like'* (MS). Many participants attached great importance to this opportunity to share their experiences and the meaningful knowledge they had recently acquired with their students, a process which some of them described as *'pay it forward'* (LI).

Some EI-teaching strategies referred to in this context were described relatively briefly. These included drawing students' attention to various classroom behaviours and highlighting the underlying competencies; suggesting strategies to enhance EI-related skills and to overcome difficulties; initiating relevant practice opportunities (e.g. encouraging a student to ask a specific teacher for an extension of a deadline for his/her homework assignment, as a means for enhancing **assertiveness**); and acting as effective emotionally-intelligent role models.

Other informal teaching strategies were elaborated on in greater detail:

- *Use of EI terminology in interactions with students*: Several participants described instances in which they had used this strategy: *'Every class I enter, it [EI] enters with me. The students feel it. They told me that now we [the teachers] all speak to them in the same language, that we all use terms like 'assertive' and 'proactive' (RI), 'I use EI in my one-on-one interactions with students. The way I talk to them...it's a demonstration of EI' (TE)*. Arguing for the power of language as a development tool, one homeroom teacher noted: *'I started using a different language. Instead of saying 'stop complaining' I now refer to 'the circle of complaint'. It makes a difference... Those aren't just words, they affect your (sic) daily life. Words are a process' (VA)*.

- *Use of daily events as teaching (and learning) opportunities*: One homeroom teacher noted: *'[I use] incidents that are part of the children's daily lives...ostracism for example, which is a common phenomenon at this age, [but also] quarrels, or negative remarks... I introduce EI to the children so they can learn from it' (MS)*. Her colleague made a reference to the development of specific skills: *'I work with them [the*

students] on ways to cope with stress, how to alleviate it, what to do before a test or how to handle other stressful situations...’ (MT).

- *Initiating EI-related class activities and discussions:* While still in training themselves, many participants started sharing with their students EI-related activities, exercises or stories, and often soon after they themselves had been exposed to them. One participant noted: *‘Right from the start, right after we, the teachers, had joined the [EI development] programme, I started introducing EI activities to the classroom. The students would come up with topics and we would all practice together, just like we had done in the workshops. For example, during the morning class hours, we would go over **emotional self-awareness** exercises. The children loved it because they were actively involved. It wasn’t a lecture’ (AL).* Another teacher described a different technique: *‘[At the beginning of each lesson] I would ask the students to describe something happy that had happened to them that week, or something they were proud of... something which was related to their strengths’ (MT).*

viii) *Enhancing students’ academic achievements:* The training motivated many participants to set higher expectations of their students and to help them take responsibility and ownership over their learning. Beyond changes in general classroom practice (see p. 205) participants provided students with strategies which would support independent work, such as teaching them how to better manage their time or how to set goals for themselves (a step which is at the heart of coaching methodology); initiated controlled practice opportunities; and drew up *‘learning accountability contracts’* between students and teachers. One teacher noted: *‘I now expect them [the students] to be accountable for the learning process. I expect them to*

know where they are at each stage, to motivate themselves, and to evaluate their own progress...to take responsibility over [their] lives' (OD).

4.2.3.3 Team domain:

While aimed at enhancing personal competencies and individual effectiveness, many participants found the training to have impacted upon them as a team: *'The staff room is different [now], the atmosphere is different' (GY), '[There is] a sense of partnership. We work as a team' (RY).* Participants frequently referred to such team-related changes as *'One of the main strengths of the [EI development] process' (RY)* and attributed them to their own development and to the processes they had undergone during the group workshops.

References to colleagues' EI were particularly common among management staff: *'We started to view teachers differently... to understand things differently... We started appreciating things that we had not paid attention to before' (LI).* Indeed, several participants felt that their positive attributes were more often acknowledged by their superiors and colleagues and that they were more likely to be included in various school initiatives: *'They [now] realise that I have much to contribute to the school' (OR).*

Team impacts comprised a range of team-related changes:

i) Closer relationships and new and improved communications between participants:

The sharing of emotions, thoughts, personal attributes, and pedagogic ideas, a process which was initiated during group workshops and had not been frequently discussed in the school beforehand, promoted greater understanding and brought the participants

closer to one another (including colleagues that had not been close to each other prior to the training). Participants were enabled ‘to *get to know the person behind the teacher*’ (TD), ‘to *understand them [colleagues] better and accept them*’ (AL), and hence ‘to *interact with them differently*’ (AL).

In turn, this newly formed closeness promoted improved and more meaningful communications, created a feeling of mutual emotional support, and facilitated the forming of new bonds between group members. Some participants observed that these changes had increased equality and reciprocity in relationships with colleagues, and ultimately had combined to improve these relationships. A large number of participants noted that these processes ‘*built us as a group*’ (RY). Referring to the entire process, from group workshops to team impact, one of the participants, a history teacher, noted: ‘*They [the trainers] had asked each one of us how we felt. Right at that time the security situation in the country was tense, and people were worried... We all shared our fears and our worries, and we supported each other... We really bonded*’ (VA).

Several participants contrasted these new, group-based, relationships with the fragmented groups and cliques that had existed prior to the training: ‘*It’s not that the atmosphere was not friendly before, but we each kept to our own group of friends... Nowadays you (sic) no longer hear things like ‘Well, he (sic) is part of this or that group’.* The atmosphere has changed’ (TD). A few participants specifically noted that they now felt more comfortable around their colleagues.

ii) *An atmosphere of openness*: Many participants stated that the activities and

processes which took place during group workshops had created an atmosphere of trust and openness among participants: *'People weren't afraid to talk about themselves or to expose weaknesses... People felt safe enough to share failures and to ask for help... [In the past] people used to be more guarded about their image and would only share successful experiences... Most of them didn't have the courage to admit that they were having difficulties. I personally had never done it [admitted to failures or difficulties] before and it was a great feeling...'* (TE).

iii) *Increased collaboration and cooperation*: Commensurate with the gains in openness, trust and mutual appreciation among group members, many participants noted an increased ability to cooperate and collaborate with other group members: *'[It's now easier] to work closely with colleagues, without worrying'* (FE), *'There is more collaboration. You are not alone anymore. People no longer keep their knowledge to themselves... [They no longer] try to outsmart the others or be more successful than their colleagues'* (VA), *'You feel that people are really together, that they want to help each other. [There's a feeling of] real partnership'* (BP).

iv) *The Creation of a new and shared EI language*: Group learning and group discussions contributed to the creation of a shared EI language. A management staff member commented: *'To a large extent, I see the success of this process in the creation of a common language. Common language is a good tool for change. We use the same terms, work with the same tools... That's why we feel the change as a group'* (RY). Another participant similarly noted: *'The first thing you hear [when you enter] the staff-room is the language. People speak in similar terms. Is it only the language that has changed? A change in language creates a change in essence'* (USH). Other

testimonies similarly indicated that this new EI language had a bonding effect, helped participant support each others' development, and provided the basis for creating a school change (see p. 213).

v) *The creation of a team culture-of-learning*: This impact was attributed by several participants to the group workshops. A few of them even described the team as becoming 'a learning organisation'. Learning behaviours which were referred to in this context included reading, exchanging reading materials, and learning from one another: *'The fact that we had learned how to learn from one another was wonderful. I could ask someone to tell me more [about a certain topic] and he (sic), in turn, would ask me to tell him [about other topics]'* (TE). Attesting to the perceived importance of this change, participants described an initiative to continue meeting, learning and working as a group (after the training had ended) in order to *'learn, share and collaborate'* (TD). The first of these meetings had already taken place at the time of the interviews. Participants in the meeting noted that *'It [learning together] contributes so much [to teachers] and we need to create more opportunities for it to happen'* (TD), *'the success of the whole training lies in our ability to continue to learn'* (BP).

Reflecting back, one participant noted: *'In the past, people [teachers] did not engage in learning. I think that nowadays we are more 'into' learning... There's a greater will to learn. It has become part of the school's agenda'* (VA).

It should be noted that some of the above-noted team-impacts were not perceived by all participants. One participant claimed that changes in the team might have been

smaller than those perceived by other participants. Similarly, an incidence of a disagreement with a colleague, described by two other participants, seemed to counter descriptions of increased cooperation. However, a majority of the participants shared a belief in the above-described changes and viewed them as highly important.

4.2.3.4 Whole school domain:

Changes in the school domain, referred to frequently by all participants, went beyond the above-described impacts to touch upon the school's curriculum, pedagogic goals, and culture of management.

Similar to the EI development process itself, school-wide changes were self-directed and had been initiated, designed and implemented by the participants as part of a facilitated, multi-step and voluntary process. However, these changes and underlying processes were unique in that most of them involved the participants as a team. In particular, in the course of the EI-development pilot programme (described earlier on p. 136) the participants had jointly reflected on various school practices; discussed ideas, needs and goals; formulated an action plan; and proceeded to implement it. Furthermore, although described by the participants themselves and from their point of view, school changes included elements which could be easily observed by non-participants, including by the researcher.

The description of school changes in the coming sections follows the order by which they were presented by the participants themselves. Participants' experiences during these change processes and their impressions of the changes are also described.

i) *Ideas, motivation and goals*: According to the participants' own testimonies, ideas for changes in the school domain were shaped by their newly acquired EI-related knowledge; their experiences during the training programme; their daily work in the classroom; and the emergence of EI-informed team relationships: *'It was us who had undergone the training, and now we were passing the knowledge on, in all kinds of ways, to the students, because we are actually one – teachers and students' (OR)*. In particular, a majority of participants highlighted the importance of personal EI development to this process: *'The first step was the creation of self-awareness...we didn't set out to change something in the school. We changed ourselves and this started the ball rolling and [eventually] impacted upon the whole school' (LI)*, *'Teach EI? You (sic) first have to be trained yourself, develop your own EI' (SE)*.

Motivational factors which were most often referred to by participants in this context included the following:

- *A conviction that students' EI should be developed*: *'The key role of the school is to enhance the students' personal skills. You (sic) might forget the things you had studied during your History class, but not those personal [EI] competencies which help you to learn, cope, and take action... Our role is to develop skills. [Once they have those skills] students can deal with challenges on their own' (OR)*;
- *A wish to improve and to formalise teacher-student relationships*: *'We have to provide each student with a meaningful adult figure that would accompany him (sic) and would help him in important junctions [in his life] and with all types of decisions...an adult that can be trusted, who can be turned to with every problem' (RY)*;
- *A more general drive to enhance students' academic achievements*: *'You can not*

instil high self-esteem in your students when reality [in the form of low grades] keeps slapping them in the face' (RI), 'It is our role to provide students with the ability to achieve good grades so they can later go to university and lead successful lives' (LI).

ii) *Designing school changes*: Beyond the informal interactions with students, as described on p. 205, whereby teachers demonstrated EI behaviours and encouraged ones in their students, participants pursued their school-wide goals via three main routes:

- Instituting weekly, one hour, *EI lessons*, designed and implemented individually and taught by all but one of the participating homeroom teachers in their respective classes;

- Introducing a so-called *Agenda of Excellence* into the school – Aimed at enhancing learning and academic achievements, this agenda was intended to help students to reach their full individual potential. It was hoped that enhancing students' EI and improving teacher-student rapport would enable students to take responsibility over their learning, thus contributing to the achievement of academic goals. Several participants had worried that this agenda would bring about a narrow focus on academic achievements and a change in the school's character, and therefore recommended that focus on maximising individual potential and the development of personal skills should be maintained throughout the agenda's application: *'I love it that we are a caring school and I don't want us to lose that' (SIH);*

- A school-wide initiative for school change, referred to here as *the pilot programme*. This last initiative appeared more extensive in terms of time, range and efforts, as compared with the other two, and was referred to more often by the participants. It is therefore described here in greater detail.

The pilot EI-development programme, a joint effort by all participants, was modelled after the participants' own training: '[The design of these new steps] was based on the process that we ourselves had undergone...each and every component of the process... We had experienced a [development] process and 'passed it on' to our students' (AL), 'During the workshops and the coaching sessions we came to know how it [the process] operates and we knew that it would have the same impact upon them [the students]' (BP). Acknowledging that the pilot had mirrored the (original) training programme's main elements; strategies; and general character, a number of participants further noted that the original training process had been modified to suit the students: 'We created something of our own' (FE), 'We took different elements [from the original training] and we put them together to create something that was more suitable for students' (GY).

iii) Implementation of the pilot programme: While implementation of informal changes, or of individual EI classes, was decided on and carried out by each participant individually, implementation of the pilot programme was a complex, joint process and was referred to at length by all participants. Furthermore, homeroom teachers who had incorporated EI teaching into their regular class work, had viewed such practice as an extension of the pilot programme and often referred to their EI teaching experiences when discussing the pilot.

The pilot programme comprised three classes with approximately 90 students, all in the same age group. It lasted eight month and included ten bi-weekly **one-on-one coaching sessions** and four 1-hour **EI lessons** weekly. Each of the participants was

assigned to coach 3-5 students, often not from their own homeroom class. Conversely, EI lessons were delivered to each of the 3 participating classes by their respective homeroom teachers. Attendance at both coaching sessions and EI lessons was compulsory.

The pilot was launched at a time when the training was still in progress and when personal coaching sessions and group workshops were still being held, thus allowing participants to consult with their trainers and for their trainers to support them during the first stages of implementation: *'Whichever question I had (regarding the coaching of students), I had someone to turn to' (EF)*. By the time the personal interviews with the participants were held, a second year of the pilot had already begun. The second year of the pilot further included elements which the participants had been introduced to during a coaching course which they had attended at the end of the second year of the training (see p. 218).

Participants noted that both the above-described coaching sessions and EI lessons had been designed by each of them, respectively, in an open and flexible process. This process integrated their own EI knowledge and training experiences, their class experiences, and their students' needs: *'Things that we ourselves had learned and experienced, from EI development and our coaching to anything else that was relevant to the programme' (SIH)*, *'If I hadn't gone through this [EI development] process myself, I wouldn't have been able to develop it [EI] in the students in the way that I did' (USH)*, *'I did everything to accommodate the needs of each of the students. [I adapted] my [EI training] tools to suit each of them personally and [I followed] their ideas and suggestions' (OD)*, *'There was this one girl... I ended up using one of the*

coaching sessions to help her get ready for a test. She was so stressed and that was what she needed at the time' (TD). The participants attributed this flexible approach to their confidence in the quality of their training and in their ability to successfully teach EI: 'If teachers can work without guidelines and supervision ...they must be 'in a good place' [in terms of abilities and motivation]...Such work requires self-efficacy, confidence in yourself and in what you do ...and a belief that you can make a change in students lives' (OD).

The role of the school management staff was also highlighted by some participants. In particular, participants noted that the staff participated actively in the training and supported the pilot programme. They noted different management efforts invested in the pilot programme: providing rooms for coaching sessions, rearranging the school schedule to accommodate EI lessons, providing the participants with a coaching-certificate course and inviting them to join this course on a voluntary basis, all of which, they noted, attested to the school's commitment to school-wide EI changes.

Finally, participants noted that in order to further improve their performance during the pilot they had researched relevant publications, reflected upon each session, shared experiences and collaborated.

Many participants noted that the above-described efforts were especially important as teachers became engaged in novel topics (emotions, emotional competencies, vision and goals) and novel teaching methods (e.g. interactive workshops and coaching). The students' limited familiarity with such topics and methods, the compulsory nature of the pilot, and the wide range of students' reactions, were all noted to pose additional

challenges: *'[We had] to trust them [the students] and let them feel that they are the experts when it comes to their lives and themselves...We had to let go of the urge to move forward, to avoid looking for specific outcomes, like we had used to do, so as not to influence their [the students'] answers' (SIH), 'Two of the students I coached enjoyed it [the coaching process] and benefited from it, but a third student refused to attend the sessions at first.... It was a real challenge' (TD), 'Not all of them [the students] were either interested or able to set personal goals for themselves, or to reflect about themselves' (OR).*

iv) *Participants' views of the pilot programme and their experiences during it:* The school-wide pilot programme was referred to by most participants with enthusiasm and at great length, demonstrating their engagement in school-level changes and their sense of ownership over them. Participants often referred to the pilot programme as *'our model'*, elaborated upon the time, thought and efforts that had been invested in its design and execution, and described personal experiences and meanings which they had associated with it. Even though at the time of the interviews the pilot programme had not yet significantly impacted upon the school, all the participants were convinced of its importance and a majority was confident of its future success. They took steps to sustain the existing programme and intended to further extend their efforts by involving more students and teachers in it; improving it; and enhancing their own EI skills. Accordingly, all of the participants volunteered to take part in the programme for a second year, both as personal coaches and as teachers of EI.

As in previously-described processes, individual teaching and coaching experiences during the pilot programme were widely variable. While some participants found

themselves to be well suited for their required roles, others found their tasks hard and struggled more. In describing their difficulties, participants referred to those that were noted earlier (see p. 218) as well as to additional challenges, such as working without a programme; engaging in new types of relationships; discussing personal issues with their students; balancing different goals during the coaching sessions (i.e. developing EI, helping students to create a vision, and forming meaningful teacher-student relationships); and balancing their commitment to students from their home classes with their commitment to the students they were coaching.

Despite these difficulties, a majority of participants viewed their experiences during the implementation of the pilot programme as overall positive.

They explained their view by referring to several factors:

- The pilot programme’s **contribution to others**, and in this case to the school and to the students. For example, one management staff member referred to the changes in the school as *‘a revolution, real revolution. It made a real change in the school’ (LI)*.

- The perceived **personal rewards**. –In particular, participants often described their participation in the pilot as *energising* and as a *meaningful experience* which had enhanced their levels of job satisfaction and sense of mission: *‘I’m now able to work with much more energy’ (MS)*, *‘I feel like I’m engaging in a meaningful process with my class’ (GY)*, *‘We were given a chance to deal with the most meaningful part of education’ (OR)*. Describing a student’s rewarding reaction to coaching, an administrative staff member noted: *‘One student, with whom I had worked on his learning goals... said to me [after he had succeeded in his courses]: ‘I came to thank you..., it was all because of you...You had said to me that it was up to me and [that it was] my own responsibility to make it [my academic success] happen, and I did*

it'...It really felt good' (TD).

– Finally, a large number of participants praised the pilot programme for further contributing to their own personal EI development. They explained that the programme had allowed them to work with students in new settings, enabled them to take a better look at themselves and at the ways by which they coped with various challenges, and provided opportunities to practice EI-related skills: *'It was like an internship' (RI), 'Teaching EI...I learned a lot about myself and was able to deal with many self-attributes which were new to me' (MS).* In a number of cases the pilot programme was credited with shifting personal paradigms: *'I had a real sense of revelation during the coaching sessions – I discovered a new world, the students' world... They [students] were more interesting and deep and opinionated and less superficial than I thought they would be... I discovered a variety of ethnic traditions, a variety of life stories' (MT).* Several participants (including the two who had not engaged in the reflective action stage, see p. 185) even referred to the pilot programme as the most significant agent of personal development: *'But what impacted me most was coaching others... the encounters with the students, [getting a glimpse into] their world, thinking about myself as I worked with them. Beyond its [the pilot's] impact upon the students, I was greatly affected by it, [it was] an amazing self-revelation' (LI).*

4.2.3.5 Impacts upon students: As noted by some participants, objective measures for gauging the impact of the training upon the students (such as changes in grades, in records of attendance or behaviours) were lacking at the time of the interviews. Therefore, most participants offered their personal impressions of such changes. Some preliminary independent data is presented at the end of this section, as are the

participants' views of these results and of the above-noted perceived impacts.

Of the entire group of participants, only half pointed to some preliminary changes in students while the rest claimed that it was too early (at the time of the interviews) to determine if such changes had already occurred. Those participants who noted changes in their students discussed the combined impact of their own EI development, changes in classroom practices and specific changes precipitated by the pilot programme.

Noted changes (each discussed by a small number of participants) included enhanced self-awareness in students, greater ability to express emotions, greater openness towards teachers, use of EI language, enhanced ability to deal effectively with emotional challenges, enhanced responsibility towards learning and towards school activities, increased use of proactive behaviours, improved class atmosphere, and improved communications among peer students and between students and teachers:

*'In terms of communication, there was a change, an improvement... The class EI lessons brought the class together. They [the students] are more friendly now towards each other, they do more things together... They show more team spirit than they did prior to the programme. No doubt about it, the atmosphere in the class is better now' (WN), 'They started using the tools we had introduced in class... They started telling each other things like 'be proactive', 'go out of the circle of complaint'... They don't complain as much as they used to. They think of ways to solve problems...' (SIH), 'The other day, one of the students misbehaved in class and some of the other students told her that it was her **'impulse control'**.... When a student got a bad grade they told him that 'it's because of your low **self-regard**' and 'you have to believe in yourself more' (GY).*

Many participants drew attention to the specific impacts of the coaching process upon the individual students they had worked with. While such impacts were often limited to single students, they were thought to have pedagogic consequences and were enthusiastically described: *'A student who used to throw chairs...I taught him to stop [before he loses control] and to look for an alternative reaction. This led to an improvement in his learning outcomes'* (WN).

While most of the noted changes in students were positive, a few participants also described cases of behaviours which they had found disappointing. These mixed impressions were consistent with the general perception that changes in students at the time of the interviews were still limited.

In two atypical interviews, participants discussed preliminary grades that had not yet been widely shared: *'Less failing grades.... Almost no one knows it yet.... I think it is a very meaningful finding, isn't it? It means that the training had a real [measurable] impact'* (MT). Additionally, a management staff member provided evidence from a then-recent school survey, itself a follow up on a survey conducted several years earlier at the school under study. In contrast with the earlier survey, the latter findings showed that school students of low socio-economic background no longer felt undervalued by their teachers. The participant believed that this change testified to a change in the teachers: *'I see our process as related to this change. Teachers who had undergone this [EI development] process perform differently. Their view of their students had changed'* (LI).

While changes in students as a result of the entire EI training were described as limited, participants did not express disappointment with this outcome and were not discouraged. They noted the limited scope of the EI training efforts in the school (applied only to one grade); their own lack of experience in designing and implementing EI training programmes; and the difficulty in training others while still being engaged in personal development. Similar to their statements when presented with their own EI profiles, the participants noted that EI development processes involve inherently deep changes and require long periods of learning and teaching: *'These processes require patience... It's too early [to see results yet]'* (VA). A majority of the participants expressed confidence that EI training programmes are bound to positively impact upon students: *'I'm optimistic. It's [EI training] right for the students and [therefore] it will bear fruit in the end'* (MT).

4.3 Summary

EI was perceived by the participants as a concept that is highly relevant to students, teachers and schools, and yet as one which has not yet been sufficiently addressed by the education system. In particular, participants found the Bar-On model to provide a useful framework for understanding themselves and others, for personal development, and for the employment of EI in a school setting.

Each participant was able to find EI competencies or aspects of their lives associated with EI which they wanted to improve, rendering EI training relevant to them all. Indeed, participants readily embraced the EI training programme under study. Motivation remained high throughout the programme and the training was described as personally meaningful and as important to the school.

The quantitative findings, as measured by pre-training and post-training EQ-i, revealed positive significant shifts in stress tolerance and assertiveness, but non-significant shifts, albeit mostly positive ones, in other EI competencies and in total EI. Conversely, a majority of the participants described a wide range of impacts upon their EI, upon personal EI-related behaviours and upon their personal and professional lives. Beyond individual effects, impacts upon the group of participants as a team and upon the school as a whole were also noted.

The participants likened their training process to a personal journey, which they each had embarked on at their own personal starting points and with their own needs and expectations, and which they each followed at their own pace and along their own path. All of these personal journeys were found to comprise four major and highly similar stages: Introduction to theoretical background, Exploration of personal EQ-i profiles, Introspection, and Reflective action, with each stage leading to, and facilitating, the next one.

In a parallel yet intertwining process, the participants adopted EI as a way to view students' achievements, behaviours and needs; acquired the ability to identify and develop EI competencies in others; and became motivated to actively develop EI in their students. Subsequently, all participants had begun to integrate EI into their pedagogic views and many of them proceeded to modify their practice accordingly. Furthermore, the training had a noticeable effect upon relationships with students and colleagues.

Finally, the voluntary implementation of EI-related ideas and of an EI-based pilot programme as part of the school curriculum constituted an additional and unexpected outcome, whereby the training programme became the model for school changes. While owing largely to the participants' own EI development, these changes and the engagement in school-wide EI development processes were credited by many participants with further stimulating their personal growth, thus bringing the EI development process full circle.

Chapter Five: Discussion

Results from the present study are discussed in light of the study's goals, research questions and research design. Congruence with previous theories and studies is also examined.

As noted earlier, the study was conducted in a secondary school in Israel, where a two-year EI training programme, designed and administered by an external team, was being implemented at the time. The researcher followed a group of 21 participants, all of them teaching-staff members, during the entire training process. Twenty of the participants were later interviewed by the researcher and a majority of the present findings were derived from a qualitative analysis of these personal interviews.

While adopting a mainly qualitative, interpretive approach with a case study methodology, quantitative findings from pre- and post-training EQ-i assessments for all twenty-one participants were also included in the study. In accordance with the Bar-On model and conceptualisation (Bar-On, 1997), EI was conceptualised as a set of individualised interdependent competencies which are related to teachers' effectiveness and which can be developed.

The study's overarching aim was to gain a deep understanding of the group-based, coaching-type, EI training programme aimed at teachers, and to help narrow the knowledge gap that exists in that field. In particular, allusions to the individual nature of EI competency development were to be examined. In line with these stated goals, three research questions were formulated:

1. What impacts, if any, did the EI training programme have upon the participants' EI competencies and related behaviours, upon their personal and professional effectiveness and upon the school as a whole?
2. Which elements of the EI training programme were perceived by the participants to have contributed most to its impact?
3. What experiences and personal processes had the participants undergone in the course of the training?

Discussion of the results has been guided by the three research questions that informed the study. In view of the adopted case-study methodology, implications arising from the findings may be limited to the context under study.

5.1 Impacts of the Training as Perceived by the Participants

As noted in the analysis of the study's qualitative findings (see Chapter 4), the EI training programme under study had involved all participants, as well as the school itself, in a long and intricate process of EI development, and was perceived to lead to large EI gains and to a wide range of positive EI shifts in many of the participants. In this the findings suggest that teachers' EI skills can be developed through training and lend further support to previous claims that EI competencies in adults are not fixed and can be actively developed (e.g. Goleman, 1995; Boyatzis, 2007).

However, contrary to previous studies which showed significant quantitative EI gains, including increases in group EQ-i scores, following EI training programmes in both commercial and higher education settings (e.g. Slaski and Cartwright, 2003; Boyatzis,

2007; Lennick, 2007), the present quantitative findings indicate that impacts upon the participants' EI were limited. The apparent discrepancy between the present quantitative and qualitative findings, as well as between present and previous quantitative reports, is discussed below.

5.1.1 Quantitative findings – Accounting for limited EI shifts

Comparisons between pre- and post-training EQ-i results are commonly used to measure the effectiveness of EI training programmes, and formed an integral part of the training under study. As noted in Chapter 4, significant positive pre-training and post-training shifts in mean EQ-i scores were measured only for Stress Tolerance and Assertiveness. Most other EQ-i scores did show a general post-training increase, but the results were not statistically significant.

The presently noted significant increases in stress tolerance and assertiveness are of importance in themselves, as both competencies have been noted to contribute to effective teaching (e.g. Bar-Lev, 2006). Furthermore, in view of the high levels of stress commonly associated with teaching, equipping teachers with stress-coping skills has been deemed highly desirable (e.g. Gibbs, 2003; Palomera et al., 2008).

However, the lack of significant quantitative group shifts in other EI competencies and in total EI, in contrast with previous studies, was somewhat surprising given the length and intensity of the training. Two statistical factors which could account for this apparent disagreement, namely the relatively small sample size and the participants' relatively high pre-training EI scores, were considered in Chapter 4 (p. 141). As quantitative pre-post training EQ-i shifts in teachers have not been widely reported to

the best of this author's knowledge, direct inferences with respect to the validity of the above-proposed statistical effects could not be made.

Beyond statistics, the smaller-than-expected shifts between pre- and post- training group EQ-i scores could be attributed to the individual nature of the training process as well as to several additional, often intertwined, mechanisms which are supported by the qualitative data and which are detailed below:

- *The highly individual nature of some EI development processes:* Highly individualised processes may not be easily captured through group-level changes (Cherniss and Adler, 2000). As the EI development process in the present study was noted to be highly individualised (see p. 147), it is possible that group level changes failed to reflect the effectiveness of the process. For example, participants' decisions to work on different competencies from each other might have diminished the likelihood of producing group changes in any one of the examined EI competencies. Furthermore, in some cases participants had associated very high EQ-i scores in specific competencies with less effective behaviours, and had worked on decreasing, rather than increasing, these scores (a phenomena which only recently has been addressed by Book (2009)).

- *The pace of EI development processes in teachers:* Teaching is a markedly social and emotional profession (e.g. Nias, 1996; Hargreaves, 1998; Sutton and Wheatley, 2003) that concerns the overall nurturing and development of others (e.g. Drew, 2006). Furthermore, teachers' professional ethos centres to a large degree on reflective practice (Schön, 1983), a relatively slow process. Thus, EI development in teachers

may require more time and effort than similar processes in other professions. Indeed, several EI training studies in educational settings (though different from the present study in their methodological and conceptual frameworks) found only partial or non-significant post-training EI shifts among training participants (e.g. Byron, 2001; Corcoran and Tormey, 2010). As all of the participants in the present study were involved in implementing EI development in their school parallel to their own EI development (see p. 206 and p. 215), it is even more likely that the duration of the study was insufficient for significant positive shifts in EQ-i to occur, a point that had been noted by some of the participants themselves in the course of their interviews.

- *The time-lag between pre- and post-training EQ-i assessments:* The presently-described two-year interval between pre- and post-training EQ-i assessments was longer than the intervals discussed in most studies in which significant pre-post EQ-i shifts had been found (e.g. Slaski and Cartwright, 2003). At times, this long interval was noted to result in shifted self-perceptions which could have changed the participants' interpretation of EQ-i items in their post-training assessment. For instance, several participants attributed negative shifts in their post-training EQ-i scores to the extended reflection process and to subsequent gains in self-awareness. In another example, most participants had changed their interpretation of 'care' (a skill of which empathy is part of) from 'doing things for students' at pre-training, to 'empowering individual students' at post-training. Indeed, Chapman (2005) attributed differences between (lower) self-reported post-training EI scores and (higher) post-training performance as perceived by others, to enhanced emotional self-awareness.

- *The EQ-i as a measure of internal changes:* The EQ-i tool had been designed to

measure emotionally and socially intelligent behaviours and the corresponding underlying competencies (Bar-On, 2007a). The present findings, however, reveal a process of EI competency development which came to manifest itself in behaviours only with the aid of time and practice. Thus changes that had not yet been manifested in large, or more permanent, behavioural changes were less likely to be captured by the EQ-i, an incongruence which was referred to by the participants themselves during the personal interviews. This observation is also in line with claims by Boyatzis et al. (2002), who suggested that people might sense changes in themselves before these changes are clearly manifested in behaviours, as well as with ones by Mayer (2007), who noted the slow process of translating changes in EI competencies to manifested behaviours.

-Additional changes which are less likely to be captured by the EQ-i: Such changes include shifts in pedagogic views and in the perceptions of others, changes in class practice, life and work transitions, or changes which go beyond the individual, such as changes that take place at the levels of teams or entire organisations (including schools). Such changes constitute an important part of the present findings

The above arguments support recent suggestions that quantitative measurements of EI may miss out on important areas of human quality (Lincoln, 2009). Similarly, the findings agree with previous recommendations that EI training programmes might be best evaluated by the examination of behavioural changes in addition to self-report measures (Boyatzis and Saatcioglu, 2008) or by incorporating measures such as participants' personal views, knowledge, behavioural changes and work outcomes alongside the EQ-i (Bharwaney, 2007).

It might be concluded that while useful as a measure of behavioural changes in a variety of non-pedagogic settings (Bharwaney, 2007), and while highly effective as a diagnostic tool in the present study (i.e. as a tool which had helped participants to identify weak or strong competencies and thus prompted introspection and the setting of development goals), the EQ-i may be less suitable as a sole measure for evaluating the various impacts of EI training programmes for teachers. These findings thus highlight the importance of the combined use of (quantitative) EQ-i assessments and (qualitative) personal interviews in the present study, and suggest that this use may be credited with providing a deeper understanding of the EI training and of the many processes associated with it.

Bradshaw's (2008) study of the relationships between EI and academic success in Afro-American female students further supports the above conclusions. In that study, qualitative findings indicated stronger links between students' EI and their academic success than those captured by the EQ-i, and revealed important additional elements which were linked with that success, such as family structure or community connectedness.

5.1.2 Qualitative findings

The use of personal interviews to explore the experiences and perceptions of the participants added depth to the quantitative data and revealed areas and meanings not captured by it. In particular, in contrast with the mostly non-significant increases in pre-post training EQ-i scores, qualitative analysis of the interviews revealed perceptions of powerful impacts which the participants had attributed to the training

programme. Thus, in agreement with Fer (2004: p. 564), the experiences and perspectives of the teachers who participated in the study were found to be ‘a crucial source in providing an adequate evaluation of an EQ program’.

In particular, the programme was suggested by many participants to be transformational, launching a process of reflection, introspection and personal development among all participants and bringing about shifts in their EI competencies, perceptions, self-awareness, pedagogic views and related behaviours. These shifts were in line with previous predictions for changes following EI training in non-educational settings (Boyatzis, 2006c; Neale et al., 2009). At least some of the shifts were described as sustainable (ones that ‘*can not be reversed*’ (USH)), and thus independent of school agendas or priorities. The participants’ focus on coaching as an important agent of change (see p. 161) agrees with Cherniss and Adler (2000) and Chapman (2005) who described EI coaching as a transformational experience, as well as with Broun (2007), who noted that coaching processes involve cognitive, emotional and behavioural changes.

A majority of the participants conveyed a strong belief that the training programme had improved their EI and EI-related behaviours, and noted that it had affected their view of their students and of their role as teachers. Furthermore, they felt that these effects had motivated further and more-profound impacts upon their practice, as well as upon their performance as a team and upon the school as a whole. Many participants used the term *fresh energies* to describe the effects of the training programme upon themselves and upon the school, and noted that the programme had enhanced their sense of meaningfulness as teachers.

All in all, the present findings support previous claims that ‘the appeal of any [school-based] intervention is not exclusively linked to its proven effectiveness in experimental contexts, but to user perceptions of its effects and applicability in a given context’ (Burden, 1996, in Kelly et al., 2004: p. 237). However, it is important to note again that the above-described effects, i.e. the shifts in competencies and behaviours, were highly individual. Furthermore, participants viewed these shifts as preliminary and as the first step in an on-going process of development.

5.1.2.1 Impacts upon individual teachers:

i) Enhanced self-awareness: The first change to be referred to by all participants and the one most widely discussed was the enhancement in their self-awareness. In line with the definition of emotional self-awareness (Bar-On, 1997), participants first discussed this change in terms of the ability to recognise and understand their emotions and the role of self-emotions in their work. Additionally, participants noted an increase in their awareness of their views and habits, values, paradigms and aspirations, and especially their EI competencies.

Participants attributed much importance to their enhanced self-awareness and to its impact upon their work as teachers. In particular, they believed that increased awareness of the links between their classroom behaviours and their social-emotional strengths and weaknesses enabled them to anticipate their own impact upon students (as well as upon others) and upon a variety of interpersonal and professional challenges. Consequently, participants felt more ready to take ownership over their teaching behaviours and over related outcomes. Awareness of self-habits and self-

paradigms allowed participants to modify those that they had found to be less useful or less effective.

The above insights are consistent with reports that linked self-awareness to effective teaching (e.g. Brackett and Katulak, 2006; Brackett et al., 2009; Jennings and Greenberg, 2009) as well as with ones that linked enhanced self-awareness with effective EI development (e.g. Cherniss et al., 2010). Additionally, noting the wide range of emotions experienced by teachers, self-awareness of the type described in the present study had been recognised as important to teachers' well-being (e.g. Brackett and Katulak, 2006). As noted earlier, Stein and Book (2000) claimed that emotional self-awareness is the foundation for most other EI skills and for change, and demonstrated links between teachers' self-awareness and their effectiveness (p. 50). These claims and findings further highlight the importance of the presently noted increase in self-awareness and suggest that it constitutes an important achievement of the training programme.

ii) Enhanced awareness of students: Most participants noted that in the course of the training programme they had become increasingly aware of their relationships with their students and of students in general. In particular, they noted that the training had made them increasingly aware of their students' emotions, social-emotional competencies and personal lives. They suggested that their ability to better understand students' behaviours, needs and related outcomes owed largely to the use of the EI competency framework and to their own enhanced self-awareness. A number of participants further testified that they had tended to be judgmental and critical of students prior to the training, but had become more accepting of youth culture and of

students' diversity as a result of their enhanced self-awareness.

The present findings support previously-noted suggestions that self-awareness is the basis for understanding students (e.g. Cohen, 1999; Brackett and Katulak, 2006) and for seeing them as individuals (Mayer and Cobb, 2000). Furthermore, as teachers' behaviours towards students and their views of them have been noted to impact upon students' self-image and to guide their accomplishments (Avidan et al., 2005 and Cohen and Sandy, 2007, respectively), the present findings are particularly important for students, teachers and schools. Additionally, the findings may be taken to support suggestions that self-awareness is fundamental for understanding others (e.g. Stein and Book, 2000; Goleman et al., 2002; Goetz et al., 2005; Goleman, 2006).

Noting claims by Brackett et al. (2009), the participants' increased ability to understand students had been expected to lead to heightened empathy and care and to better teacher-student relationships. Indeed, changes in the nature of relationships with students and in behaviours which appeared to be related to care and empathy comprised a prominent post-training shift, and were noted also among a majority of participants who had perceived themselves to be caring teachers prior to the training. Similarly, new efforts to genuinely listen to individual students, to conduct close and open dialogues with students and to equip them with life skills, were among the most-frequently cited shifts in the present study. Often, these changes helped teachers address prior concerns, such as not having meaningful enough relationships with students and not being equipped to deal with the social-emotional aspects of these relationships. Kyriacou (1998) attributed similar efforts and behaviours to heightened social awareness, while Stronge (2007) and Neale et al. (2009) noted them to

demonstrate care. The findings also support Brunker's (2007) claim that the concept of 'care' should not be simplified to mean warm relations but rather that it is a wide concept that includes the development of social-emotional skills as well as effective teaching.

Many authors linked teachers' ability to demonstrate interest, care and empathy to effective teaching (e.g. Nodding, 1992; Brackett et al., 2009; Jennings and Greenberg, 2009). Rubio (2009: p. 42) similarly noted that effective teachers 'know the students individually and give them individual attention', while many others more generally noted that positive teacher-student relationships comprise an important element of quality teaching (e.g. Hargreaves, 1999; Haskett, 2003; Bar-Lev, 2006). Thus, by contributing to enhanced care and empathy, the enhanced awareness of students noted in the present study might have led to improved teacher-student relationships, and, in turn, to more effective teaching. Due to the limited time frame in which the present study took place these outcomes could not be verified.

iii) Other enhanced personal skills: Apart from shifts in awareness, a majority of the participants described shifts in a variety of additional EI competencies and in various related behaviours. Such shifts often involved competencies that had been targeted for improvement and others closely related to them. This wide range of reported shifts was supported by the quantitative data (see Table 4.1) and served to highlight the individualised nature of teachers' EI profiles and the unique impact of these profiles upon each participant. Noting Sala's (2002) claims that changes in targeted (and often underdeveloped) competencies provide an important criterion for evaluating the effectiveness of EI training programmes, the above findings attest to the effectiveness

of the EI development programme under study. Positive changes in competencies which had not been directly targeted for development could be explained by what Elksnin and Elksnin (2003) called a 'spillover' to other competencies, as well as by the interrelations between competencies (Goleman, 2001).

The participants associated shifts in their EI competencies with changes in EI-related behaviours (e.g. increased impulse control had been associated with increased control over self-emotions and self-behaviours, enhanced assertiveness with an increased ability to openly express needs, expectations and ideas, higher flexibility with increased tolerance, etc.). Many of these noted changes had been previously found to promote productive learning environments and to contribute to effective teaching (e.g. Stein and Book, 2000).

Some EI and behavioural shifts were shared by a large number of participants. For example, a relatively large number of participants reported a sense of greater control over their lives and of enhanced proactivity. Another notable example involved the pilot EI training programme which had been initiated, designed and implemented by the participants during the second year of the study. In line with previous observations by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001), the initiation and execution of this pilot could be taken to reflect enhanced leadership skills, which in turn could be linked with enhanced EI (see. p. 52). Moreover, participants often alluded to specific EI skills which had been demonstrated (to varying degrees) in the course of that programme: the use of a wide range of pedagogic methods and the adaptation of such methods to the needs of individual students; their readiness to take risks; their willingness to actively adopt a new field of knowledge and new work techniques, and their

confidence in their ability to do so (*'I wasn't afraid to fail...When one thing wouldn't work, I would try a different approach'* (SIH)); their ability to recognise students emotions and needs during training; their enhanced ability to forge new types of relationships with students and with others; and their ability to maintain positive attitudes when faced with difficulties (*'It was a challenge [to find the right path] but it wasn't discouraging or disappointing'* (SIH)). All these could be taken to reflect enhanced flexibility and self-regard, but also an increase in empathy and interpersonal relations and higher levels of stress tolerance and optimism. Finally, a large number of participants reported enhanced self-actualisation, brought about by their engagement with meaningful aspects of education and from acting as agents for pedagogic change.

iv) Personal and professional transitions: As noted earlier, while low levels of professional fulfilment and their negative impacts upon work performance were referred to by several participants, the training programme provided participants new and engaging ways to look at their work (p. 175) and at their personal lives (p. 168). These motivated some participants to identify and pursue career goals, and inspired others to make improvements in the school and to help their students achieve better life outcomes, consistent with accounts of the caring nature of the profession (e.g. Harris, 2007). Indeed, beyond the impacts upon EI competencies and associated behaviours, over half of the participants referred to one or more professional and/or personal transitions (e.g. taking leadership roles, becoming engaged in volunteer work, etc.) which they had initiated and accomplished as a direct result of the training programme, or which they were still in the process of pursuing.

Participants who had modified their free-time pursuits in the course of the training

described a sense of fulfilment, more positive feelings and heightened energy levels, which often led to enhanced well-being at work. Similarly, participants who had undergone professional changes in the course of the training reported higher levels of job satisfaction. Both the participants and the school principal attributed the participants' ability to pursue personal and professional goals to their enhanced awareness of their aspirations (and current situation), as well as to the enhancement of other EI competencies (e.g. self-regard and assertiveness). Furthermore, the school principal noted that professional transitions had the potential to improve effectiveness in some teachers.

Ballou et al. (1999) found that professional transitions among participants in executive training programmes had often been motivated by a non-acknowledged lack of fulfilment prior to the training. The above-described career-related outcomes support their findings and confirm suggestions by Kaufhold and Johnson (2005) that EI training can help teachers accomplish various career goals. Additionally, the presently suggested links between self-actualisation, self-satisfaction and teaching effectiveness are congruent with Fullan (1993b), who argued that personal vision gives meaning to teachers' work; with Stein and Book (2000), who linked self-actualisation to effective teaching in elementary and secondary schoolteachers; and with Palomera et al. (2008), who noted positive links between EI and work satisfaction in teachers. Finally, the findings are in keeping with Bharwaney (2007), who noted that changes in the way individuals use their time are often the result of newly acquired EI competencies and thus reflect the effectiveness of EI training programmes.

It should be noted that the few participants who were unable to pursue their desired

career goals at the time of the interviews described mechanisms which they had employed to cope with their disappointment and ascribed such mechanisms to their enhanced coping skills. Thus, even such instances could be seen to reflect participants' enhanced EI following the training programme.

v) *An enhanced academic focus*: One of the less anticipated outcomes of the training programme under study was a general rise in academic expectations from students, as clearly exemplified by the Excellence Agenda (p. 215). This outcome, which represented a major shift in the participants' pedagogic views and in their view of their own role as teachers, was achieved to a large part by the shifting of the responsibility for learning from the participants over to the students while helping students set their own learning goals and enhance their personal EI skills. In that, the participants appeared to adopt earlier claims that had linked social-emotional skills with learning (e.g. Elias et al., 1997), to those that had highlighted the role of teachers as coaches or mentors for their students (Broun, 2007). In particular, Brown's (2003) proposition that higher levels of task-orientation and an increased ability to place higher demands on students are both associated with teachers' assertiveness, is congruent with the presently noted, significant positive post-training shift in assertiveness.

In line with Haynes' (2007: p. 95) argument that 'the need for schools to create a climate of high expectations for students ... is of considerable importance', the presently noted increased focus on academic achievements marked the fulfilment of one of the main traditional goals of the Israeli education system and of many schools worldwide, yet one which the school under study had tended to overlook.

5.1.2.2 Team impact:

Beyond individual changes, the training programme under study had a positive impact upon the group of participants as a team. This impact was facilitated by the above-described individual shifts, and was considered by many to be one of the more important outcomes of the training.

Participants' testimonies reflected enhanced awareness of individual diversity as well as enhanced understanding and acceptance of others. The testimonies further highlighted the mutual trust that had been established between group members and the resulting ability to express their feelings; share ideas, difficulties and needs; and discuss differences of opinion with their colleagues. These behaviours, taken to underpin the ability to collaborate and work effectively as a group (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997), have also been linked to effective teaching (e.g. Archer, 2004).

Cavins (2005) noted that high EI is linked to the ability to form strong connections among co-workers, while Fullan (2002: p. 7) argued that 'the single factor common to successful change is that relationships improve'. In the present study, the improvement in team relationships may thus testify to EI improvement in individual participants and to the success of the entire training programme.

Beyond references to personal development, participants pointed to the emotional and social topics that had been addressed during group workshops as contributing to the changes in group relationships. In particular, the creation of a shared EI language comprised an important expression of the group's enhanced cooperation and of the creation of shared views. This language, referred to by a large number of participants,

served to communicate newly gained EI-related ideas and to promote EI, and further strengthened the bond between participants. Initially limited to training sessions, it was then used by the participants in the staff room and when addressing students, and was later adopted by students, both for use in conversations among themselves and for communicating with teachers. The importance of this development is underscored by Shaviv-Schnieder (2006), who noted that shared group language is not only a means of communication but also serves to construct and sustain conceptual categories which are important to the group, and thus organises thoughts and meanings and promotes action.

The presently noted team impact could be further explored in light of the more recent concept of group EI. As proposed in Chapter 2, teams that enjoy high levels of group EI not only include individuals with enhanced personal EI but have established attitudinal and behavioural norms that foster trust, group identity and group efficacy, leading to better cooperation, more creative collaborations and improved team work (e.g. Druskat and Wolff, 2001). Furthermore, so-called highly emotionally-intelligent groups were seen to create informal networks in which members can express themselves freely and which support the meta-practice of discussion, vision creation, planning and problem-solving (Abraham, 2005), all phenomena which were noted in the present study. Thus, the presently noted shifts in team dynamics and team behaviours may be taken to reflect a positive shift in group EI.

5.1.2.3 Whole school impact:

i) EI development in students: One of the outcomes of the training programme most appreciated by the participants was the extension of the teachers' and school's goals to

include EI development in students by means of informal and formal efforts. Indeed, in answer to the interviewer's opening question: 'Tell me about the training', half of the participants responded by first discussing educationally-related EI developments. The significance of this outcome is further highlighted by recent studies that noted the importance of developing students' social-emotional skills (e.g. Haynes, 2007; McCown et al., 2007) and by suggestions with regards to the role of teachers in this development (e.g. Fopiano and Haynes, 2001; Sutton and Wheatley, 2003).

Other than demonstrating a change in the participants' view of the needs of students, this outcome reflected a shift in their view of their own role as teachers, from providing care and knowledge towards proactively equipping students with social-emotional skills for present and future needs. Similarly, the participants' self-initiated attempts to adapt their work environment to their new goals had likely been motivated by a belief in their ability to succeed in such efforts and reflected a heightened sense of agency. The findings thus support recent claims that emotional intelligence can modify teachers' beliefs about teaching (Anderson, 2004; Koçoğlu, 2011) and that teachers' identity influences their sense of purpose, motivation and commitment (Day et al., 2007).

ii) Informal EI development in students: A majority of the participants had introduced EI to their students informally, through daily interactions both in and out of the classroom. In particular, participants highlighted the importance of behavioural changes which had increased their ability to act as effective role models for students and experiences which enabled them to teach EI in natural and authentic ways. Specific informal methods which were used by participants to promote EI in students

resembled ones which had been previously cited by a variety of scholars (e.g. Low and Nelson, 2005; Tal, 2005; Brackett and Katulak, 2006; Rosenthal et al., 2008). As noted earlier (see p. 78), indirect teaching, through modelling and informal interactions, has been referred to as the most effective way to develop students' social-emotional skills (e.g. Cohen, 2001; Matthews et al., 2004; McCown et al, 2007). Despite the limited data, it appears that in the present study these efforts had indeed shown first signs of positively impacting upon students.

iii) Formal school changes: Formal school changes centered around a pilot programme which combined regular EI lessons with personal coaching sessions and which incorporated the above-noted informal efforts, as well as shared and personal experiences and insights, into a school-based initiative (see p. 216).

Many schools have recognised that formal development of social-emotional skills in students is a priority (e.g. Elias et al., 1997; Greenberg et al., 2003; Bar-On, 2006; McCown et al., 2007). In seeking to incorporate social-emotional learning into their school in a formal, professional and methodical way, the participants were responding to these emergent ideas and policies as well as to general pedagogic concerns of the type described by Goleman (1995).

The changes brought about by the pilot programme were enabled and supported by the previously described impacts of the training programme. For example, impacts in the individual and team domains, such as improved communication skills and the development of a shared EI language, appeared instrumental to the pilot's implementation and to school domain changes. These results are consistent with

claims by Cohen and Sandy (2007) that effective communication among team members is essential for team implementation of EI programmes, and with Fullan (1993b), who had argued that personal strength goes hand in hand with effective collaboration. Furthermore, the present findings suggest that the above claims hold also for self-initiated EI development programmes.

Implementation of the EI pilot programme involved notable organisational changes in the school under study. Huy (1999: p. 331) noted that organisational learning and subsequent changes take place when successful individual learning is transferred to an organisational system of shared beliefs which is based on ‘the subtle interconnections of know-how and know-why that various members have developed among themselves’. Furthermore, he suggested that such changes mirror the behaviours of emotionally intelligent individuals and hinge to a large extent on their commitment to cooperative change efforts. It therefore appears that the above-noted organisational changes signified a movement towards becoming an emotionally intelligent organisation. Furthermore, the very act of incorporating EI into organisational changes following EI training programmes constitutes, according to Lennick (2007), a testament to the power of the concept and an indicator of these programmes’ success.

At the time the study was concluded, clear evidence of the impact of EI implementation efforts in the school under study was not yet available. Student-related outcomes, which were only beginning to appear (see p. 222), were perceived by participants to be promising but limited. However, rather than becoming discouraged by the lack of ‘instant’ results, the participants took a long-term view of the EI development process, referring to it as a ‘*life long journey*’ (SIH) and arguing that time

and patience were needed for results from such processes to be seen. In this, the participants echoed Nelson (2006), who had noted that EI development is a journey-like process rather than an end-goal. Other participants' comments were in line with Mayer (2007), who had similarly argued that individuals should not expect changes right away but rather look for small changes over time. Finally, in keeping with Brackett et al. (2012), the participants expected student-related outcomes to become more prominent as students continued to participate in on-going EI lessons and even more so once EI development efforts were extended to include all grades and all teachers in the school.

Beyond the above-noted preliminary outcomes, the direct and indirect efforts to develop EI in students, to sustain this development and to improve on it (see p. 219), demonstrated the participants' high motivation, their commitment to EI and to its implementation, and their sense of ownership over EI implementation efforts. In particular, the participants efforts to refrain from using ready-made training programmes were at one with Salovey's (2007: p. 296) vision for EI development in students: 'I would like to see teachers continue to consider ways of enhancing their students' emotional and social intelligence without necessarily having to rely on a program and little else'.

5.2 High-Impact Elements of the Training as Perceived by the Participants

Asked about the manner by which the training programme had achieved its impact, the participants cited a variety of elements and their corresponding effects. While not an element of the training in the strict sense, participants most often referred to motivation as the factor most responsible for the programme's impact. In the following

discussion, motivation is considered alongside various elements of the programme which had contributed to it. Similarly, other elements cited by the participants in this context are discussed also vis-à-vis their contribution to motivation.

It should be noted that the order in which elements of the training programme are discussed reflects their relative importance to the participants, as determined through the detailed qualitative analysis of personal interviews, rather than the frequency by which they had been referred to.

5.2.1 Motivation

Participants' motivation to engage in the training programme was manifested early in the programme and was found to remain high throughout. Outward expressions of motivation included the participants' full attendance at all training sessions (at the expense of other off-school activities and without the promise of remuneration or any other formal recognition); their voluntary efforts to implement EI in the school; and the large amount of time and work which they invested in these efforts. Additionally, more personal expressions included the participants' deep engagement in personal development processes, despite the often challenging and emotional nature of such processes; and their commitment to sustain and enhance their own EI subsequent to the programme.

While noted to be essential to the success of all professional development programmes, self-motivation has been recognised as especially important to EI development (e.g. Boyatzis, 2007), as the latter calls for changes in deep-rooted behaviours, attitudes and habits that are often central to the trainees' identities (e.g.

Cherniss et al., 1998). Indeed, the participants themselves drew attention to this requirement: *'What matters most is how much you (sic) care and how much you want to change yourself... It is personal work that only you can do and only you can decide to do' (LI)*. EI training programmes, even ones that are joined voluntarily, typically strive to achieve high motivation levels (Cherniss et al., 1998; Byron, 2001; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001). This is particularly true for school settings, as schools are often considered change-resistant, and teachers have often been noted reluctant to take part in SEL programmes (Matthews et al., 2004; Brackett et al., 2009) or to get involved in other forms of change (e.g. Fullan and Stiegelbauer, 1991; Maskit, 2010). Thus, the high levels of motivation and engagement reported in the present study represented a major accomplishment. These levels could be attributed to a number of elements:

- *The characteristics of the specific group of participants:* A large number of the participants held key roles in the school. Having been invited to participate in the training programme by the school management might have further contributed to the participants' sense of pride (as articulated by some of them) and in turn might have enhanced their motivation. However, the study group was not uniform enough in composition to support a clear characterisation. Furthermore, initial evidence from a second group of 26 teachers from the same school, all of whom had volunteered to participate in a similar training programme, and with only few in mid-management roles, indicated similar levels of motivation and commitment. This latter data became available only after the completion of the study and is referred to in the Epilogue.

- *Pre-training congruence between EI and the participants' educational beliefs:* Many participants noted that EI was in line with their pre-training educational beliefs: *'It*

[the EI training programme] addressed a topic which is most important and relevant to education' (USH). This congruence could have owed, in part, to the ethos of caring in the school under study, and was a likely contributor to the participants' motivation. However, congruence between training goals and former objectives or educational beliefs has often been noted to be a source of motivation to all teachers (e.g. Diedrich, 1996; van Veen and Lasky, 2005; van Veen et al., 2005; Maskit, 2010). In particular, teachers have been noted to be aware of the importance of the social-emotional dimensions of education (e.g. Greenberg et al., 2003; Claxton, 2005; Cohen and Sandy, 2007; Rivers and Brackett, 2011) and to often challenge demands to forego their students' social-emotional needs in favour of higher academic performance (Cefai and Cooper, 2009). Similarly, in a survey of Israeli teachers, a majority of the respondents noted that Israeli schools should dedicate more time to social aspects of education (Smith and Pniel, 2003). Thus, despite the dearth of studies on this topic, congruence of EI with educational beliefs may not be limited to the specific group under study.

- *More general aspects of the concept of EI:* Such aspects, and in particular EI's documented contribution to teachers' personal and professional effectiveness (e.g. Haskett, 2003) and to students' academic and life success (e.g. Elias et al., 1997), have been noted to lead to high engagement in EI programmes among teachers (Byron, 2001; Walker, 2001; Fer, 2004) and could also have contributed to the participants' motivation in the present study.

- Finally, as in other EI training programmes which had been previously studied (e.g. Cherniss et al. 1998; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001), motivation to stay engaged in the

training programme under study owed to a large part to the programme's *design*. This conclusion is congruent with Richardson (1998), who challenged the view that teachers are change resistant and noted that attitudes towards change depend on the way it is directed. Similarly, Brackett et al. (2009) noted the importance of careful design of school EI-training programmes for their effectiveness. Indeed, many of the positively viewed design elements in the present study matched guidelines for effective EI trainings (e.g. Cherniss et al., 1998), as well as recent lists of characteristics of effective professional development programmes for teachers (e.g. Fullan, 1993b; Avdor, 2009; Darling-Hammond et al., 2009). Furthermore, while not always directly referring to their motivation levels, most participants attributed a variety of positive outcomes to the programme's design: *'The training was successful... because of the way it was designed and conducted' (SHU)*.

5.2.2 Focus on teachers' own EI development

An important element of the programme under study, and one which was often referred to by many participants, was its focus on teachers and on teachers' individual development. Indeed, the programme had not been initiated in order to solve a specific pedagogic or school problem. Instead, it had been motivated by a general belief that EI has the potential to contribute to the school and that EI development in schools should begin with teachers. Accordingly, the participants were not expected to improve specific EI competencies, nor to increase their EI by any pre-set levels, and were not asked to change their practice in any specific way (by implementing an SEL programme or otherwise). Finally, participants' progress during the training was not monitored and the school did not employ measures such as grades or attendance records to gauge the development process.

The participants' testimonies suggest that this element of the programme had led them to focus on competencies they each felt they needed to develop most; enabled them to take ownership over their own development processes; and promoted work each at his/her own pace, while following their own path. These findings agree with Ballou et al. (1999) who noted that the absence of external measures to monitor progress had encouraged executives in a university EI-training course to take responsibility over their own training process.

The investment in the participants' personal and professional well-being and success (as described by one participant: *'The focus was on me, on my own personal concerns and needs' (FE)*) was highly valued by them, and further motivated them to engage in the programme. In this the findings echo Cherniss et al. (1998) and White (2006) who noted that motivation to become engaged in development is higher when perceived as promising personal, rather than only organisational, gains. Furthermore, it appears that this personal focus made the participants feel appreciated, or, to use an expression from Day et al. (2007: p. 1), that 'teachers [as individuals] matter', a feeling that, as noted in the introduction, Israeli teachers do not always get to experience.

In an additional important outcome, participants credited the increased focus on their individual competencies and skills with an increase in their effectiveness as teachers (see Chapter 4, p. 199). In this the findings support Mayer (2007) who noted the importance of addressing personal skills, needs, emotions, and behaviours to the effectiveness of EI development. More specifically, the findings agree with Richardson (1998) who stressed that effective CPD should not encourage all teachers

to change in the same way.

5.2.2.1 Focus on EI development in teachers as a basis for EI development in students:

Many participants noted that the focus on their own EI development had enhanced their motivation to develop students' EI. In that context they recounted efforts to share their experiences with students (*'pay it forward' (LI)*), to develop students' EI through informal interactions, and to formalise EI development processes in the school. Furthermore, many participants suggested that these efforts were important to their role as teachers and contributed to their ability to demonstrate EI-related behaviours and to *walk the walk* (an expression used in a similar context by Cohen (1999) and by Cohen and Sandy (2007)). These, in turn, were perceived by participants to have enhanced their ability to teach EI authentically and to empathise with students' emotions and experiences throughout the teaching process (*'I knew how he felt. I remembered how difficult it had been for me, when I was being coached' (FE)*).

In particular, participants noted that they had modelled their EI pilot programme after their own EI training programme. Indeed, detailed analysis of the personal interviews revealed that reflection, a prominent stage in the original programme, had been used to identify the unique needs of students and the school and to guide EI implementation efforts. Similarly, flexibility in design and in implementation; focus on individuals; and self-direction, were all part of all stages of the pilot, and the participants' readiness to take risks and to become vulnerable during their own training was mirrored in their willingness to take risks in their implementation efforts.

These present findings bolster suggestions that teachers who develop their own EI skills are better able to apply EI-based principles to everyday situations in the classroom (Elias et al., 1997; Weare and Gray, 2003; Cohen and Sandy, 2007; Brackett et al., 2009; Jennings and Greenberg, 2009), and further support and extend arguments that teachers tend to use the knowledge and strategies they acquire as a basis for teaching others (Carter, 2008; Timperly, 2008). More specifically, the findings echo studies which found that teachers had employed either EI or coaching strategies which they themselves had encountered during their own training for work with their students (Fer, 2004 and Broun, 2007, respectively).

While focus on personal development of teachers, and more specifically on the development of their social-emotional skills, has been recommended by a growing number of scholars (e.g. Haskett, 2003, 2004; Boyd, 2005; Drew, 2006; Palomera et al., 2008), many professional development programmes for teachers still centre on students and still focus on knowledge and pedagogy (e.g. Guskey, 2003). Lately there have been some claims that SEL programmes, which are increasingly employed in various schools around the world and which do not focus on teachers, have been greeted with scepticism, or even failed, because teachers were not given the opportunity to become engaged in their own development (Weare and Gray, 2003 and Cohen and Sandy, 2007, respectively). Furthermore, Anderson (2004) and Hustler et al. (2003) noted that many training programmes consistently fail to recognise differences among teachers and to address their personal needs, and instead provide all of them with the exact same training.

The present findings indicate that the ‘focus on teachers’ element contributed to many

of the outcomes of the training programme under study, including the participants' favorable view of the EI training; their high motivation to engage in the training and to pass on their EI knowledge; and their proactive initiatives to further EI learning in their school. Speaking for a majority of her colleagues, one participant commented: *'The first step towards a meaningful change in schools is...an internal and personal change process in all teachers' (OR).*

5.2.3 The Bar-On model as a theoretical framework

As noted earlier, EI conceptualisations can be broadly divided into ability and competency approaches (Chapter 2, p. 28). The Bar-On competency framework (Bar-On, 1997), chosen to guide the training programme under study, proved suitable for developing EI in teachers within a school setting, and was often cited as important to its effectiveness. Many participants noted that the theoretical aspects of Bar-On's model had touched upon competencies which were highly related to their daily experiences and had provided them with a sound, useful, comprehensive and practical framework, one which they used for self-work but also for working with students and for developing students' EI skills. The participants further drew attention to the wide range of skills and the variety of life and work settings addressed by the framework, and to the corresponding wide range of individual variations and choices which it encompasses.

Several authors have noted the importance of the choice of suitable theoretical frameworks and related measures to the design of EI training programmes (e.g. Orme and Cannon, 2000b). For example, Brackett and Katulak (2006) and Brackett et al. (2009) recommended use of an ability framework to guide EI development

programmes in teachers, highlighted the framework's all-round robustness, and noted that it allows trainers to assess the degree by which EI specifically contributes to teaching behaviours. Of the few EI training programmes for teachers which had been described prior to the present study, most did not rely on the Bar-On model (e.g. Byron, 2001; Walker, 2001; Corcoran and Tormey, 2010). However, the present findings are congruent with Bharwaney (2007), who recommended the use of the Bar-On competency framework for EI coaching (albeit in commercial settings), and support Mayer and Salovey's (1997) argument that an EI competency framework may be especially suitable for schools, where behaviours and practical outcomes are a chief concern.

5.2.4 A holistic approach

While some EI training programmes focus on the development of emotional knowledge or emotional skills (e.g. Byron, 2001; Walker, 2001), the current programme adopted a 'whole-person approach' to EI development (a term used by Boyatzis, 2009: p. 362). Ciarrochi and Mayer (2007: p. 145) described such an approach as aimed towards 'a more general coaching effect – one that extends beyond EI proper'. Indeed participants in the present study engaged in exploring various sets of core issues related to identity, meaning, relationships and self-expression. Participants further explored competencies and behaviours, values, perceptions, habits and aspirations in a variety of settings. The resulting, wide-range development process, consistent with the one recommended by Neale et al. (2009) and by Boyatzis and Saatcioglu (2008), created high engagement, allowed for a wide range of interpersonal and intra-personal insights, including in participants with a priori perceived high self-awareness, and supported EI-related changes.

Similarly, and in line with the view that EI growth transcends professional boundaries (Mortiboys, 2005), the programme supported exploration of both personal and professional themes, and thus allowed for different sources of motivation, such as the desire to achieve personal growth, to increase effectiveness at work and to develop EI in others. These, in turn, provided a variety of ways for EI to ‘permeate’ the school. Furthermore, the use of a holistic approach turned the concept of EI into a ‘life view’, as often demonstrated by the participants’ statements (e.g. *‘Even newspapers, I now read them differently, I see in them things that I haven’t seen before... I now often bring newspaper articles with me to class, I highlight events that have to do with EI’ (BP)*).

A similarly broad view of EI has been noted in a number of studies. Orme and Goleman (2002) noted EI to be associated with issues of meaning, relationships, identity and self-expression, all of which concern many in the Western world. Wheeler (1999, in Boyatzis, 2007) found that work on multiple life aspects had enhanced the effectiveness of EI training programmes among MBA students. More specifically, and in line with present findings, both Cohen and Sandy (2007) and Day et al. (2007) demonstrated the close links between teachers’ personal and professional lives, and argued that events and experiences in the personal domain are intimately linked to teachers’ work performance and to the use of EI in the classroom.

Similarly, in a study by Fer (2004), teachers found EI to be relevant both to their professional and off work activities. Finally, Cohen and Sandy (2007) reported that teachers who had been asked to teach SEL to students had felt that they needed to apply EI methods and skills to their personal lives before they could use them

effectively in their classrooms.

In answer to Salovey (2007), who called upon scholars to examine whether development of EI competencies is setting-specific, the present findings suggest that outcomes from holistic EI development processes may apply to multiple settings. However, despite the often-noted holistic view of EI, such holistic approaches are not common either to teachers' EI training programmes or to CPD programmes for teachers (e.g. Walker, 2001 and Boyle et al., 2005, respectively).

5.2.5 Group-based coaching design

A majority of participants attributed many of the impacts of the training to the combination of one-on-one coaching sessions and group workshops. Both elements were central to the programme and were equally valued by participants. However, as they are not always used in tandem (as was the case in the present study), each is first described separately, followed by a discussion of their combined use.

5.2.5.1 Personal coaching: A majority of participants were encouraged and challenged by their personal coaches and viewed coaching sessions as essential for their EI development. The one-on-one coaching setting, which is not typical to school training programmes (Griffiths, 2005; Broun, 2007), was perceived to have provided participants with guidance and on-going support while involving them in a self-directed development process and leading to several favourable outcomes. In particular, coaching was credited with supporting self-discovery; promoting accountability for the personal development process; identifying skills in need of

development and internal barriers to success which had to be overcome; and helping to enhance EI skills. Among other effects, participants became engaged in pursuing personally meaningful development goals, were able to develop at their own personal pace, and employed their own coaching sessions as models for coaching students.

As noted in Chapter 2 (p. 98), personal EI coaching is considered an effective method for enhancing EI in individuals (e.g. Bharwaney, 2007; Neale et al., 2009) and is increasingly being used by organisations (e.g. Blanchard and Homan, 2004; White, 2006). Furthermore, efforts to integrate coaching into school-based EI training programmes were recently dubbed highly progressive (Brackett et al., 2009). In view of the inherent difficulty in identifying and changing self-behaviours (Argyris, 2000) and the hard work involved in such changes (Cherniss et al., 1998), a supportive setting, such as the one offered by personal coaching, was noted to be critical to EI development (e.g. Fopiano and Haynes, 2001; Matthews et al., 2004; Low and Nelson, 2005). Indeed, and in line with Lasky (2005), teachers in the present study were more likely to risk vulnerability during the change process when they felt safe and believed that these changes would lead to personal or professional gains. Similarly, present findings with respect to the role of coaches in teachers' EI development agree with suggestions by Brackett et al. (2009) and by others outside the field of education (e.g. Creane, 2002). Finally, Broun's (2007) claims that coaching increases teachers' accountability and self-efficacy, and Boyatzis's (2007) findings that personal coaching supports and promotes self-directed efforts, were supported and extended.

Several studies have recommended the use of peer coaching or peer mentoring in schools (e.g. McKinsey report, 2007; Bullough, 2009). While it cannot be speculated

as to the effects of peer coaching on a training programme similar to the one under study, some participants pointed to advantages associated with the use of independent, out-of-school, coaches. The coaches were often described as highly professional, impartial, objective and trustworthy, and were noted to offer knowledge and fresh perspectives, as well as companionship. In view of the complex and multi-dimensional nature of EI development processes (Cherniss et al., 1998; Weare and Gray, 2003), the preset testimonies appear to suggest that teacher-focused EI coaching may best be conducted by professional and highly-experienced experts. Moreover, these testimonies add to the limited body of knowledge regarding coach-trainee relationships (Creane, 2002), and in particular as part of EI coaching (Chapman, 2005).

5.2.5.2 Group workshops: Group workshops were the setting in which the impact of the training was extended beyond the individual (both personal and professional) domains to the team and the organisational (school) domains. These broader impacts were accomplished in two ways, through the fostering of new group norms and group dynamics, which in turn led to collaborations and improved inter-team relationships; and through group discussions of pedagogic ideas which led to shared views and to the design and implementation of organisational changes. The participants themselves noted that group workshops had provided them with learning opportunities and support which were important for their own individual development as well as for changes in the team and in the school as a whole.

These findings are in line with studies which noted the contribution of group members' interactions to the development of emotionally intelligent group norms in

organisations (e.g. Druskat and Wolff, 2001). Furthermore, the findings support earlier claims regarding the contribution of group work to learning and to personal development processes in teachers (e.g. Richardson, 1998; Anderson, 2004; Hargreaves, 2005; Hodkinson and Hodkinson, 2005), and extend them to EI training processes. The findings further appear in line with Ballou et al.'s (1999) arguments that groups allow their members to change and provide them with confidence in their ability to succeed in such change efforts, as well as with Huy (1999), who noted that group work allows group-members to routinise and formalise personal learning and thus promotes organisational learning and change.

The importance of the present findings is further highlighted when considering Richardson (1998), who warned that failure to address group processes in teaching-staff development programmes might lead to incoherence in pedagogical views and hence may negatively impact upon students. Indeed, teachers were noted to criticise CPD efforts for the limited group-learning opportunities which they provide (Day et al., 2007).

5.2.5.3 Combining personal coaching and group workshops: The combined use of one-on-one coaching sessions and group workshops was acknowledged by all participants as important to the success of their training. Beyond offering an efficient and relatively cost effective method for developing EI (a benefit previously noted by Caruso and Wolfe, (2001)), group-based EI coaching was said to provide a highly useful framework for EI development in a school setting.

In the present study, EI coaching and group workshops appeared to mirror two types of efforts which are common to schools worldwide, respectively: the often-noted

individual efforts in classrooms, where personal effectiveness largely affects students' success (e.g. McKinsey report, 2007); and the many collaborative efforts which teachers engage in as they strive to reach shared pedagogic goals (Fullan, 1993b). Indeed, the participants themselves noted that the two training elements had served both distinct and overlapping purposes, found them to be complementary, and even suggested that they had worked in synergy with each other. Even though personal coaching was typically described as the main arena for personal development and while group workshops were typically referred to as the main site for acquiring knowledge, improving inter-relations among team members and shaping pedagogic ideas, participants often noted that personal development had its roots at the workshops, and that exploration of pedagogic ideas was supported by the personal coaching sessions. While some participants noted the privacy of the coaching sessions and the insights offered by coaches as essential to their progress, others assigned much importance to the ability to share experiences with the group. By combining the two elements, the programme's flexibility appeared to increase, allowing for personal differences between participants as well as for a wide range of learning styles. The participants themselves employed both personal coaching and group workshops as part of their sustainability efforts (e.g. combining internally facilitated team meetings with one-on-one peer work) and in the EI-training pilot programme (by engaging the students in coaching sessions and group workshops). Furthermore, most participants recommended for both elements to be included in future training programmes (see Epilogue).

The present findings extend an emerging body of recent literature in which the incorporation of individual development sessions and group work (McKee et al.,

2009), and more specifically the use of group coaching for training employees, has been advocated (e.g. Chapman, 2005; Bharwaney, 2007). In particular, the findings are congruent with a recent study which has recommended the use of group coaching for teachers (Brackett et al., 2009, see p. 103). At the time of writing, the impact of the Brackett et al. (2009) programme upon students' and teachers' experiences during it had not yet been reported.

It should be noted that the order in which group workshops and coaching sessions were employed in the course of the training was identical for all participants. While this order was approved of by all participants, the impact of changing it any manner cannot be speculated upon.

5.2.6 School-based design

While group coaching programmes can take place outside organisations (e.g. Ballou et al., 1999), the school-based design used in the present study (i.e. running the training in the school and as part of school activities) was instrumental in promoting the team and organisational outcomes of the training. This in agreement with Fullan (2002: p. 11), who noted that 'learning in the setting where you work, or learning in context, is the learning with the greatest payoff because it is more specific (literally applied to the situation) and because it is social (thereby developing shared and collective knowledge and commitments)'. Similarly, a school-based design has often been noted to enhance the effectiveness of other types of teacher training programmes (e.g. Richardson and Placier, 2001; Guskey, 2003; Darling-Hammond et al., 2009).

5.2.7 A flexible and evolving process

Many participants drew attention to the flexible and dynamic nature of the training programme and highlighted the corresponding benefits. In particular, participants noted that the programme had been tailored to their individual ‘starting points’ as well as to the pre-training conditions in the school in which it took place. They lauded the freedom to follow directions most suitable for them, to deal with new-found challenges, to integrate new insights into their personal and professional development process, and thus to take part in designing and guiding this process. While examining the participants’ testimonies it has become apparent that flexibility was opted for in all stages of the programme and with respect to all domains upon which it touched. For example, no time limits, nor specific goals, were declared at the outset of the programme. Another instance in which flexibility was demonstrated was the aforementioned late addition of two training segments (a coaching course and several group workshops) subsequent to the formally-planned segments, in order to support the emergent pilot-programme initiative (see p. 218).

While Orme and Cannon (2001b), Robins (2002) and Bharwaney (2007) all recommended the incorporation of pre-set organisational goals into EI development programmes in non-school organisational settings, Richardson (1998), Baskin (2010) and Maskit (2010) claimed that programmes which involve teachers in setting the goals and in designing school efforts result in increased motivation and may lead to outcomes that better suit school needs. Indeed, while the effects of a more structured approach cannot be speculated upon, motivation to take ownership over personal and school processes in the present study appeared to owe to a large part to the programme’s flexibility, to the participants’ active involvement in these processes, and

in particular to the fact that participants' progress had not been monitored or measured.

Participants did note instances in which the programme strained to adapt to emerging needs. For example, some participants regretted the lack of SEL-related reading materials (SEL not being a direct goal of the training programme). Others criticised certain aspects of the later-added coaching course, and in particular the overlap in subject matter between this course and earlier workshops. Several participants questioned the course's timing, at the end of a year of intensive training and coaching, and suggested that it would have been more effective had it been conducted at a different date. However, overall the added course was noted to have given the participants more confidence to coach students and was viewed by the majority of them as providing them with an additional opportunity for further introspection.

5.2.8 Voluntary participation

Voluntary participation in EI training programmes has been often suggested to contribute to participants' motivation levels (e.g. Cherniss et al., 1998). In particular, teachers have been typically noted to get engaged in voluntary changes even though they may resist external mandate (Richardson, 1998). Anderson (2004) further claimed that teachers' voluntary participation in school changes has the potential to stimulate additional change initiatives. In keeping with such reports, many participants viewed voluntary participation in the programme under study as important to its success, and several even wondered whether the high motivation and engagement levels which had been demonstrated in the course of the training programme could have been achieved had it been compulsory. The positive outcomes of the present programme and the fact

that schools that strive to be emotionally intelligent may wish to involve all teachers in EI training, invest this question with added importance. Indeed, while a second cohort of teachers was eager to voluntarily join a second EI training programme in the school under study, participants in the present training programme were not sure whether others (a third cohort) would follow. Despite the relevance and importance of such questions, examination of the effectiveness of voluntary versus compulsory participation in EI training programmes remains beyond the scope of the present study.

5.2.9 A long-term process

Rather than perceiving it to be a burden, the relatively long, two-year duration of the training programme was valued by all participants: *'Schools usually don't have time or patience. They are in a hurry. Therefore changes [in schools] are usually external and superficial' (OR)*. They credited this extended timeframe, atypical of many teachers' training programmes, with allowing them to engage in deep introspection and with enabling them to develop each at their own pace, thus affecting a *'real change' (GY)*. Participants further observed that this relatively lengthy time interval had enabled them to come together as a group, to explore ways to bring EI to their classes, and to design and implement school changes. Indeed, in one of the few suggestions for design changes and in an additional testimony of their approval of long-term training processes, many participants wished to extend the training beyond its two-year term, in order to further personal growth and support implementation efforts.

Although it cannot be determined if similar outcomes could have been achieved through a somewhat shorter training period, the limited duration of typical professional development programmes for teachers had often been criticised (e.g.

Boyle et al., 2005; Brackett et al., 2009). Conversely, long-term programmes have been noted as characteristic of effective professional development training programmes for teachers (e.g. Dasho et al. 2001; Darling-Hammond et al., 2009), of effective EI training programmes (Cherniss and Goleman, 2001; Cherniss et al., 2010), and more significantly in the present context, of teacher-focused EI development programmes (e.g. Byron, 2001; Weare and Gray, 2003).

It should be noted that despite the lengthy duration of the programme under study, efforts to engage non-participant teachers in EI during its course had hardly been noted, leading, according to some participants, to several negative effects. Chief among them were the relatively limited impact of the training upon the students and the school; EI incompatibilities among teachers (mainly between those who had participated in the training and those who had not); and feelings of exclusion among some non-participant teachers. Neither efforts to involve parents and the community in the EI development process, nor the effects of this exclusion, were referred to by any of the participants.

5.2.10 Management role

When asked to comment on the design of the training programme under study, a number of participants referred to the commitment of the school management to the programme and implicitly tied this element with the programmes' success. While not widely discussed, participants noted the financial, administrative and professional support offered by the school and its management staff to the training team and to the participants throughout the training programme (see p. 218). In particular, support for various initiatives, including the pursuit of career transitions in search of more

fulfilling roles, was noted as important to the participants' development process. These findings are congruent with previous claims that management support is crucial to the success of EI training programmes in general (e.g. Orme and Cannon, 2000a; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001) and of school EI training programmes in particular (Areglado, 2001; Brackett et al., 2009).

Beyond the above-noted formal support, management staff members were noted to participate in all stages of the training as equal partners. They openly discussed personal weaknesses, shared personal experiences with other participants during group workshops, attended personal coaching sessions, and took an active part in coaching students and in teaching EI. This level of involvement may explain the limited references both by management staff participants themselves and by other participants to their role as leaders. The study thus indicates a unique role of management in EI development programmes as a model for openness and for risk-taking.

To the best of this author's knowledge, similar involvement of management staff in other EI development processes has not yet been reported. It therefore cannot be speculated whether designers of future EI development efforts in other schools could count on the same levels of personal engagement and openness from management staff members, nor what effect different attitudes of management staff members would have on the success of such efforts.

5.3 Individual Processes and Experiences Undergone by Participants in the Course of the Training

One of the goals of the present study was to address the individual, and therefore

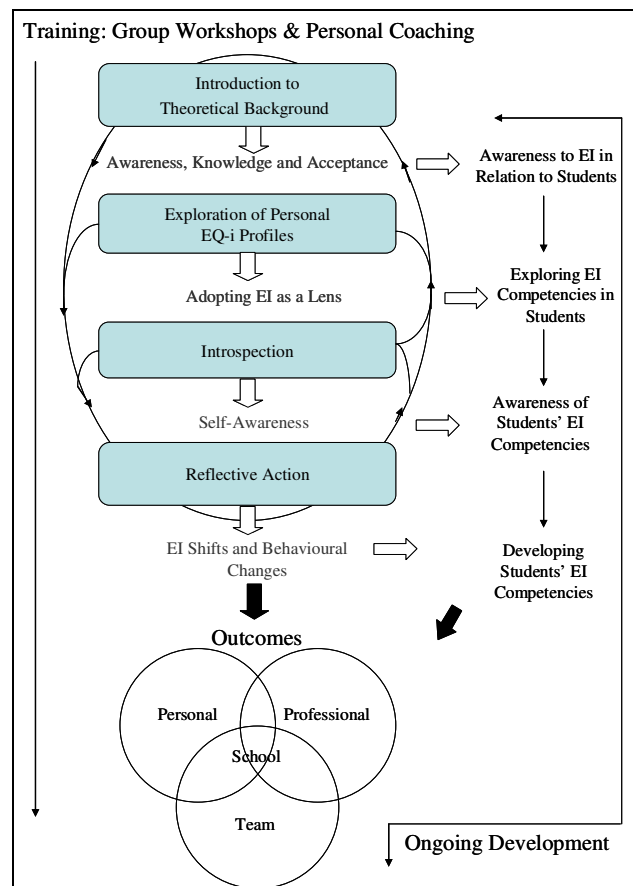
highly complex, aspects of EI training processes in general, and of EI coaching in particular. This was considered especially important in light of previous observations, such as those by Boyatzis (2006c), who noted that the majority of EI training literature describes EI development from an organisational perspective and rarely addresses the personal processes involved. This is doubly true for EI development studies in the field of education.

As noted earlier (p. 147), the present findings pointed to an EI development process akin to a journey and comprised of four stages: Introduction to theoretical background, Exploration of personal profiles, Introspection, and Reflective action (see also Figure 4.1, p. 149). Each stage had played an important part in the participants' individual development, had contributed to their practice, and had motivated them to advance to the next stage. In contrast with the apparent simplicity of the above-described model, individual EI development processes were found to be highly complex and dynamic (see p. 149). Stages often overlapped, the domains in which participants engaged varied and intertwined, and variations in pace, learning styles, and themes which were focused upon, were common. In this the findings agree with Fullan (1993a), who noted change processes in teachers to be complex and journey-like. Moreover, the findings are consistent with Boyatzis (2007, 2009), who noted personal EI development journeys to comprise several stages, quite similar to the ones noted in the present study (albeit divided or categorised somewhat differently), and who similarly described EI development as a complex process (Boyatzis, 2006c).

In light of this complexity, a modified model (Figure 5.1) was adopted, and was used in the following discussion. In order to further simplify the discussion, some

experiences which were noted to be common to most participants are first discussed (5.3.1), followed by elements which were noted to contribute to the divergent and personal nature of participants' individual journeys (5.3.2 and 5.3.3).

Figure 5.1: Revised training model



5.3.1 Prominent experiences shared by a majority of the participants

Many of the participants' shared experiences revolved around the four stages of the EI development process. These are discussed in the first entry below. Other experiences associated with the non-linear features of the process are discussed in the following

sub-sections.

5.3.1.1 The four stages of the training process:

i) Introduction to theoretical background: Many participants noted that this stage had established trust in the concept of EI and in the EQ-i measure (thus providing a solid foundation for the following stages of the EI development process, see p. 154). The knowledge which the participants had acquired during this stage was credited with enabling them to recognise the links between EI attributes and education, and with bolstering their confidence and their ability to teach EI and to implement EI development processes in the school. While knowledge in itself cannot support EI development (e.g. Boyatzis et al., 2002), the present findings highlight the importance of an introductory, knowledge-based stage to personal EI development (as inferred also by Neale et al. (2009)), and to the subsequent permeation of the concept into the school environment. Several of the present testimonies echoed Morris and Casey (2006) who had highlighted the contribution of such an introductory stage to dialogue among teachers. Indeed, while not typically part of individual coaching processes (e.g. Griffiths, 2005; Boyatzis, 2007), such a stage has been incorporated into SEL training programmes for teachers (e.g. Brackett et al., 2009). Thus this stage appears to be of particular relevance to EI training in a school context.

ii) Exploration of personal profiles:

1. Pre-training profiles – The pre-training EQ-i assessments and corresponding personal profiles helped participants to identify EI-related strengths and weaknesses as well as gaps between the two, and provided them with insights into EI-related behaviours and into their own work performance. In this respect, the findings echo

previous studies in commercial settings, which highlighted the importance of incorporating an EI measure as part of an EI development programme (e.g. Cherniss et al., 1998; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001; Bharwaney, 2007; Lennick, 2007). However, beyond the presently noted contribution of an EI measure to teachers' self-awareness (as noted also by Kaufhold and Johnson (2005)), the present findings demonstrate the importance of the EQ-i measure in motivating teachers to become engaged in EI development processes and in guiding such processes. Similarly, the findings suggest that the EQ-i measure can be instrumental in enhancing teachers' awareness of students' EI skills.

The participants' unreserved willingness to embrace their pre-training profiles (see p. 156) could be attributed, in part, to the first, introductory stage of the training. Indeed, both Cherniss et al. (1998) and Bharwaney (2007) had noted the importance of the perceived credibility of an EI measure to its acceptance. Additionally, this acceptance might have also been motivated by the specific relevance of some EI competencies to teachers (a relevance which had been suggested by Drew (2006)), as well as by the general agreement between individual competency scores and intuitive self-perceptions: '*[The competency scores] accurately reflect who you (sic) are, how you think, what you see*' (VA). Cherniss et al. (1998) noted that trainees were more likely to embrace results which had been introduced with care and sensitivity. While not explicitly stated, the participants did implicitly suggest that care and sensitivity had been exercised as they were being presented with their personal profiles, and thus had likely contributed to the profiles' acceptance.

The participants' high interest in their areas of 'weakness', despite the challenges

inherent to such areas, might be attributed to their then-new appreciation of the value of EI competencies, but also, more generally, to the often-noted interest of teachers in self-improvement (Archer, 2004). The findings are thus in line with Ciarrochi and Mayer (2007) who noted that individuals are often motivated to pursue personal development by a wish to strengthen and improve self-skills which they perceive to hold them back.

2. Post-training profiles –As noted in Chapter 4 (p. 192), a majority of participants had intuited the general trends in their post-training EI shifts even before they were presented with their post-training EQ-i assessments. Therefore, these formal assessments mainly served to validate perceived changes. Furthermore, the participants' commitment to future EI development efforts was not affected by their EQ-i results. The above-described findings render the contribution of the post-training EQ-i results to the specific group of participants questionable (especially when considering cost-effectiveness). Furthermore, the findings differ from previous studies in which post-training EI assessments were claimed to offer a clear view of trainees' development and to highlight areas in need of further improvement (Bharwaney, 2007). However, it is possible that in line with Cherniss and Caplan (2000) the expectation of a follow-up assessment had increased accountability and motivation among participants in the present study.

Surprisingly, participants whose self-evaluations were not in line with post-training EQ-i results reiterated that they had undergone a major personal change and had enhanced their EI. While continuing to express their full faith in the measure and refraining from challenging the EQ-i validity, such participants did make efforts to

explain or rationalise the gap between their own expectations and post-training EQ-i scores (Chapter 4, p. 194). For example, some participants attributed this gap to the latent nature of the development process they had undergone, a notion which was supported by additional findings and by the gradual development process unveiled in this study. These efforts might have represented an attempt to reduce cognitive dissonance (i.e. to bridge between conflicting sources of 'evidence' in order to create coherence), a process which has been first noted by Festinger (1957). Additionally, factors which had motivated the participants to accept their pre-training profiles, such as the early-established high credibility of the EQ-i measure and the congruence between pre-training EQ-i profiles and self-assessments, or perhaps a more general reverence towards established measures, might have been at work.

iii) Introspection: This stage was perceived by the participants to have promoted self-awareness and thus to facilitate identification and discovery of personal behaviours, attitudes and habits crucial to their effectiveness and to their personal and professional well-being. Furthermore, during this stage participants became aware of the impact of various EI competencies upon others. This process of discovery was doubly important as many of the competencies which had been identified for development in the present study do not commonly present themselves overtly in teachers, or else are limited to the classroom, and thus often remain unobserved by others (a difficulty which had been previously noted by Haskett (2003), albeit not in the context of EI development). Indeed, before becoming engaged in introspection, the participants themselves had often been unaware of some of these under-developed competencies, their behavioural manifestation or impacts.

The present outcomes concur with Weisinger (1998), who argued that reflective exercises are the backbone of EI development, and with Huy (1999), who stated that changes in beliefs and values often start with the exposure and challenging of deep rooted assumptions. More specifically, the findings agree with Richardson (1998), who noted the importance of on-going reflection to effective teacher-training programmes. Present testimonies about behavioural patterns, choices and conflicts which had impeded the participants in their search for higher work effectiveness chimed with ones by Ciarrochi and Mayer (2007).

The importance of this stage is further highlighted when considering Harris' (2007: p. 69) claims that teachers are rarely provided with opportunities for self-exploration and often do not find out how their 'way of being' impacts upon their work. Other authors similarly noted the lack of opportunities for teachers to self-reflect (Cohen, 1999) and to explore their work effectiveness in terms of their own emotional competencies (e.g. Cohen and Sandy, 2007; McCown et al., 2007).

Unlike most elements of the introspection, the vision exploration element did not engage all participants fully, or to the same extent. These findings are at odds with Boyatzis (2007; 2009), who noted that exploring 'who I want to be' could provide a starting point for introspection processes. It should be noted that Boyatzis (2007: p. 162) was referring to an exploration of what he termed 'the ideal self', as expressed also in terms of EI competencies, in addition to more general personal visions, and was discussing mainly higher-education settings.

The discrepancy between Boyatzis's findings and the present ones may be accounted

for both by the practical and immediate relevance of competency development (i.e. the 'who am I' element) to teachers' work, and by the way this element had been presented to the participants in the current training programme, both rendering it more engaging than vision exploration to some. Finally, and in common with many teachers (e.g. Leaton Gray, 2005), it is possible that some participants felt constrained by the perception of teaching as a calling rather than a profession or career and therefore tended to focus on self-improvement and educational goals rather than on personal career advancement.

iv) Reflective action: This stage, which relied to a large extent on one-on-one coaching sessions, involved the participants in a number of intertwined processes. In particular, participants engaged in developing the EI competencies of their choice; practicing them in different contexts; reflecting on their efforts with their coaches; and planning future practice.

The participants' engagement in the above-noted activities may be taken to demonstrate the often-noted importance of this stage of development in the present study, and of development and practice processes in general (e.g. Cherniss et al., 1998), but is at odds with earlier findings by Boyatzis (2007), who had identified similar descriptions as characteristic of other stages of EI development.

Participants spoke relatively little of their experiences during this stage, with a few resorting to claims such as *'it is hard to tell how exactly the change [in EI] has occurred'* (OR). This reticence might have owed to the participants' eagerness to focus on end-results (namely self-changes and school changes) rather than on the underlying

processes which had precipitated them, or to the fact that EI development processes are complex and defy clear description. In their limited references to this stage, several participants described the choices of elements for development, some details of their work with their coaches, some skill-practice sessions, and some other personal experiences.

One noted case of a participant who chose to avoid this stage due to a sense of pre-training burnout (see p. 185) was consistent with Huy's (1999) more general comment that change processes require significant emotional energy. However, as the impact of high burnout levels on teachers' willingness to engage in active EI development has not yet been studied, this single case cannot be further expounded upon. Conversely, cases similar to that of a second participant who was reluctant to deal with emotions and emotional changes had been noted in earlier studies (e.g. Cherniss et al., 1998). Byron (2001) noted similar attitudes among some teachers-college students, and ascribed them to their perceptions of emotions as interfering with thought, or to their private and restrained personalities.

Finally, during the reflective action stage all participants had become engaged in developing EI in students in parallel to their own EI development. While not part of the initial training-programme design, this added activity provided participants with an additional setting in which to practice skills, and with an added theme for self-reflection. Thus, this student-targeted activity contributed to the participants' own development process (see p. 221). These findings lend support to McKee et al. (2009), who viewed engagement in training-related action an integral part of effective training, and corroborate the old adage: 'Nothing teaches you something like having to teach it

yourself” (Jennings and Palmer, 2007: p. 61).

5.3.1.2 A punctuated process: Analysis of the participants’ testimonies indicated that none of them had experienced the EI development process as a smoothly incremental process, neither in terms of time or effort. Participants were each introduced to their personal profiles in the course of a single (private) session, rather than in a gradual process, and many of them referred to this encounter as a *major discovery*. Similarly, most participants noted a series of punctuated, distinct insights, discoveries and changes that took place during the training process in no particular order. In using phrases such as *I realised*, *I discovered*, or *I understood* to describe their personal development processes, the participants were echoing Boyatzis (2007, 2009), who had used the terms ‘discoveries’ or ‘revelations’ to describe personal development processes which he referred to as non-linear, non-incremental and complex.

5.3.1.3 Overlapping stages: While each of the above-described development stages laid the foundation for the next one, the four stages often overlapped. In particular, engagement in a new stage often started while processes related to a preceding stage were still on-going. At times, this overlap was inherent to the training programme’s design, as in the theoretical learning stage, where participants had been presented with their individual EI profiles and then proceeded to explore the profiles in parallel to their theoretical studies (see page 155). Later on, the profiles continued to play a role in the introspection stage, while both profiles and introspection were an integral part of the reflective action stage. Other times, overlap between stages was a direct result of the participants own decisions, as in self-exploration, an on-going process which had begun in the second stage (as part of the early workshops) and continued throughout

the training, even during the EI implementation efforts. Finally, group workshops throughout the first year and (less frequently) the second year combined theoretical learning, personal exploration and development activities. This latter overlap in processes was due at times to facilitators' initiatives but was also driven by the participants' choices.

5.3.1.4 A spiral process of development: Several examples attesting to the spiral nature of the EI development process, as experienced by the participants, had been noted. In particular, engagement in reflective action (the fourth stage of the training process) was often noted to lead 'back' to deeper and more extensive learning processes, profile exploration and/or to further introspection (i.e. to the first and third stages). Furthermore, at the time of the interviews, several participants began to re-examine their profiles and chose to develop additional competencies or to further develop competencies that they had already once engaged in developing. Such cases of re-engagement in development had often been triggered by encounters with students, colleagues and others, as well as by the implementation of the school EI development pilot programme (see Chapter 4, p. 221). These, in turn, led to deeper understanding and to the setting of new goals, thus creating a spiral process of EI development.

5.3.1.5 Two intertwined paths – personal EI development and pedagogical growth: As detailed earlier (p. 150), throughout the training process participants were noted to follow a path of pedagogical growth alongside and intertwined with their own personal EI development path. This dual engagement came about in several ways: the study of EI theory was accompanied by an exploration of its relevance to education and to students; explorations of personal profiles were followed by attempts to identify EI

competencies in students (as well as in colleagues); introspection stimulated reflection on students and on the school; and engagement in personal development activities was accompanied by EI development efforts in students (e.g. p. 213). These findings are congruent with previous descriptions of teachers as highly involved in their work (Nias, 1996) and as committed to their students' overall growth (Lasky, 2005).

5.3.2 An individual journey

The individualised and personal nature of the training programme under study was considered among its most important elements. Indeed, while participants were introduced to the programme in an identical manner and while the majority of them followed its four stages in a relatively similar order, variation was inherent to the process, as participants had joined it each at their own starting point. Furthermore, this divergence in paths increased as participants followed their own individual goals at their own pace and in their own style of learning. Similarly, participants' experiences along these journeys were found to be highly individual.

Variations between participants were often associated with different degrees of engagement in various stages of the EI development process. Several examples for such variations were noted in Chapter 4 (e.g. p. 185). In another example, a participant who initially had avoided school EI implementation efforts later reflected on this avoidance, gained additional personal insights and joined these efforts at a later stage. Similarly, three participants who had not found their pre-training EQ-i profiles very useful (and thus had not fully engaged in the second stage of the training process) discovered their EI-related strengths and weaknesses during the introspection stage.

Participants also varied in their level of engagement in particular domains. For example, homeroom teachers, and in particular the three teachers who had been teaching four EI lessons weekly as part of the pilot programme (see Chapter 4, p. 216), were more engaged in the professional and school domains than others. This rendered their pedagogic experiences somewhat different to those of other participants.

Personal variations in the balance between the personal and professional domains were also common. While a majority of the participants engaged in goals that pertained to the professional domain, engagement in competencies pertaining to off-school activities appeared less sweeping. Nevertheless, four participants did prefer to invest more time in personal development than in professional development, a choice which could have owed to personal concerns that preoccupied all four. Furthermore, the fact that three of the four had been less actively involved in teaching might have affected their choices along their development path.

The above-noted wide range of development paths was likely enabled by the flexible nature of the training programme under study, its focus on personal choices, and the avoidance of specific progress-gauging measures. It should be noted that despite their variability, all individual development paths led to broadly positive outcomes. Thus, by the end of the training, each of the participants improved their self-awareness and awareness of others, and embraced EI as a pedagogical tool and as part of their pedagogical view. Most participants also improved specific EI competencies and related behaviours.

5.3.3 Emotional experiences

The emotions of teachers during times of education reform have been discussed in several recent studies (Hargreaves, 2005; Lasky, 2005; Reio, 2005; van Veen et al, 2005). In particular, teachers' emotional responses to professional development efforts have been recently examined (Scott and Sutton, 2009). However, to the best of this writer's knowledge, teachers' emotions in the course of EI development efforts and in response to such efforts have not previously been reported. In the present study, participants' testimonies suggested a wide range of highly individual emotions in a wide range of intensities, which had accompanied all stages of the EI training programme.

Positive emotions, referred to by all participants, were evoked by a variety of the programme's elements: the acquisition of self-knowledge and knowledge, and in particular knowledge which was expected to improve the work and lives of the participants and their students; successful development efforts; identification of areas of fulfilment; attainment of goals; interactions with colleagues and coaches; and engagement in EI implementation efforts. Additionally, participants experienced positive emotions upon witnessing the positive impact of the above elements upon students. Finally, implementation efforts indirectly evoked positive emotions in the participants by promoting changes in teacher-student relationships and by turning teachers into more meaningful figures for students.

Strong unsettling emotions, referred to by about half of the participants, appeared to have stemmed from a newly gained awareness of self-weaknesses and of related consequences, as well as from the ensuing self-doubts. Indeed, links between teachers'

emotions and their sense of identity had been previously noted (e.g. Kelchtermans, 2005; Lasky, 2005; Van Veen et al., 2005). In particular, both Lincoln (2009) and Neale et al. (2009) had noted that newly-gained awareness of EI weaknesses may adversely affect participants' self-esteem, and may thus lead to negative feelings. However, in the present study such emotional reactions were mostly temporary, as participants were typically eager to embrace their weaknesses and to overcome them, and were assisted in doing so by the programme's trainers. The only exception was the participant who had described herself as experiencing professional burnout (see p. 185), and who appeared to have ended the training with mixed feelings. Thus the present findings are in line with Lasky (2005), who suggested that people may willingly risk emotional pain if it has the potential to lead to some future (personal or other) benefits. More specifically, the findings agree with Bullough (2005), who found that teachers had responded to training-induced sense of vulnerability by working harder, rather than by getting discouraged or by harbouring self-doubts.

It is important to note that in line with Goleman (1995) and with Fullan (2001), who had noted the emotional difficulties inherent to EI implementation and to other school implementation efforts, respectively, references to the challenging nature of EI development and implementation efforts in students were common in the present study. However, the participants tended not to attach negative feelings to these challenges.

All in all, the present findings appear to agree with Huy (1999), who noted the strong emotions elicited by learning processes which are change-inducing and which involve exposing and challenging deep rooted assumptions, as well as with Howard (2006),

who noted that changes which take place during EI training programmes are typically accompanied by positive and negative emotions. Howard (2006) further suggested that such emotions may stimulate trainees' interest in development, focus their attention, alert them of the need to change and motivate them to act, and thus may play an important role in change processes. It is thus possible that some of the positive outcomes in the present study owe to the emotions which the programme had elicited among the participants.

Finally, the intensity of the participants' reported emotions during the development process often appeared proportional to their perceived depth of engagement in introspection, but not to the pre-post shifts in their EI scores. However, the small size of the research sample precludes further consideration of this topic.

Chapter Six: Conclusions

In this final chapter, the study's goals, methodology and findings are first summarily reviewed. Contribution to knowledge, research conclusions, reflections on certain research limitations, and practical implications of the findings are then discussed. Finally, suggestions for future studies which could bolster the present findings and extend them are presented.

The present study was conducted as part of ongoing efforts to enhance effectiveness and well-being in teachers, and in response to previous studies which had demonstrated links between teachers' EI and work effectiveness. A two-year EI training programme, which was about to be administered in a secondary school in Israel, provided a unique opportunity to examine EI professional development training in its natural setting. In particular, the study aimed to explore the impact of this group-based, EI coaching, professional development programme upon teachers; to identify elements of the programme which had contributed to this impact; and to examine the personal experiences and processes which participants had undergone in the course of their EI training.

In line with the study's goals, an interpretive framework and a mainly qualitative, case-study approach were adopted. EI was conceptualised as a set of individualised interrelated social and emotional competencies which are likely to impact upon teachers' work effectiveness and which can be developed. The individual experiences of 20 out of the 21 participants were explored through personal interviews, while being mindful of the social and organisational context in which the training

programme had taken place. This qualitative data was augmented by pre- and post-training EQ-i assessments.

The training programme under study was perceived by the participants to have enhanced their EI competencies, as defined by the Bar-On model; to integrate these competencies into their personal, professional and team identities; and to modify their EI-related behaviours. EI was embraced by all participants, was incorporated into their professional practice and was adopted as part of the school ethos. In what could be viewed as the culmination of this process, a school SEL programme had been voluntarily designed and implemented by the participants. In another important outcome, the participants declared the concept worthy of being at the centre of professional development training programmes for teachers and many recommended it to be an integral part of CPD efforts.

The elements that had been perceived as most important to the above-noted impacts were the individual, long-term and flexible nature of the training and the combined use of coaching sessions and group workshops.

Finally, an EI development process comprising four stages: introduction to theoretical knowledge, exploration of personal profiles, introspection, and reflective action, was identified. Not all participants, nor all EI competencies, were affected to the same level and in the same way by this process, resulting in a variety of experiences and of personal development paths which were all effective, yet highly distinct. Variables such as EI competencies and the subsequent effects of their enhancement, as well as

the personal lives of the participants and the many professional roles they are expected to fulfil, were all found to be interlinked. The frequent allusion to EI development as a life-long journey, consistent with previous descriptions in EI literature (e.g. Mortiboys, 2005; Nelson, 2006; Ciarrochi and Mayer, 2007), reflected the participants' awareness of the time required for the training programme to take effect and of the need to further develop their skills as well as their commitment to do so.

It is important to note that the present findings are limited to the specific case under study. Furthermore, the findings rely to a large extent on participants' testimonies and thus mostly reflect perceptions rather than objective measurements. While these limits and some others, discussed in section 3.13 and also below, on page 295, suggest some caution, the overall clear and positive impacts of the training programme under study remain.

Contribution to knowledge

During the last two decades the concept of emotional intelligence has risen to prominence in a variety of fields (Claxton, 2005; Perry and Ball, 2005). A growing body of research suggests that social-emotional skills are linked with the abilities to cope effectively with life challenges and to succeed in a variety of vocations (Parker et al., 2009), including teaching (Stein and Book, 2000; Haskett, 2004). Additionally, the significant role teachers play in their students' social-emotional development has been recently acknowledged (e.g. Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; Maree and Mokhuane, 2007; McCown et al., 2007).

However, few training programmes have attended to the emotional competence of

teachers (Kasem, 2002; Cohen and Sandy, 2007; Jennings and Greenberg, 2009), and even fewer have been subject to rigorous evaluation (e.g. Corcoran and Tormey, 2010). Of the small number of studies which explored EI training programmes in teaching (e.g. Byron, 2001; Walker, 2001; Corcoran and Tormey, 2010), most employed a mainly quantitative design, examined relatively short programmes, did not address contextual factors, and focused on end-results rather than on processes and personal experiences. Additionally, some of these programmes were conducted only among pre-service teachers.

As teacher-focused EI development programmes are rare and have been little explored, the present findings and the answers provided to all three research questions are important, unique and novel. In particular, the present study provided an in-depth examination of a teacher-focused EI development process in its natural setting and within a relatively unconfined time frame. This approach, combined with the use of mainly qualitative tools to examine EI development (as defined by the Bar-On model (1997)), yielded rich descriptions which complement previously-available quantitative data (e.g. Haskett, 2003; Drew, 2006) and demonstrated the individualised and complex nature of the links between EI and teachers' effectiveness.

Additionally, new qualitative insights into the impact of EI training programmes upon teachers and schools were gained, and various elements that may contribute to the effectiveness of EI training programmes for teachers, and more specifically to the effectiveness of group-based EI coaching development programmes, were noted. All these comprise an important addition to the previously-available literature. Similarly, newly gained insights into the personal experiences of teachers during the EI

development process are likely to be important to the design of effective EI training programmes in the future.

Previous claims that the development of EI in teachers could enhance their ability to develop EI in students (e.g. Elias et al., 1997; Cohen and Sandy, 2007; Brackett, 2008) have also been supported, suggesting that enhancement of students' EI is closely, and perhaps inexorably, linked to the development of EI in teachers. By presenting a case in which a social-emotional training programme in teachers had led to the implementation of an EI training programme for students, the study highlighted a process which so far has been little noted or discussed.

Another topic that had not been previously addressed widely was the contribution of the Bar-On EI framework, and in particular of the EQ-i measure and personal EI profiles, to teacher-student relationships and dialogue. The present study demonstrated that use of this framework and of the associated EI profiles had helped teachers understand their own behaviours as well as those of their students, and had facilitated the meeting of students' individual needs. However, it has also been demonstrated that the shifts in pre-post training EQ-i scores are not a sufficient measure by which to evaluate teachers' EI training effectiveness, and that qualitative means provide valuable information on the topic.

Finally, while not an original focus of this study, it has been noted that the participants were able to predict fairly accurately the trend, if not the magnitude, of changes in their total EI scores as well as those for other specific EI competencies (see p. 192). In particular, predictions for competencies that had been targeted for development were

often closely aligned with the corresponding post-training EQ-i scores. Even though the participants did not make predictions on all EI competencies, these findings lend a degree of qualitative validity to the EQ-i measure and constitute an important contribution to a topic which so far has been little researched.

Bearing in mind limitations associated with the use of a single case study approach, perhaps the most important contribution of the present research is the suggestion that EI training programmes of the type described here may lead to deep and sustainable changes, or, as stated by one of the participants: *'The change in each one of us is a real change, and it's here to stay. It cannot be reversed or taken away from us'* (USH).

Research conclusions

The EI training programme under study led to perceived positive EI shifts among most participants, thus supporting claims that EI can be developed through training (e.g. Goleman, 1995; Boyatzis, 2007) and extending them to teachers.

Within the scope of the present study, EI development processes were noted to be highly individual and to involve complex and multi-dimensional manifestations and effects, many of them unique to teachers. These findings agree with those of Ciarrochi and Mayer (2007), who had noted that processes of EI development vary between individuals, and reinforce the view that EI is closely associated with teachers' work (e.g. Haskett, 2003). The findings further suggest that a focus on personal competencies, rather than on generic ones, and a holistic and flexible approach to EI development (similar to the one described in the present study) may allow EI training programmes for teachers to address differences in starting points, readiness, needs and

goals.

Teachers have long been concerned about the emotional well-being of their students and have viewed social-emotional aspects of education as an important part of their work (e.g. Cefai and Cooper, 2009). Recently, interest in the improvement of students' social-emotional skills has grown (e.g. Cohen and Sandy, 2007). The present study demonstrates that a process which puts teachers' development at the centre and involves both individual and group elements may motivate teachers to reflect upon a wide range of professional aspects. In doing so, such a process may enhance teachers' self-awareness and their awareness of others and may shift pedagogic views and role perceptions. This may in turn motivate teachers to consider the development of EI in students and may enhance their confidence in their ability to do so successfully.

The active participation of teachers in the EI development programme under study and in school EI efforts (their initiation, design and implementation), encouraged them to take ownership over classroom and school-wide EI development processes, and to engage in them both formally and informally. These findings agree with Boyatzis and Van Ossten (2002), who noted that enhanced EI contributes to a culture of motivation and innovation in wider contexts, as well as with Harris (2007: p. 43), who argued that 'it is inevitable that a school that is striving to become more emotionally aware and attuned to the needs of individuals and groups will demand no small measure of personal growth from its community members'.

The above conclusions are particularly significant in view of the on-going, wide range search for ways to enhance teachers' effectiveness and well-being, the changes and

challenges that teachers increasingly face, and the growing demands for enhanced academic achievements and social-emotional skills in school students (e.g. Cefai and Cooper, 2009). These, and the difficulties in sustaining the Wisdom of the Heart programme (see p. 12), all emphasise the importance of the presently-noted EI changes and in particular the sustained commitment to EI and the development of students' EI.

It is the conceptual conclusion of this study that EI is inseparable from teachers' lives and practice and that clear benefits may be derived from including it in teacher-focused development efforts. Furthermore, it is the above-noted multifaceted and individualised nature of EI that CPD efforts and other development programmes for teachers should address. Thus, Aristotle's adage: 'Educating the mind without educating the heart is no education at all', should be considered valid not only for students (as suggested by Brackett et al. (2009: p. 329)) but also for teachers.

Implications for policy and practice

It has been suggested that new advancements in EI research may provide new and more sophisticated approaches to EI development in teachers and in students (Mayer and Cobb, 2000). In particular, schools and other stakeholders (e.g. education department staff) that are interested in improving effectiveness and well-being in teachers may want to incorporate EI development programmes into teachers' training programmes. Such a focus on teachers' EI would be also in line with the current expansion of teachers' role to include the development of social-emotional skills in students. Furthermore, the present study could inform the design of future pre-service and in-service teacher training programmes.

More specific implications from the present findings include the following:

- *Continuing Professional Development:* CPD programmes for teachers could be expanded to include EI competency-development segments which would focus on the teachers themselves. Such segments could combine individual coaching sessions with group work as well as with additional elements such as assessments, introduction to theoretical background, on-going development of EI competencies, and opportunities for reflection on links between EI and pedagogic practice. Schools may choose to give priority to such programmes, and teachers may be encouraged to participate in them.

- *Establishment of EI communities:* In accordance with the present findings it is suggested that teachers could benefit from EI communities in which they could share experiences and knowledge with other teachers, both from their own school and from different schools, who had undergone similar EI training.

- *Recruitment and promotion procedures:* Teachers training institutions and potential employers (such as school management staff or government ministries) may consider EI competency as an added criterion for evaluating student candidates, novice teachers and candidates for management roles. This consideration may increase the likelihood that candidates possess important and relevant EI skills, or else may draw attention to skills that need to be enhanced.

- *Pre-service training for teachers:* Teachers training institutions may wish to offer EI development programmes to their students and may incorporate topics such as

personal EI development, relationships with students, and the development of students' EI skills, into other pedagogic instruction. Such measures may allow novice teachers to enter the school system with enhanced personal EI skills, may increase their awareness of skills that underlie their own behaviours as well as those of their students, and may motivate them to further improve the same skills.

Reflections on research methodology

The present study followed a single EI development training programme within a school setting, and aimed to explore experiences and perceptions of individual teachers during this training. The chosen, mainly qualitative, case-study methodology, and the combined use of personal interviews and EQ-i assessments, were found to be appropriate for these goals. Nevertheless, the novelty of the research topic, combined with certain aspects of the methodology, imposed several limitations on the study. Thus the present conclusions are by their very nature limited to the particular case that had been investigated (namely, one group of Israeli teachers in a given school), and care must be taken in extending them to other groups. Furthermore, the findings rely on a small sample and are all based on the participants' perceptions. As common in qualitative studies (e.g. Fer, 2004), and in keeping with the concept of transferability, the applicability of the present findings must be judged by other practitioners and modifications for different contexts will almost always be necessary.

Another reflection involved the personal interviews with participants. Detailed analysis of these interviews suggested that some aspects of the participants' personal journeys, and in particular the reflective action stage, could have been explored in greater depth. Conversely, other topics such as EI implementation efforts and other

organisational changes could have been explored more briefly, as they were less directly related to the main topic of the study (i.e. to EI development in teachers).

Finally, the complexity of the EI development process under study rendered its graphic representation a challenge. Accordingly, the EI-development model proposed in Chapter 5 (see Figure 5.1) is only preliminary. However, together with the detailed findings, this model could serve as a basis for future studies.

Despite the above noted reservations, it is believed that the present findings constitute a unique and significant contribution to the field of EI training programmes for teachers.

Implications for future studies

Several additional studies which could validate and further refine the present findings should be considered:

- The present study focused on one middle-sized secondary school in a rural area of Israel. Future studies may explore similar EI development programmes in schools in other geographical, cultural and socio-economic settings, or in teachers who work with other age groups (such as primary school teachers). Such studies could provide a more comprehensive understanding of teachers' EI development processes and of their experiences therein.
- By following several cohorts of trainees, rather than a single cohort as in the present study, future studies could allow for comparisons between groups of different characteristics. For added methodological rigour, it is also important that future studies

examine EI development processes among teachers in a variety of positions, rather than ones in mostly leadership positions as in the present study. This is doubly true as teachers in non-leadership roles comprise the majority of active teachers. Some preliminary follow-up data which has been included in an Epilogue to this thesis addresses this topic (see p. 300).

- The present study examined a single, group-based EI coaching programme. Studies of other group-based coaching processes could help determine and optimise a variety of programme parameters, such as the optimal length of EI training programmes for teachers, or the effects of voluntary versus compulsory participation in such programmes. More generally, studies of other types of EI training programmes could help identify the most effective way to develop EI in teachers.

- The Bar-On EI conceptualisation and the corresponding EQ-i assessment tool provided a conceptual and methodological basis for the training programme under study and for the study itself. While these were carefully chosen based on their suitability to the field of education as well as their psychometric properties, future studies may examine EI development in teachers using other EI conceptualisations and measures (including ability measures). These may provide a broader view of EI development processes in teachers.

- Data collection tools in the present study were limited to personal interviews and to a self-report measure (the EQ-i). Consequently, the results were mostly limited to the personal perceptions and experiences of the participants. In future studies, the

perceived changes in participants and the impact of training programmes on different school aspects could be examined from multiple perspectives, such as those of colleagues, management and students. As students are the main concern of schools, and as their perceptions often differ from those of teachers (e.g. Boyd, 2005; Cefai and Cooper, 2009), their contribution to future studies could be particularly valuable. Future studies may also wish to consider school outcomes such as GPA, retention records, class rank data, behaviour charts, and other sources of relevant data, as these represent important and desired CPD outcomes.

- Various scholars have noted that training programmes should lead to sustainable outcomes (e.g. Boyatzis, 2007). While the present inquiry ended soon after the completion of the EI development programme under study, some preliminary follow-up data has been gathered and is included in the Epilogue to this thesis. Future studies could explore the sustainability of training outcomes as well as other long-term effects of training programmes among participants, students and schools.

- Sala (2002) noted that without an adequate control group it is difficult to isolate the impact of interventions from that of other variables. While the main goal of the present study was to capture subjective experiences, other studies may seek to explore this aspect.

- As noted above (p. 290), the present findings provided only partial and indirect qualitative validity to the EQ-i measure. In view of the prominent use of EQ-i in research and its importance to development efforts, future studies may wish to further

explore the qualitative validity of the EQ-i, a subject which to the best of this writer's knowledge has not yet been thoroughly researched.

- Lastly, participants in the present study had undergone a process of change in the course of the EI development programme. Future studies could employ various available change theories in order to further explore such processes.

Personal reflections

As a practitioner in the field of EI in both educational and commercial settings, the present study provided me with a unique opportunity to study EI development processes from great proximity and in great depth. While enhancing my capabilities as a researcher, the insights I had gained have also informed and benefited my own EI-related practice, and especially my work in the education arena. Furthermore, by following processes of EI development in others I was able to understand my own EI competencies better. Similarly, along with the participants, I came to better understand other professional and personal aspects of my own life. Lastly, the knowledge and skills which I had gained in the course of the study became a source of motivation to engage in further studies in the field of EI.

Epilogue

A training programme starts a dynamic process that goes on even after the programme has ended. In the same way, my interest in the training programme under study, and in particular in its participants, continues. Fortunately, I was able to follow the EI implementation efforts in the school in which the programme had been conducted for two years after my research had ended, and thus was able to gain additional insights into the training programme and its impacts. With regard to the participants in the present study, a year after taking their post-training, EQ-i assessment, nine participants had chosen to take a third EQ-i assessment. Of those, 6 showed additional gains in total EI and in several sub-scale competencies.

In another development, a second cohort including mostly teachers in non-management roles and only a few teachers in mid-management roles had embarked on the training at the completion of the present study. This group showed different pre-training characteristics from the first group, scoring significantly lower on their mean pre-training total EI scores (91.58, SD=8.95 versus 101.54, SD=14.98, respectively), and on seven of the fifteen sub-scale competencies (Emotional Self-Awareness, Interpersonal Relationship, Happiness, Stress Tolerance, Reality Testing, Assertiveness and Independence). However, unlike the first cohort, post-training assessments for this second group showed significant increases in the mean group scores for total EI as well as for five sub-scale competencies (Emotional Self-Awareness, Assertiveness, Independence, Reality Testing and Happiness). Members of the second cohort spoke positively of the training programme and its impacts, and a majority of them mentioned being involved in EI development in students, in one form or other.

Finally, results from the 2009 Israeli matriculation exams became available a year after the programme under study had ended. Of the graduating students in the school that year, 50% were eligible for a matriculation certificate. While this eligibility rate, which was maintained also in 2010, cannot be directly attributed to the training programme under study, it represents a 13% increase over the eligibility rate in 2008, before teachers and students in the school had been formally exposed to EI.

On a more personal note, one of the touching moments in the course of this study occurred shortly after the formal training programme had ended, when I received a phone call from one of the programme's participants. That participant, who had recently become the coordinator of EI sustainability efforts in the school under study, was about to conduct an EI workshop with a group of her fellow participants and wanted to share with me her excitement and some of her work plans. I was moved by this evidence of EI sustainability efforts taking shape, and by her commitment to these efforts.

I am glad to note that two years after the completion of the training, the school was still engaged in these efforts, students were still being coached, many teachers continued to teach EI informally in their classes and EI was occasionally being woven into school workshops. However, formal EI training has not been extended to include additional teachers in the school, mainly for budgetary reasons, and a whole school EI approach has not yet been adopted.

Appendices

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|----------------|--|
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Appendix One: Pre-training and Post-training Mean Group EQ-i Scores and
Corresponding Pre-Post Shifts (n=21, SD=standard deviation)

| | Pre-training EQ-i scores | Post-training EQ-i scores | Shift |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|-------|
| | M (SD) | M (SD) | Z |
| Total Emotional Intelligence | 101.57 (14.98) | 105.24 (11.65) | 1.39 |
| <i>Composite Scales:</i> | | | |
| Intra-Personal | 103.05 (14.02) | 106.14 (11.50) | 1.27 |
| Interpersonal | 106.57 (11.33) | 106.81 (9.47) | 0.33 |
| Stress Management | 99.43 (19.41) | 103.81 (14.21) | 1.17 |
| Adaptability | 97.81 (14.68) | 102.10 (12.96) | 1.20 |
| General Mood | 102.24 (14.00) | 103.86 (11.63) | 0.81 |
| <i>Subscales:</i> | | | |
| Self-Regard | 99.90 (13.67) | 99.95 (12.52) | 1.15 |
| Emotional Self-awareness | 112.00 (9.38) | 113.33 (8.23) | 0.14 |
| Assertiveness | 99.86 (16.40) | 105.24 (14.96) | 2.01* |
| Independence | 98.00 (15.44) | 100.57 (13.01) | 0.68 |
| Self-Actualisation | 103.57 (13.94) | 106.52 (10.18) | 1.07 |
| Empathy | 108.95 (11.19) | 108.95 (11.95) | 1.18 |
| Social Responsibility | 102.90 (10.54) | 103.19 (10.25) | 0.49 |
| Interpersonal Relationships | 106.38 (11.00) | 106.62 (11.33) | 0.35 |
| Stress Tolerance | 102.05 (15.77) | 108.10 (12.59) | 2.12* |
| Impulse Control | 96.62 (19.12) | 98.52 (17.12) | 0.24 |

| | | | |
|-----------------|-------------------|-------------------|------|
| Reality Testing | 100.71 (14.94) | 105.95 (11.82) | 1.12 |
| Flexibility | 97.57 (15.98) | 101.00 (16.94) | 1.29 |
| Problem-Solving | 95.95 (15.90) | 97.67 (11.63) | 0.18 |
| Optimism | 101.90 (13.30) | 104.29 (11.85) | 0.77 |
| Happiness | 102.71 (14.24) | 103.71 (11.88) | 0.57 |

*p<.05

Appendix Two: Internal Consistencies (Cronbach's α) of EQ-i Scores for Total EI, 5

Composite Scales and 15 Subscales (n=21)

| Composite scale/Subscale | Internal Consistency | Composite scale/Subscale | Internal Consistency |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Total Emotional Intelligence | <u>$\alpha=.97$</u> | | |
| Intra-Personal | $\alpha=.94$ | Stress Management | $\alpha=.92$ |
| Self-Regard | $\alpha=.90$ | Stress Tolerance | $\alpha=.86$ |
| Emotional Self-awareness | $\alpha=.72$ | Impulse Control | $\alpha=.90$ |
| Assertiveness | $\alpha=.81$ | Adaptability | $\alpha=.88$ |
| Independence | $\alpha=.83$ | Reality Testing | $\alpha=.80$ |
| Self-Actualisation | $\alpha=.86$ | Flexibility | $\alpha=.84$ |
| Interpersonal | $\alpha=.85$ | Problem- Solving | $\alpha=.79$ |
| Empathy | $\alpha=.67$ | General Mood | $\alpha=.89$ |
| Social Responsibility | $\alpha=.67$ | Optimism | $\alpha=.84$ |
| Interpersonal Relationships | $\alpha=.78$ | Happiness | $\alpha=.88$ |

Appendix Three: Internal Consistencies (Cronbach's α) of EQ-i Scores for Total EI, 5

Composite Scales and 15 Subscales - Instrument Validation Studies

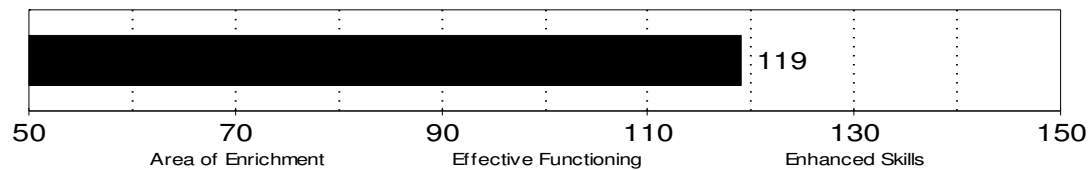
(MHS, 2006: p. 65)

| Composite scale/Subscale | Internal Consistency | Composite scale/Subscale | Internal Consistency |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|
| Total Emotional Intelligence | | | |
| Intra-Personal | | Stress Management | |
| Self-Regard | 0.89 | Stress Tolerance | 0.8 |
| Emotional Self- awareness | 0.81 | Impulse Control | 0.79 |
| Assertiveness | 0.78 | Adaptability | |
| Independence | 0.78 | Reality Testing | 0.78 |
| Self-Actualisation | 0.80 | Flexibility | 0.77 |
| Interpersonal | | Problem-Solving | 0.81 |
| Empathy | 0.7 | General Mood | |
| Social Responsibility | 0.77 | Optimism | 0.82 |
| Interpersonal Relationships | 0.81 | Happiness | 0.81 |

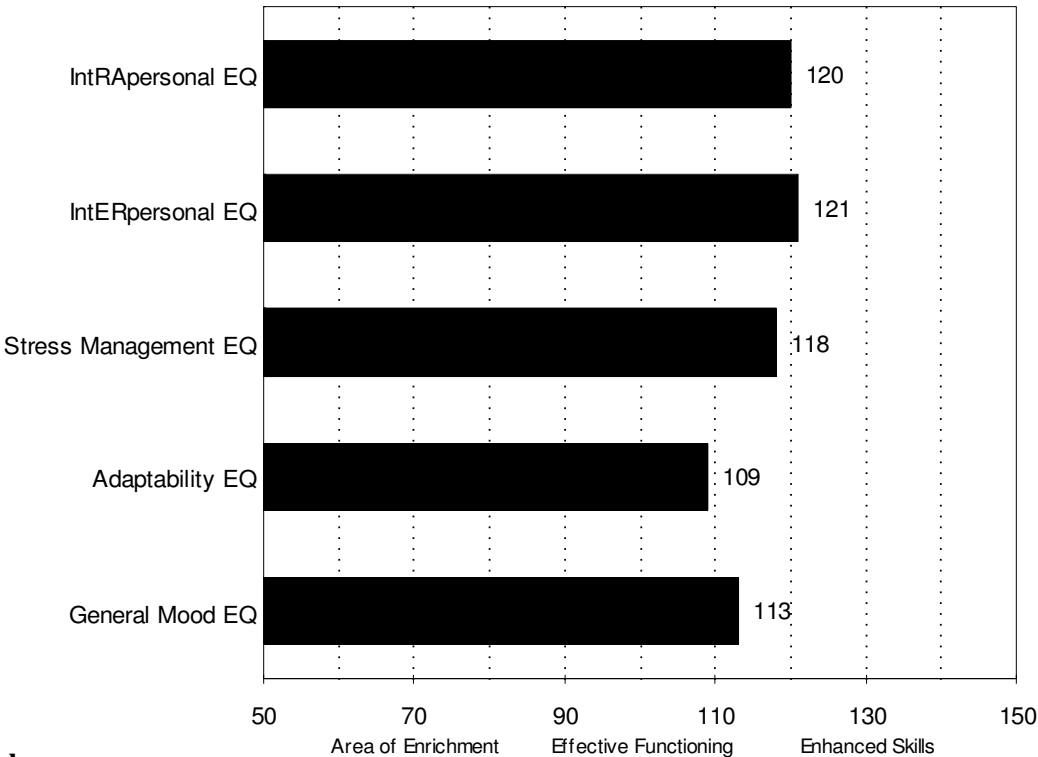
Appendix Four: Sample Graphs from Personal EI Profiles

(Used during personal EQ-i feedback sessions)

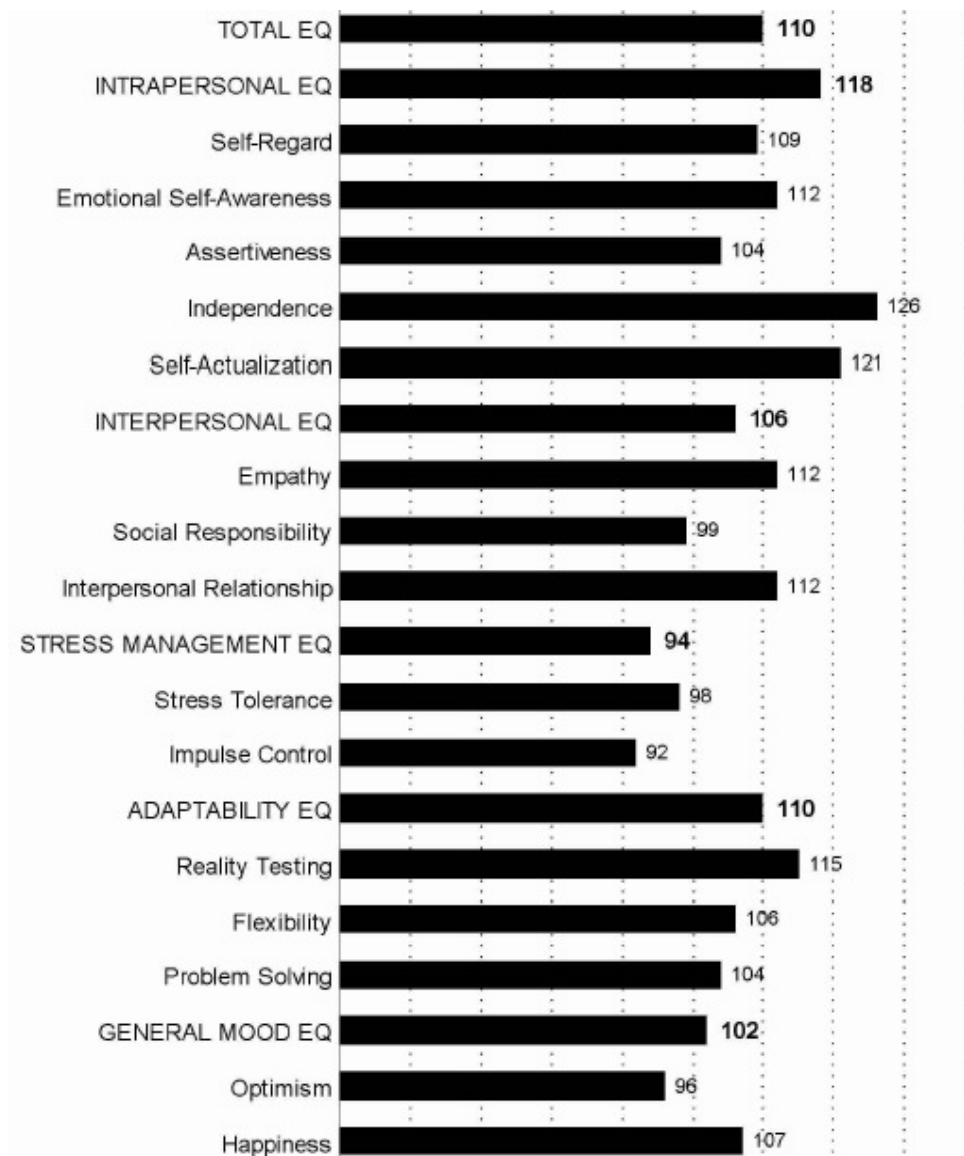
Total EQ



Composite Scales



Subscales



Appendix Five: Guiding Questions for Personal Interviews

General questions

- Please tell me about the EI training process.
- Was this process different from other training processes which the school had undergone? If so, could you describe the differences?
- Did you find the training programme effective? If so, could you briefly describe its impacts? Which elements of the training were most effective?

Personal questions

- Please describe your personal experiences during the training.
- Could you describe your thoughts and feelings upon being introduced to the training programme? What were your expectations at that stage?
- Could you describe your thoughts and feelings upon being presented with your personal profile?
- Could you describe your thoughts and feelings during other parts of the training?

Detailed questions

Training impacts

- Have you benefited from the training? If so, in what way?
- Could you describe instances in which the training programme impacted upon you personally?
- Do you think the training impacted upon your EI competencies? In what way? Which competencies?
- Do you think the training impacted upon your work? In what way?

- Do you expect students to notice the impacts that you had just described? What about your colleagues? Others?
- Did the training impact upon the school? If so, could you please elaborate?
- Tell me about EI implementation efforts in the school - Did the school benefit from these efforts? In what way?
- What was your part in the implementation efforts? What was your view of these efforts? Please describe your feelings and experiences during this stage.
- Do you think the training impacted upon students in any way? If so, could you please elaborate? In your opinion, what contributed to this impact?
- Do you expect to see additional training impacts in the future? If so, what type of impacts?
- Do you think the training impacted upon your fellow participants? In what way? What do you base your answer upon?

The training programme's design

- Could you list the main elements which comprised the training programme? How did they each affect you? Which elements of the programme do you consider to be most or least important, and why?
- If you could modify the training programme, what changes would you have recommended?

EQ-i

- In the course of the programme's final workshop you had undergone a second, post-training EQ-i assessment which was then used to construct your post-training EI profile. I am about to present you with this profile. Do you expect it to be different from your first, pre-training EI profile? What do you base your answer upon?

- Now that you have familiarized yourself with your post-training profile, what is your opinion of it? Does it agree with your expectations? If so, could you please elaborate? Are you surprised by any of the results? Do you disagree with any of them? Can you elaborate?

Sustainability

- Where do you see yourself in a year from now?
- Do you expect the personal and professional impacts of the training (the ones that you noted earlier) to be sustained?
- What do you expect the school to be like in a year or two?
- Do you expect the school changes that you noted to be sustained? Do you think it is important to sustain these changes?
- In your opinion, what would enhance the sustainability of the programme?
- Do you consider EI development and the concept of EI to be important for teachers? For students? For schools? Could you explain your answers?
- What do you expect the school to be like in five years from now?

Appendix Six: Sample of Transcripts from Personal Interviews

(Opening pages from two personal interviews. Interviews were translated from the Hebrew original but were not edited).

ND - author, BP- participant

ND: Please tell me about the training process.

BP: It was a valuable process, all of it. It contributed significantly to the school, but also to me personally. It was a highly meaningful process. The whole subject of EI is extremely important to schools, to teachers, to students. Simply put, it was the right thing. It was tailored to our specific needs and we were all totally committed to it.

ND: what made the training experience significant?

BP: Everything did, right from the very start. It was very intensive. It addressed the school and us in it. We were engaged in real work, we didn't just sit and listen. The many exercises we had participated in forced us to think, to look into ourselves, to do real work. All this took place right from the very beginning. Then there was the personal work we had to do. And the group work where we were asked to figure out what it was that we wanted the process to help us with, what our goals and needs were. It [the process] became an integral part of the school. Each and every day, no matter where you were, it was there. It was nothing like [other, more common] workshops, where you (sic) go home at the end of the day and that's that, you go on with your life. The presence of this process was palpable. It was all-encompassing.

ND: What was the impact of this process?

BP: I now realise that EI is a must for all schools, that teachers and students should be

exposed to it and should take part in it. I have always believed that paying attention to children and giving them useful tools is more important than going through another chapter in their math books. But the current process has broadened my perspective and has provided me with the appropriate framework and tools to do something about it. We all came to see ourselves differently, to see our students differently. All of a sudden, everything became simpler, more structured. I'm referring to our view of our work, not to the work itself. It became clearer - the way certain things affect others, how to achieve certain effects, how to best use EI to understand and advance ourselves and our students. Both the coaching sessions and the workshops provided us with rich experiences. We came to realize that it [the process] would affect our students in the very same way. Look, I know that as a teacher I used to establish good rapport with each and everyone of my students... I could understand them, I knew what experiences they were going through, I knew how to approach them. But the current process allowed me to gain a deeper understanding of the mechanisms involved, what affects my abilities, and how to best use them.

ND: Was this training process different from previous trainings which the school had undergone?

BP: Yes, it was. It was more comprehensive and more intensive than previous school processes. That's why many teachers were drawn to it. It involved actual work, many workshops which were held quite frequently. Some of these workshops were quite long, some even lasted a whole day. Then there was the coaching... The work focused on us, as individuals, but also, to a large part, on the students.

ND: What elements in the programme had the most effect? (the question was repeated

later to identify specific training elements)

BP: First and foremost, the training made us focus on individual students and on student-teacher dialogue. Instead of reprimanding students, we now converse with them. Our interactions are more constructive and more supportive. Our own conversations, the ones we had with each other as part of our own [EI training] process, have also become more constructive. To my mind, these are the core elements of the programme. The themes they involved were so important and so relevant to all of us at the time that everyone was drawn in. It made a real difference, and was all about inter-relationships and attitudes. Our dialogues with our students mirrored the dialogues that our trainers were having with us, we went through the same experiences. The fact that we went through the training was the basis for everything that followed.

ND-author, SIH - participant

ND: Please tell me about the training process.

SIH: What first comes to mind is my pre-training personal profile. I wasn't surprised to see it. It was all pretty much what I had expected. The difficulty wasn't with the profile, but rather with me, seeing how harshly I had judged myself. That's something that apparently was very typical of me, but being confronted with it, that was difficult. We then went over various items, and what each of these items signified. That first experience left a real impression on me. I wanted to improve both my ability to self-regulate emotions and my interpersonal skills. These were the two things that mattered

to me most. The process brought with it uncertainties, it made me look at myself differently. I had to re-evaluate many things. It wasn't easy. I was in a state of great uncertainty and self-doubt. These experiences were new to me and in themselves comprised a change.

ND: What [elements of the training] contributed to these personal changes?

SIH: The practice sessions...Everything...All of the elements combined. From the very first workshop, where we had started thinking about various topics, and through all the other workshops and all the other topics that were addressed, through all kinds of processes, and down to the personal-coaching segment and the coaching of students. It all mattered. During the personal coaching sessions we defined our goals and our visions and focused on EI development. That (latter) part was the part that mattered most to me, not only because I believe that EI is an important concept, but also because it helped me to develop personally. The goals I set for myself, the 'barriers to success' which I identified, the practice sessions, all of these had to do with my EI skills. In retrospect, I would have preferred to focus more on EI rather than on other topics.

ND: Was this personal aspect of the process important to you?

SIH: Extremely important... It was about taking a deep look at myself and moving forward. I worked so hard, I was practically 'sweating blood'. I could feel a physical pain. I was fully committed to this process and I suffered as a consequence... I was constantly aware of it, from the moment I woke up to the time I went to bed. During the entire training period I was thinking about it and I was going through this change process. I kept on referring to the book that had been given to us, and it changed the

way I looked at things. I came to have a different view of myself and of my work. I was surprised to see how fast the change was. It started right from the very first stage of the training. I didn't have to listen and to think about it until it would click. It was instantaneous. Right from the very first workshop, when we received the feedback forms, that's when my development process started. It was very powerful and very sudden. That's why it brought with it real-time effects. I was able to learn things right there and then, not in retrospect. EI is something that has to do with day-to-day activities, with your (sic) daily environment. That's where EI is needed. The tools I was given allowed me to help students right when I needed to. As a teacher, one often reacts after the fact, and that has an adverse effect on learning. Rather than second-guessing myself: 'I should have done this' or 'I should have said that', I learned to react appropriately in real time, to make the most out of every situation.

Appendix Seven: Informed Consent Form

Participant Informed Consent form

Subject of Research: Developing Emotional Intelligence Competencies in Teachers Through Group-Based Coaching

Researcher: Ms. Niva Dolev (M.A.)

Research to be submitted to the University of Leicester, England, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Ph.D.

Having been fully informed of the details regarding the above research, I hereby give my consent to participate in it. I understand that my participation in the research is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from it at any time. As part of my participation, I grant the researcher full access to my pre-training and post-training EQ-i scores and permission to analyse them and to include the results of this analysis in her thesis and in ensuing publications. I also agree to be interviewed by the researcher and for the researcher to present me with my post-training EQ-i scores in the course of the interview. I understand that I may refrain from answering any of the questions presented to me by the researcher.

Confidentiality: As a condition for this consent, I have been assured that my identity and all other details of my participation in the research will be kept in strict confidence, and that all laws, regulations and ethical protocols pertaining to my participation will be strictly followed. All data pertaining to my participation in the research is to be securely stored, and access to it will be limited to the researcher only.

Signature:

Name_____ Signature_____ Date_____

Printed name of person obtaining consent _____Date _____

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