

ETHICAL DECISION MAKING: AN EXAMINATION OF THE IMPACT
OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND MORAL
REASONING ON SCHOOL LEADERS

by

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DEDICATION

This milestone is dedicated to the fabric of my life: husband Darryl, daughters Azariah (the cheer girl), Amirah (the chef extraordinaire) and son Darren (the gamer). Love you all with my whole being. Forever the Torain Five!

In spirit, I also dedicate this work to my ancestors and elders of the Toles, Eason, Fulgham, Jackson, and Simmons lineages. Your sacrifices were not in vain. Continue to stay with me on this journey.

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"For I know the plans I have for you," declares the Lord, "plans to prosper you and not to harm you, plans to give you hope and a future"(Jeremiah 29:11 New International Version).

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ABSTRACT

This quantitative study examined the impact of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning on school leaders' decision making. The Assessing Emotion Test (AES) measuring emotional intelligence, Defining Issues Test (DIT-2) measuring moral reasoning, the Adult Decision Making Competency (A-DMC) measuring decision making and a demographic questionnaire were administered to principals and assistant principals in nine school districts located in a small mid-Atlantic state in the United States. The measures were designed to test the relationship between emotional intelligence and decision making, as well as the relationship between moral reasoning and decision making.

The study was anchored in the theoretical framework of authentic leadership, which suggests that one remains true to oneself by knowing who they are interpersonally, intrapersonally and developmentally. A correlation was conducted using SPSS to test the two independent variables, emotional intelligence and moral reasoning and the dependent variable decision making. The researcher sought to answer two research questions: 1) To what extent is there a relationship between emotional intelligence and ethical decision making? and 2) To what extent is there a relationship between moral reasoning and ethical decision making? The null

hypotheses were accepted for each question. However, the relationship between moral reasoning and decision making was sufficiently strong to merit additional study. Moreover, the researcher noted that one variable from the demographics portion of the survey, age, was correlated with moral reasoning N2-score, which reports post-conventional thinking. However, a regression analysis showed that these relationships were not quite significant. While the correlation results were not at a level that yielded statistical significance, a duplication of the study accounting for a concerted effort to use additional portions of the Adult Decision Making Competency, might reach the threshold. The study also suggests that the impact of age on moral reasoning should be considered.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

In the examination of history there is one notable president who stands out in terms of coming to grips with the impact that his decision truly made on the world and on a personal level. Abraham Lincoln's initial world view was that the American people would use their capacity to reason as a compass for understanding what was right. In an address he stated, "There are few things that are wholly evil or wholly good. Almost everything, especially of government policy, is an inseparable compound of the two; so that our best judgment of the preponderance between them is continually demanded" (Basler, 1974). During more challenging times in his career he then found that only divine providence could help the transformation of the nation's minds. In the signing of the Emancipation Proclamation, President Lincoln believed earnestly in the moral fibers of America when making such drastic changes in the way Americans for years had known as a way of life. His way with people illustrated a level of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning that inspired a nation to embrace the decision he thought was ethically right. The ethical decisions made, based on a leader doing what he feels is morally right while using his level of emotional intelligence to sway followers into sharing his beliefs even with some opposition, can be the hallmark of a leader.

Today, school reform initiatives call for school leadership reminiscent of the characteristics of yesterday's political leaders. Educators are being tasked with producing students who are college and career ready in order to reignite our nation's economy. One of the core strategies of the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) signed by President Barack Obama is to "strengthen school leadership" (K-12 Reforms: Strategic Initiatives to Foster Real Change, 2014). Fullan (2001) discusses change by noting how critical leadership is during a time of

heightened emotions. In a survey conducted in the 2015-2016 school year, in estimated reports there are 90,500 public school principals having an average of 6.6 years of experience in the position (Taie & Goldring, 2017).

Decision making can be one of the roadblocks to school reform (Dotger & Mangram, 2008). School leaders should be aware of the process of decision making needed to reach decisions based on the given situation (Green, 2005). A leader is charged with knowing how to facilitate change while keeping in tune with the concerns and welfare of those whom the leader serves (Ackerman et al., 1996). Green (2005) emphasizes school leaders “will need to understand the values and the culture of the school and community they serve, identify appropriate decision-making models, and act using a professional code of ethics.” Ethics is one of the standards listed in the most recently adopted Professional Standards of Educational Leaders (PSEL). PSEL, adopted by Delaware in March 2016 (14 D.A.S. § 1590, 2016), explains that the effective school leaders “act ethically and professionally in personal conduct, relationships with others, decision-making, stewardship of the school’s resources, and all aspects of school leadership.” (NPBEA, 2015). Ethics is listed outwardly or discreetly in several of the ten standards adopted in the 2015 Professional Standards for Educational Leaders (PSEL). Standards in ethics are dynamic and foster a need for leaders to create individual and professional codes of ethics to live and work by (NPBEA, 2015; Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2016). In Taie, & Goldring, 2017 survey 95% of the nation’s public school principals reported having a key role in teacher evaluations, 85% percent reported being integral in the hiring of full-time teachers and 75% reported playing a significant role in developing policy for discipline. Ethical decision making is the expectation for school leaders.

The study of emotional intelligence has evolved since Gardner's work with intrapersonal (self-awareness of one's feelings) and interpersonal intelligence (capacity to read the disposition and intent of others with the possibility to act of this awareness) (Bar-On et al., 2000). Gardner pointed to experience as what is used to develop different intelligences (2006). Emotional intelligence in the workplace is derived from having to experience various emotions and choose, consciously or subconsciously, which emotion is fitting for the given instance. Notable mention of EI's importance to success in education and career gave much attention to the study of the term.

Emotional intelligence (EI) made waves in the early 90's under the guise of a zeitgeist or *cultural trend*. EI was next given a more defined, scientific identifier as a personality trait by psychologists looking to measure the term. Lastly, after finding that EI overlapped with other measures of personality, psychologists found a more unambiguous operationalization of EI as a mental ability (Bar-On et al., 2000, pp. 92–93). Goleman defines emotional intelligence as the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions well in us and in our relationships (1998). Using Gardner's model, the competencies of EI fall under two descriptors: Personal Competence, how one manages self, and Social Competence, how one manages relationships with others. Those competencies, measured in Goleman's framework, are: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills.

Table 1

The Emotional Competence Framework. Reprinted from Korn Ferry (2017). Emotional and social competency inventory research guide and technical manual with permission.

Personal Competence	Social Competence
<i>These competencies determine how we manage ourselves.</i>	<i>These competencies determine how we handle relationships.</i>
Self-Awareness	Empathy
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional awareness • Accurate self-assessment • Self-confidence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding others • Developing others • Service orientation • Leveraging diversity • Political awareness
Self-Regulation	Social Skills
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-control • Trustworthiness • Conscientiousness • Innovation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Influence • Communication • Conflict management • Leadership • Change catalyst • Building bonds • Collaboration and cooperation • Team capabilities
Motivation	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Achievement drive • Commitment • Initiative • Optimism 	

Emotional intelligence is defined by Salovey and Mayer (1990) as “a set of skills hypothesized to contribute to the accurate appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself and in

others, the effective regulation of emotion in self and others, and the use of feelings to motivate, plan and achieve in one's life." Bar-On takes the term a step further by referring to Gardner's earlier work that involved both intrapersonal (emotional) and interpersonal (social) competencies and expanding the construct to emotional-social intelligence (ESI). Since many of the emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators overlap, Bar-On highlights the commonalities in his definition and moves on to explain emotional-social intelligence "determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them and cope with daily demands" (Bar-On, 2006, p. 14).

Professional development can be provided to coach leaders on how to improve their EI (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Goleman, on the other hand, suggests that emotional intelligence increases with maturity (Goleman, 1998). The average age for school principals in the United States is 47 (Taie & Goldring, 2017). One could theorize that as a person ages, fear, pain and desire are more manageable.

There is literature that suggests that many individuals that lack emotional skills struggle to express their emotions which affect their ability to internalize feelings and emotions (Bar-On, 2006; Goleman, 2011). Despite past mindsets, one's EI can be improved. Training in the area of EI has been coined most recently as social skills, interpersonal or soft skills training (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2013). Practicing mindfulness has also been found to address the self-control competence of EI. Ashkanasy and Dasborough (2003) view emotional intelligence as vital in the development of leaders and their knowledge of organizational culture and dynamics. Developing emotional intelligence, according to Boyatzis (2008), requires one to be open to change, dedicated, and having the appropriate guidance from an effective coach. While some

have the propensity to change or mature with age, others have more layers of poor-people skills to rid themselves of and or are unwilling to change, which makes any level of training or coaching more difficult. The social brain, being one of the more pliable components, enables one to have the ability to improve socialization, selflessness, and kindness.

One's perception of their EI may not parallel to how others, particularly their subordinates view them. Informant reports are used to garner how others perceive an individual's emotional intelligence. (Bar-On, Parker, & Goleman, 2000). Having one examine how others perceive what their strengths and weakness in terms of EI, increases their propensity to improve at greater levels (Ballou et al., 1999). Bar-On et al. (2000) question using the perception of others in a report of that kind yield's measures of one's reputation and not their actual ability.

Another approach used to evaluate emotional intelligence is performance or ability measures. This measure is highly regarded because one must demonstrate their capacity to successfully solve the problems or perform mental tasks (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). An assessment of how one solves problems, recognize and reason the emotions using tasks and then judging their responses provides the most accurate measures of emotional intelligence (Bar-On et al., 2000; Mayer et al., 2004; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003).

Researchers have found a need for not only a level of emotional intelligence in leaders but have found the best leaders demonstrate having a moral purpose to lead (Dufour & Marzano, 2011). Payne (1985) also suggests that feelings alone cannot dictate what is morally suitable, fact and logic must be included in making such a determination. Making moral decisions in the "best interest of the student" or taking into account staff member's diverse needs requires one to

address their moral compass. One is often left questioning: What is best for the students? What are the expectations of the profession? What are the expectations of the community? What is my individual moral purpose? Fullan believes to become a master at leading, one must go through the process of redefining one's moral purpose and knowledge that change will occur, be willing to be a lifelong learner, cultivate diverse connections with people, and seek understanding (Fullan, 2001).

In business settings, one may be groomed to use logic and reason as opposed to emotions when making decisions. Holian (2006) points out that in the earlier years, one makes decisions based on "the golden rule" that's taught as a child only to eventually be trained to use your "head" over your heart in later years. Some more logic based decision makers may use the moral heuristic of cost-benefit analysis that is often accepted, once the drawbacks are squarely presented and adhered to (Fernandez-Berrocal & Extremera, 2005). Making decisions in education are often made from an organizational context. One is dealing with human services involving leadership, education, and providing counsel (Johnson & Kruse, 2009). Because students are mandated to be in school, the relationship between the provider of the educational opportunity and the receiver often involves the act of negotiation, which involves moral reasoning on the part of the decision maker (Johnson & Kruse). This drives the need for decisive policy making (Johnson & Kruse). These policies, along other decisions made on the behalf of the organization, will be riddled with the morality and emotional intelligence of the decision maker.

1.1 Background of the Problem

School districts lack a systematic way of developing leaders who have the propensity to lead school reform using a balanced approach of emotions and logic when making decisions (Hess & Bacigalupo, 2013; Stanovich & West, 2000). While there are standards used, such as PSEL, as well as certification requirements, panel interviews, and portfolios, unlike many groups in corporate America, there has not been a recognizable shift in the method in which principal certification programs inform the decision making of an employee candidate (Preparing Principals for Delaware Schools, n. d., 2015). With the demand for school reform sweeping the nation, it is important that principal preparation programs are armed with the most current and best practices for equipping organizations with leaders that have working knowledge coupled with the ability to lead change. With conflicting ideas behind emotion and rationality, today's organizations struggle to find solutions to multifaceted and varying challenges. These struggles were cited as the reason behind establishment's effort to have human thinking be based on logic and rasion as opposed to intuition and emotion (Stanovich & West, 2000). While intellect has a prominent presence as a leadership competency, many leadership researchers suggest that several other leadership qualities and virtues also have a significant existence in the makeup of an effective leader (Bass, 2008; Fullan, 2003; Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine ethical decision making and the impact of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning on school leaders.

1.3 Need for the Study

The examination of ethical decision making and the impact of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning of school leaders were needed for several reasons. In a study by Adamowski et al. (2007), principals felt that district's management of instruction, layers of bureaucracy, centralization of operations, and overhaul of staffing decisions created barriers in which they remained responsible yet powerless. A decrease in ethical decisions made in management positions (Greer, 2015; Sturm, 2017) can have leaders questioning which responsibilities are safe to delegate.

Having the precise ability to recognize EI in oneself and others produces a skill to navigate through challenging situations when given autonomy. Kunnanatt (2008) suggests high levels of EI have been found to produce leaders with goals that are honorable and attainable in their work and personal life that can also impact others around them.

The nature of the public school education vocation has a public expectation of high moral regard. However, public school administrators and school leadership students in recent studies have been found to have a lower measure of moral reasoning than other professional career groups (Greer et al., 2015)

In summary, there were several instances in the reviewed research that indicate a need to empirically examine ethical decision making and the impact of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning of the school leaders.

1.4 Significance of the Study

An examination of ethical decision making and the impact of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning of school leaders has significance in the current educational climate for several

reasons. Deemed as public figures and public officials in many states (Turscak, 2000), the risks associated with education require school leaders to be confident in their decisions and morally grounded to gain the trust of their community. Fullan finds that leaders will be required to constantly work through “new cycles of trust” (2003, p. 63). As leaders implement change in their organizations, the results of this study can assist leaders with understanding the levels of EI and MR that can impact their ethical decision making.

The need to improve performance remains a central focus in educational and industry leadership. In response to new challenges educational leaders are facing, the Counsel of Chief State School Officers have been committed to revising the framework from whence educational leaders operate. The Counsel recognized a need to: equip students for job shifts and workplace transformations presented by the progressive global economy, address the changing composition of family structures, position schools for the changing of the guard and changing perception of how schools should be run based on political agendas reported in the media, prepare for anticipated school budgets decreases despite an increased demand for marked improvements in student performance and a need for public schools to remain competitive (NPBEA, 2015). The necessity to replace the national standards mirrors the proposed study, therefore, further substantiating the significance of a study.

Dufour and Marzano (2011) write that the best leaders exhibit a heart for moral purpose. Kouzes and Posner (2010) stress that exceptional leaders are aware of the feelings of their subordinates. Yocum (2007) presents a need for research that addresses individual leadership traits and constructs one’s leadership style. If establishing who a person is will determine their ability to make ethical decisions, this study also has merit in leadership training and selection.

In a study of emotion and emotional intelligence in nursing leadership, Molter (2001) found that while EI has been validated as essential in the workplace, it has not gained a level of value amongst predominately male leadership. While the majority of public elementary school principals are female, secondary public schools have more males serving as school leaders (Taie & Goldring, 2017). The belief of taking emotion out of the decision making equation remains the culture in some workplaces. The importance of penetrating a culture that relies on facts, rules and standards, but disregards emotions validates the significance of this study.

Curry (2004) suggests that the traits of trustworthiness, adaptability and conscientiousness are the leadership qualities necessary when taking the responsibility of leadership effectively. Furthermore, Curry suggests a need for studies that examine an individual's performances as criteria for hiring potential leaders and resolving their effectiveness. Wilson (2010) suggests a need for moral assessments upon hiring of new administrators to address concerns involving decision making. Greenfield (1991), Bowen et al. (2006), and Myers (2015) recommend that the educators of leadership programs implement the courses that delve into moral issues in society, critical thinking, ethical leadership theory application and analysis as it relates to decision making practices.

Today's educators are responsible for completing student and teacher evaluations, student discipline, school finance, in addition to navigating through school community conflicts (Greer et al., 2015; Taie & Goldring, 2017). Johnson & Kruse (2009) advise that not looking at schools as organizations and a lack of consideration for the complex day to day truths that exist in school culture, a critic can misunderstand how decisions are made by school administration. Therefore, this study will support the need to investigate building principals' ethical decision making, moral

reasoning and emotional intelligence. The goal is to provide research that supports the body of research in competencies needed to affect positive outcomes for educational leadership.

Alarming, a study conducted by Greer et al. (2015), found that educators scored significantly lower on measures of moral reasoning, as assessed by the Defining Issues Test (DIT), than their peer graduate students in other disciplines. This study looked at the four moral psychological processes which are sensitivity, judgment, motivation and character. Furthermore, a study conducted by Blasius (2007) found that principals with higher levels of moral reasoning were less likely to place students in self-contained special education settings as opposed to mainstreaming. Questionably, Daniels (2009) found no relationship between moral leadership and taking courses in ethics.

Whereas there have been several studies that have examined ethical decision making and its significance to emotional intelligence in leaders (Goleman et al., 2004; Hess & Bacigalupo, 2013; Mayer & Caruso, 2002; Sevdalis et al., 2007), and studies measuring decision making and the levels of moral reasoning used (Amir et al., 2007; Baron, 1996; Baron & Ritov, 2009; Baron & Miller, 2000; Bartels, 2008; Bartels et al., 2009; Bartels & Medin, 2007; Bauman & Skitka, 2009; Broeders et al., 2011; Kohlberg, 1976; Monin & Merritt, 2012; Roy, 2009; Uhlman et al., 2009) there has not been a study that examines the school administrator's ability to make ethical decisions and how those decisions are impacted by levels of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning. Therefore, the researcher also seeks to determine the variables that are significant to ethical decision making as it relates to the ability of moral reasoning.

1.5 Relevance to Educational Leadership

School leaders are often faced with balancing a quandary of addressing the immediate and intimate needs of their buildings while adhering to the policies and laws of the local, state and federal government (Trimmer, 2013). Today's schools are also practicing a more defined level of autonomy (Dufour & Marzano, 2011). Building leaders and district leaders are sharing the decision making, calling into question the skills these leaders have as individuals and as a group to make ethical decisions using emotional intelligence and moral reasoning. Moreover, an obligation to adhere to policies can stifle a school leader's authenticity in decision making that is aligned with changing school climates.

The demographics of school communities are becoming increasingly diverse. With diversity come the new complexities in terms of how ethical decisions are made. It is also possible that school leaders have conflicting levels of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning due to the increasingly diverse experiences of today's educators. In a study of preservice teachers and social workers, a significant number of subjects found words like obedience to be controlling and threatened to reconsider their profession. This speaks to possible outliers in comparison to historically compliant school leaders.

Emotional intelligence has been quoted by many researchers as being essential to several leadership styles particularly those in which intrapersonal and interpersonal skills are heavily weighed. Emotional intelligence "affects how we manage behavior, navigate social complexities, and make personal decisions that achieve positive results" (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009, p. 17). Payne's 1985 work entitled, *A Study of Emotion*, Payne lists fear, pain and desire as the hurdles we encounter in engaging in an emotionally intelligent manner. Levels of emotional intelligence

are represented by emotional quotient (EQ). EQ measures one's ability to read their emotions and the emotions of those they encounter. Goleman (1998) reported on a study done by Dr. Alchenbach, a child psychologist, at the University of Vermont, on two groups of American school children, one in the 1970's and a comparable group in 1980's. While intelligence quotient (IQ) scores have been on the rise during the 10 year period, wealthy and poor students' emotional intelligence fell drastically. These students have migrated to today's workforce, which has increasing incidents of emotional deficits such as misery, abuse, and despair (p.11-12). The possibility that many of today's school leaders have faced similar childhood traumas, poses a need to address emotional competencies.

According to Bradberry and Greaves (2009), people with high emotional quotient (EQ) earn approximately \$29,000 more and outperform those with low EQ. In turn, one uses this knowledge to regulate their behavior and how they relate to others (Bradberry & Greaves). Those high in EI are more prepared to cultivate a stronger sense of collaboration amongst their organization. Employees have reported as feeling they are being heard and more willing to receive feedback (Mayer & Caruso, 2002). Bradberry and Greaves (2009) conclude that more so than education, intelligence and experience, EI is a predictor as to why one person succeeds and another person does not.

A leader with high levels of EI will have greater demonstrated success at school reform than those with lower levels of EI (Moore, 2009). In a study conducted by Lerner and Shonk (2010), the authors concluded that when employees are held accountable for the decisions they make they are less likely to make rash decisions due to lacking an understanding of how

emotions affect your ability to think soundly enough to make decisions for a large group of people.

Lynch (2012) suggests a need to understand how the various models of emotional intelligence influence educational leadership using additional meta-analytical studies using varied methodologies. Lynch notes while intelligence quotient (IQ) is often measured and used as a factor for hiring, emotional intelligence plays a more significant role in one's ability to preserve their position and be an effective employee.

1.6 Theoretical Framework

A more in-depth explanation of the authentic leadership theoretical framework in relation to ethical decision making and the impact of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning of school leaders will be presented in Chapter 2. As an introduction, it is prudent to illustrate the foundational concepts for theoretically and empirically examining authentic leadership.

Authentic comes from the Greek word "author." Authenticity can be defined using the quotes of Socrates and Aristotle "know thyself" (Goleman, 2011) and "to thine own self be true" (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, p. 319). When defining an authentic leader, one must be sure to acknowledge the differences in a veritable authentic leader (defined as actual and true) and a pseudo- authentic leader (defined as imitation, role playing) (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005). An authentic leader is the actual author of self. For the sake of the present study, authentic leader will be defined as the, "one who (1) is self-aware, humble, always seeking improvement, aware of those being lead and looks out for the welfare of others; (2) fosters high degrees of trust by building an ethical and moral framework: and (3) is committed to organizational success within the construct of social values" (Whitehead, 2009, p. 850).

2006 define AL as leaders that accept the personal freedom they have while keep in mind their organizational and community commitments that require them to make decisions that will build themselves morally.

From historical perspectives the leaders were only termed authentic if they coined themselves with the trait (Ferrara, 1994). While historically authenticity has been looked at from a philosophical perspective as “individual virtues and ethical choices,” psychologically authenticity has been discussed as “individual traits/states and identities” (Novicevic, Harvey, Buckley, Brown, & Evans, 2006). Leaders who have been unable to capture their personal authenticity, often become uninhibited in their understanding of purpose and self, thus, relinquishing the ownership of personal responsibility in tasks because due to withdrawal (Novicevic et al, 2006).

The absence of personal expression limits one’s ability to be an authentic leader. Novicevic et al. (2006) explains that authenticity is more about one sharing his or her beliefs and taking ownership for the decisions made based on those beliefs. Identifying if authenticity is a trait, state or socially constructed, has been a matter of debate. Avolio and Gardner found that one’s life story has impact on constructing one’s authenticity (2005). Despite the inconclusiveness in identifying authenticity’s origin, it has been found to be critical to how conflicts are handled.

Redmond and Murray (2015) attempt to define authentic leadership using three points of view:

- the interpersonal manner,
- the intrapersonal approach, and

- the developmental approach.

The interpersonal manner considers how a leader engages with his or her followers and how the followers in turn react. In a case study conducted by Akhras (2016) in the Middle East and North Africa, followers of business leaders reported that leadership authenticity was imperative as it resonated in the leader's personality and behavior displayed working amongst the subordinates. An authentic leader materializes out of first-rate interactions with one's followers. In a study conducted by Wang , Sui, Luthans, Wang, and Wu (2012) it is noted that these leaders display exemplary work habits that their followers can emulate.

The intrapersonal approach delves into the makings of an authentic leader. Such qualities are: being true to one's self, genuine, self-aware and the ability to control one's actions and emotions (Northouse, 2016). Walumbwa et al. (2008) directly correlate these behaviors positively to better job performance, improved organizational citizenship behavior and increased work engagement. A leader's life experience is integral in the shaping of their authenticity. Moreover, in a study conducted by Rodriguez (2016) it was found that each of the emotional intelligence subscales of Mayer-Salovey-Caruso's Emotional Intelligence test (MSCEIT): perceiving emotions, facilitating thought, understanding emotions and managing emotions were found to be positively and significantly related to authentic leadership constructs (Mayer et al., 2003).

Lastly, the developmental approach relies on the influence of key life experiences, some as extreme as major illnesses, calamities or sudden lifestyle changes to shape one's authenticity. AL development involves an "inherent ethical/moral component" (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, p. 324). Leaders have to consider their personal truths along with their followers and their

stakeholders. These new perspectives have been found to shape and redirect the leader into reengineering a personal underpinning grounded in the work of positive psychology, “an umbrella term for theories and research about what makes life most worth living” (Park, Peterson, & Seligman, 2004, p. 603; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) and ethical convictions (Northouse, 2016).

Today, AL falls under the construct of positive psychology, which places an emphasis on establishing an ideal environment where positive traits can be used to enable one to have a more productive daily routine (Ahmed & Boisvert, 2006). The principles and research of positive psychology allows for a more in-depth knowledge of how one’s emotional state (e.g. authenticity) and can encourage improved self-redirection or an enhanced response to therapeutic training (Ahmed & Boisvert, p. 335). One is authentic when the guesswork is taken out of what the role of the leader is in an organization (Seeman, 1966).

It is also judicious to note that while there are several overlaps when comparing authentic leadership to other theories such as transformational, charismatic, servant, and others, the overarching difference is the strong focus on knowing one’s self and being fully conscious of their values, beliefs and stance on issues of importance. Authentic leaders may or may not be transformational or charismatic (Aviolo & Gardner, 2005). Moreover, while servant and spiritual leaders align with authentic leaders in some regards, self-awareness, self-regulation and positive psychology are not as prominent constructs in the two theories (Aviolo & Gardner, 2005). Therefore, servant and spiritual leadership would fail to address some of the key themes the researcher is hoping to uncover in this study.

1.7 Authentic Leadership in Today's Workplace

Novicevic et al. (2006) challenge one to maintain self no matter what capacity one is operating in albeit professional or in the community. Such behavior builds a sense of trust and space for development when knowing the personality you are working with at all times. Authentic leaders are expected to be cognizant of their beliefs, share their values and show consistency in upholding those values, consider ethical rationale and act on them, continue to grow a positive mindset, and be recognized and valued for being a trailblazer of integrity (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005). Novicevic et al. synthesized from Chester Baynard's work on authenticity that an authentic leader is aware of how cooperation from themselves, their followers and the community is highly dependent on their moral capacity. One's authentic leadership is a result of them being an authentic individual (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa).

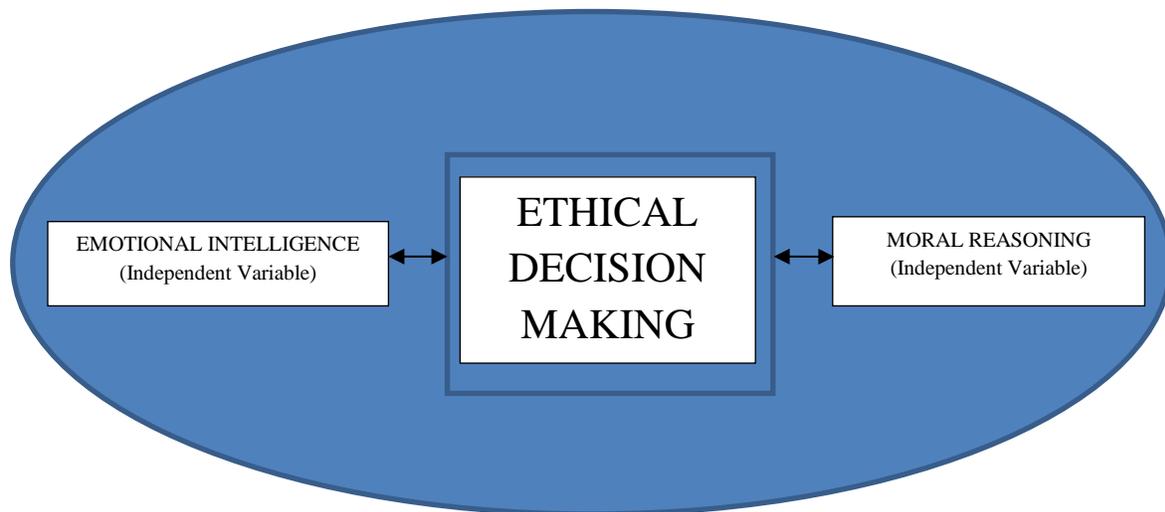
Using a group of MBA students as subjects for research, Northouse (2016) found that they were less likely to participate in immoral or unethical behaviors when led by an authentic leader. Onorato and Zhu's (2014) study complemented this revelation by finding that authentic leaders create within their employees a climate of devotion and pride that fosters teamwork, an exchange of ideas and improved performance. Studies suggest that without authenticity, one is not seen as trustworthy, supportive, and transparent (Manning, 1997; Novicevic et al., 2006). Authentic leaders are seen as being able to access varying perspectives of an issue using a more balanced approach (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Onorato & Zhu, 2014).

As a result, authentic leaders participate in actions that are representative of one's purpose (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). They are more successful and produce favorable outcomes in their work by being true to self (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005). They are cognizant of

the need to remain true in their dealings by staying transparent and welcoming high levels of engagement from their stakeholders (Novicevic et al., 2006). They do not say what they feel one wants to hear. In contrast, the inauthentic, high self-monitors, can be observed by how intensely they monitor themselves in words and deed, being careful about what they say and how it affects others. Whereas, an authentic leader, low self-monitors, can fluidly speak and do without being highly cognizant of their actions (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005; Ibarra, 2015).

Authentic leadership is applicable and doable (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005). It allows the followers to optimize their creativity as well give them an environment that models the idea that it is okay to be yourself. Two studies were done by Yagil and Medler-Liraz (2013) to examine the relationship between authentic leadership and follower authenticity. In the initial study it was expressed that authentic work environments involve an accessible leader which reduces ambiguity for both and makes room for cohesiveness and inventiveness within the organization. Consequently, in the second study involving the service industry, employees who were able to present their authentic self, alleviated any distrust the public may have typically had during encounters in the service industry thus producing favorable ratings. Gardner et al. (2011) suggest that studies in AL advance to ensure leaders understand how important it is to sustain their true self as a foundation of their leadership, creating an environment to be most effective. There is a need for more empirical studies on Authentic Leadership (AL; Garner et al.).

1.8 Conceptual Framework



1. Figure 1: Ethical Decision Making: Examination on the Impact on Emotional Intelligence and Moral Reasoning

Drew, Hardman, and Hosp (2008) defined research questions as a “focused and often detailed statement of research topic to be studied” (p. 26). This study sought to find the relationship between the independent variables: emotional intelligence and moral reasoning and the dependent variable: decision making.

RQ1: To what extent is there a relationship between emotional intelligence and ethical decision making?

H1. There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and ethical decision making.

RQ2: To what extent is there a relationship between moral reasoning and ethical decision making?

H2. There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between moral reasoning and ethical decision making.

1.10 Definition of Key Terms

When defining the terms in an effort to make your work easily understood to those not familiar with the scope of your work, it is important to define terms not commonly used (Creswell, 2009). The terms below are used throughout this study. Terms are listed in alphabetical order and defined based on their use in the manuscript.

- ***Authentic leadership (AL)***- a positive psychological behavioral theory that possess and encourage “positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development”
- ***Ethics***- “the philosophical study of morality” (Vaughn, 2013, p. 7)
- ***Ethical Decision making (EDM)***- “Ethical decision-making refers to the process of evaluating and choosing among alternatives in a manner consistent with ethical principles. ("Making Ethical Decisions: Process," 2016)
- ***Emotional intelligence (EI)***- the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships. (Goleman, 1998)
- ***Emotional-social intelligence (ESI)***- “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)

- **Morality**- “beliefs concerning right and wrong, good and bad; they can include judgements, rules, principles, and theories (Vaughn, 2013, p. 7)
- **Moral reasoning (MR)**- judging what is right or wrong (Vaughn, 2013)

1.11 Limitations

Careful consideration was dedicated to acknowledging issues of reliability and validity that can potentially occur that might have limited the scope of this research. The initial limit concerns the inability to delve deeper into causal factors that can be revealed with qualitative research opposed to the correlational discoveries revealed in the quantitative design selected. The researchers might also have been limited in their ability to get genuine responses from those subjects who are colleagues due to revealing unfavorable characteristics based on their responses. Questioning one’s own level of emotional intelligence in a self-report format can also lend itself inherited bias as opposed to a leader or follower’s report of the leader’s level of EI. Additional limitations considered were the leader’s potential to have varied characterizations of what is morally right or wrong. Differing ideologies, values and personal ethics have the probability to impact the reliability and validity of the study’s findings. Lastly, the theory of authentic leadership is a relatively new notion. Developed in the 1960’s, it has only recently begun to gain traction in leadership research as scholars seek to prove or disprove its relevance with various models, definitions and theories in addition to an increase in empirical data to support its significance in leadership research (Copeland, 2016; Novicevic et al., 2006)

1.12 Delimitations

This study was conducted using mid-Atlantic public school educators at the administrative level. To control for demographic variances, the researcher only used educators serving in either the principal or assistant principal role. The researcher felt this would provide the number of subjects needed to have a researchable sample size. Also it would provide data for future studies in which assumptions could be made about the impact a leader's ethical decision making, emotional intelligence, and moral reasoning have on teachers and students.

Using authentic leadership as a theoretical framework provided the researcher with a lens to view a person's true self and ability to lead others by surveying persons' ethical decision making and levels of emotional intelligence, and moral reasoning.

1.13 Summary

The definition of ethical decision making, emotional intelligence, and moral reasoning in this introduction served as the basis for the design of this research in the area of educational leadership as it related to the independent and dependent variables. The theoretical framework of authentic leadership was also defined. Each variable to be examined emerged in the research reviewed, which gave credence to the research questions of this study. Moreover, the introduction provided a nexus to examine how the variables decision making, emotional intelligence, and moral reasoning are correlated with each another.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter was to examine current literature related to school leaders' ethical decision making, emotional intelligence and moral reasoning. Being truthful, open and forthright are the leadership styles found to be valued by the followers (Manahan, 2009). Roberson adds that not only followers, but an institution's stakeholders tend to reflect the EI and MR of the employees they select (2010). Sanders outline a need for factors of EI to be implemented in an educational leader's philosophy of leadership (2009). Leaders unable to govern their emotions run the risk of decreased productivity, cooperation and support among their subordinates, peers and superiors (Eichmann, 2009).

“In making ethical decisions, it is necessary to perceive and eliminate unethical options and select the best ethical alternative” (“Making Ethical Decisions: Process,” 2016). This review sought to examine this aspect along with moral reasoning's impact on a leader's ethical decision making. The literature review first delved into emotional intelligence, the theoretical foundation of EI, and how EI impacts ethical decision making in leadership. Second, the researcher explored moral reasoning's influence on ethical decision making and a leader's ability to lead. Last, the researcher probed authentic leadership and connected how ethical decision making, emotional intelligence and moral reasoning each impact one's ability to be an authentic leader.

2.2 Decision Making

Decision making is an art that combines both knowledge and skill (Johnson & Kruse, 2009). Ethics is a “philosophical study of morality” (Vaughn, 2013, p. 7). Leaders in organizations are most effective when they have an awareness of the emotional strengths and

weaknesses and can invariably identify those same characteristics in their employees when making decisions and problem solving (Novac, 2010; Harati, 2013). Goleman et al. (2004) finds that the ability to relate to your employees makes for a dynamic and positive workplace. Crossan (2013) suggests drawing a clear distinction between decision making and ethical decision making.

Having knowledge about the process of decision making but not having the skill to decision make undermines one's competence in the profession (Johnson & Kruse, 2009). A study rendered by Harati (2013) further purports that EI is correlated with ethical decision making. It further finds that a leader having the ability to control their emotions in expression is more likely to make decisions using logic. Their expressions are also supported with justification more often. Decisions that can be justified tend to be ethical (Rebore, 2001). Further supporting Harati's study that also found that when a leader realizes the potential consequences their decisions have on themselves and those in their scope of influence near and broadly thus illustrating ethical decision making guided by emotional intelligence.

There are times when leaders must make a decision when there are not procedures, policies or rules in place as a guide (Johnson & Kruse, 2009). Employee equity, alleged harassment, incentive opportunities and suspected improprieties made by opponents are catalysts that require decision making protocols. Wagner (2009) believes decision making involves the following mental process: "data search, data collection, data analysis, data synthesis, and multiple inferential leaps" (Dewey, 1933, 1938). The amount of information gathered plays an integral role in the decision making process (Johnson & Kruse). In addition one must consider

the context, albeit cultural, economic, social, political or organizational, in which the decision is being made (Johnson & Kruse).

Making decisions in education are often made from an organizational context in which one is dealing with human services involving leadership, education, and providing counsel (Johnson & Kruse, 2009). Leaders are charged with making decisions that are “oriented in fairness, conscious and human welfare” (Candee & Kohlberg, 1987, p. 557). The process of making decisions in educational leadership has not been explored in depth (Johnson & Kruse). These leaders are often charged to make autonomous decisions that protect the rights and well-being of individuals as opposed to guarding rules and those in power, as suggested in heteronomous decision making (Candee & Kohlberg). Because students are mandated to be in school the relationship between the provider of the educational opportunity and the receiver often involves the act of negotiation which includes moral reasoning on the part of the decision maker (Johnson & Kruse). The mandate also results in the creation of divisive policy making (Johnson & Kruse) Johnson and Kruse believe that not looking at schools as organizations and a lack of consideration for the complex day to day truths that exist in school culture one will misunderstand how decisions are made by school administration.

Fullan (2001) purports that leaders must master the five core capacities: moral purpose, understanding of the change process, building relationships, knowledge building, and coherence making. NPBEA Standard 2 defines effective educational leaders as follows:

Effective educational leaders act ethically and according to professional norms to promote each student’s academic success and well-being.

Effective leaders:

- a) Act ethically and professionally in personal conduct, relationships with others, decision making, stewardship of the school's resources, and all aspects of school leadership.
- b) Act according to and promote the professional norms of integrity, fairness, transparency, trust, collaboration, perseverance, learning, and continuous improvement.
- c) Place children at the center of education and accept responsibility for each student's academic success and well-being.
- d) Safeguard and promote the values of democracy, individual freedom and responsibility, equity, social justice, community, and diversity.
- e) Lead with interpersonal and communication skill, social-emotional insight, and understanding of all students' and staff members' backgrounds and cultures.
- f) Provide moral direction for the school and promote ethical and professional behavior among faculty and staff. (NPBEA, 2015, p. 10)

Whereas Shapiro and Stefkovich (2016) believe that leaders should use their personal narratives and crisis to develop their own set of personal and professional codes. With today's school's staff and student demographics becoming more diverse, not just in terms of race but with culture, age, gender, religion, experiences or a mixture of either, there is a need for leaders to explore what personal and professional beliefs drive their ethical decision making. Keeping in mind the moral code of ethics in education is to "serve the best interest of the student" (Shapiro & Stefkovich).

Zero tolerance policies of the 1980s still linger in many schools, particularly on the secondary level as a result of what seems to be increasingly violent acts in schools (Gorman & Pauken, 2003). With these policies came a shift in a school administrator's ability to use their discretion or moral reasoning, through credible training, comprised of ethics and moral codes that are in the best interest of the student and the school community as a whole. A disproportion in the manner in which zero tolerance was relegated (Dixon, 2013; Skiba, 2014), a disregard for

the rights of students, a lack of consideration for the infractions origin, in addition to the effects that zero tolerance has had on the mental wellbeing of students has challenged school districts to reevaluate the manner in which decisions are made as it relates to student discipline.

Zero tolerance policies have also been said to contribute to the school to prison pipeline, particularly for those students who also suffer from mental illness (Monterastelli, 2017). In addition, in a study conducted by Monterastelli, in the last three decades students of color were far more likely to be disciplined more harshly than their Caucasian counterparts. This study and others more prolifically concluded that students in minority schools discipline was harsher based on a correlation of the effects extremely violent incidents that occurred in white suburban schools (Triplett, 2014,).

As power is redistributed back to the hands of school administrators it is evident that a need for research and practice in ethical decision making is a fundamental hallmark of an educational leader. While the greater responsibility of district budgets typically is the superintendent's and School Business Officer's (Miller, 2009), school principals are greatly responsible for how their school budgets are allocated and spent. As principal accountability increase in the past three decades, a call for decentralization and more autonomy with respect how site-based decisions are made by school leaders (Murphy & Beck, 1995; Myer, 2010). With a constant fluctuation of money coming in through federal, state, and local funding in addition to grants, fundraising and gifts to schools, there are also cuts in funding that can blindside what seems to be an adequate budget. School administrators are expected be fair, unbiased, judicious and democratic as they distribute allocate resources (Strike et al., 2005). School leaders

must also be prepared to adjust budget lines which call for ethical decisions to be made, which includes:

- hiring and cutting faculty and staff,
- raising and cutting salaries,
- funding or defunding educational and extracurricular programming,
- providing acceptable or unacceptable transportation services,
- providing safe or incident prone school facilities and equipment, and
- heating or cooling buildings to comfortable temperatures (Miller, 2009; Murphy & Beck, 1995).

Deciding the value of each of these budget lines can be done collaboratively with the oversight and cooperation of school boards, faculty, parents and the community but ultimately school leaders will be faced with some level of autonomy, as fiscal stewards, to make the hard decisions or at a minimum provide input with students as the primary focus. Funding shifts can potentially impact student achievement and the overall education of the “whole child” (Miller, 2009, p. 76). The pressure to make ethical decisions as building leaders does not come without possible pushback and political pressures from unions, the school board, parents and other members of the community. In addition an expectation to consider the laws, policies, contracts, rules, vision, mission, key priorities, cultures, traditions and norms of the institution.

In a study done by Miller (2009), superintendents shared that balancing an educational institutions budget is a skilled widely learned while you are in control of the budget. With school budgets available to the public school leaders can face a great deal of scrutiny in terms of how

public funds are being spent (Miller, 2009). Superintendent in Miller's study felt they best way to sustain fiscal soundness is through school community partnerships and fostering the faith of the public via transparency and demonstrating a track record of good stewardship. The public is looking for favorable outcomes per the use of provided funds (Meyer, 2010). School referendums often place emphasis on the amount percentage of funds that impact students directly. Meyer found in a study conducted a newly formed Empowerment schools newer principals lacked the background knowledge needed to make informed ethical decisions but were given more autonomy to make decisions than their more established sister schools (Meyer, 2010).

In a study of finance and accounting professionals in government positions conducted by Roy (2009), findings suggested that ethical decisions were more probable when a greater number of people could face possible detriment as opposed a few. The same study investigated the ethical climate in which decisions were made. A work climate that did not operate in an ethical manner did not impact the ethical decision making of employees. However the study did find that a work climate that operates in high ethical regard was more conducive to employees making ethical decisions.

Sweeney's (2009) study reviewed the practices of school district human resources administrators as it related to consistency with upholding federal employment law as it relates to chronic illness of school employees. Initial survey of administrators in human resources and directly handling the claims of employees for ADA accommodations, FMLA and employee leave requests, were a strict adherence to the law with no room for variance. A more in depth study through interviews found that subjects in "unique and extenuating circumstances" found

ways to circumvent the policies or educate employees on work arounds. Employees with seniority and stellar work records were provided with grace when illness challenged their quality of life, as if it were consolation for what they have given to the district. These school leaders also struggled with weighing the best interests of the students and employee, giving more credence to critical role a teacher may play in relation to the student than other support staff such as a custodian or district office clerk. Mental illness and fitness to teach were also issues that brought into question the school administrator's ability to make ethical decisions. Variables used to reason were performance, seniority and the nature of illness. However one should question whether protected classes and relationships would have a bearing on leniency.

2.3 Emotional Intelligence

The study of intelligence has reached far beyond Binet's early 1900s study of intelligence quotient more commonly known as IQ testing. In the early 1980s, Howard Gardner introduced his theory of multiple intelligences (MI). Each of the intelligences exists in all human beings at varying degrees (Butler, 2007). In the work place multiple intelligences is used to determine how an employee responds to their situation (Gardner, 2006). It is Gardner's belief that "human cognitive competence is better described in terms of a set of abilities, talents, or mental skills" (Gardner, 2006, p. 6). He has coined these competencies as intelligences.

Multiple intelligences take a more pluralistic position of the study of intelligence offering several different areas in which one can be intelligent. Each of the intelligences is activated by an intrinsically or extrinsically formed trait. Multiple intelligences are derived from the world around us which includes the elements of nature, sounds, rhythms, language and the humans we encounter (Gardner, 1996). Multiple intelligences cannot be assessed (Gardner).

However one can be assessed according to their skill level on certain tasks thus creating a measure of intelligence in that area (Gardner). Validity of intelligence testing is derived from the number of tasks the subject completes illustrating their strength or weakness in an intelligence (Gardner). Mayer, Salovey and Caruso drew fascination with what are considered hot intelligences. These intelligences consist of “social, practical, personal and of course, emotional information (Mayer et al., 2004, p. 198).

Fear, desire and pain can be eradicated by a choice if a display of emotion is not appropriate (Payne, 1983). There was a time when emotion was a sign of insanity (Payne). Pointedly early Greek and Roman philosophers referred to stoicism, *or emotion repression* as a means to void the destruction that emotion can potentially cause by employing logic of universal reason (Russell, 1967). Having an understanding of the emotion one may experience, in addition to when to express, suppress or relegate the emotion is in part emotional intelligence. In today’s society multi-tasking and electronic forms of communication such as email, text messages, voice mails and conference calls require us to make decisions based on inferences and proceed. Leaders who have functional use of their emotional intelligence are more successful than those who have not tapped in to this intelligence (Mayer & Caruso, 2002).

One can naturally possess more emotional intelligence than their peers. However, according to Bradberry and Greaves (2009), those who do not have a natural trait can learn EI over time. Emotion can be relegated by strength of will (Payne, 1983). Information enters you spinal cord and has to pass through the limbic system where you feel before it gets to the frontal lobe where you reason. Emotions are experienced before logic however they will emerge through communication, which is the basis for emotional intelligence (Bradberry & Greaves). In

earlier research intelligence quotient was used as a predictor of success. Scientist then found that people on the higher range of IQ were more successful than those with average intelligence only 20% of the time while people with average intelligence were more successful than those on the high range of IQ seventy percent of the time (Bradberry & Greaves).

Emotional Quotient is made up of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management (Bradberry & Greaves). Our critical thinking is a general function but is garnered from one or more of our intelligences (Gardner, 1996), each of which showing more creativity than the other.

Salovey and Mayer coined EI as having 4 branches: perception of emotion, facilitating thought with emotion, understanding emotion and managing emotion (Salovey et al., 2004).

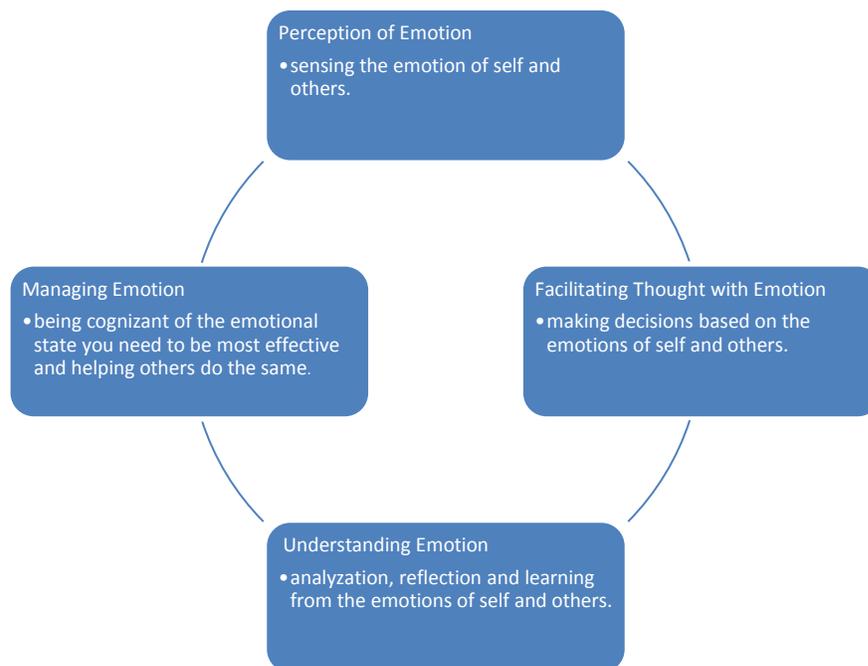


Figure 2: Four Branches of Emotional Intelligence (Salovey et al., 2004)

Hay Group, McClelland Center for Research and Innovation, & Wolff, S. B. (2005) developed the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) to assess competencies of emotion and positive social behaviors (Conte, 2005). The competencies: self-awareness, social awareness, self-management and social skills were found to overlap with personality dimensions. Bar-On's model describes a mix of interdependent social and emotional competencies, skills and facilitators that influence behavior (Bar-On, 2006). The most effective leaders are those who combine their intellectual capacity with emotional intelligence (Fullan, 2001).

Mayer et al. (2003) first developed the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale. It was arguably found to have scoring concerns and low reliability on subscales (Conte, 2005; Mayer et al., 2004). The MCEIT was developed by Mayer, Salovey and Caruso as an ability test that uses eight tasks to measure the four branches of emotional intelligence. The test has an internal consistency reliability of 0.68.

Schutte et al. (2009) generated the Assessing Emotions Scale based on Salovey and Mayer's model of emotional intelligence and abilities, to assess the EI trait. This instrument uses a four factor model as well: "appraisal of emotion in the self and others, expression of emotion, regulation of emotion in the self and others, and utilization of emotion in solving problems. Unlike the previous studies the Schutte remains aligned with the four factors of emotional intelligence in respect to the EQi that draws focus on social intelligence and the ECI that look at positive social behaviors. Schutte et al. reports a Cronbach alpha of .78.

In a study by done by French researchers, Di Fabio & Palazzeschi (2009), leaders with high emotional intelligence has a better understanding of one's emotion and the ability to think and act based on the emotional experience one has had. These researchers also found that

personality played a role one having a greater emotional intelligence and being able to make difficult decisions. Subjects who were “reflexive, scrupulous, neat, accurate, perseverant, cooperative, altruist, and friendly, generous and empathetic” seemed to have a less difficult time making difficult decisions. Having the ability to read an environment and identify potential hazards requires a level of emotional intelligence as well (Hess & Bacigalupo, 2013).

In a study of 100 Kenyan principals, using the MSCEIT researchers found that experiential emotional intelligence and perceiving emotional intelligence had a significant relationship to a school’s performance as rated by their immediate supervisors (Ayiro, 2009). Grobler (2016) when surveying South African teacher’s perception of EI in principals who were facilitating the implementation of a mandated curriculum found that the greater the leader’s EI the more successful the implementation of the curriculum was. Williams (2004) found that competencies such as self-confidence, achievement orientation, teamwork/collaboration and analytical thinking, self-management and social skills emerged frequently when studying the characteristics of outstanding principals. Nearly 30% of a principals leadership practices can be foreseen by their degree of emotional intelligence (May-Vollmar, 2017).

In a recent qualitative study of superintendents, Fulcher (2017) found that, overwhelmingly, leaders agreed that emotional intelligence is the hallmark of their ability to lead. Both male and female superintendents solidified the characteristic of self-awareness as being critical in their day to day operations. Making others feel safe, which includes the entire district community of parents, students and teachers, also emerged as an essential driver behind the superintendents maintaining a high level of emotional intelligence particularly in high stress situations. Each of the female superintendents in the study mentioned their gender being another

reason as to why they felt the need to maintain charge of their emotions, particularly because they felt that expectation was higher for them than their male peers. Some leaders felt that EI could be learned but found it very difficult to teach someone the skill, particularly if they were not interested in personal improvement. They felt learning EI stemmed more so from situations and experiences.

2.4 Moral Reasoning

Moral reasoning, also coined as moral judgment, has been defined as judging right or wrong (Kohlberg, 1996). In a study done by Baron and Miller, the researcher found that Americans tend to go above and beyond in helping particularly when there is a reward of praise attached (2008). In educational leadership, praise is not distributed in excess. Therefore making morally cognitive decisions requires one to be able to innately retrieve their moral compass and process a number of variables and considerations (Bartels, 2008).

Morality like humor is dependent on one's culture (Gardner, 2006). The processes that are fundamental to moral cognition are deontology and consequentialism (Bartels, 2008). While deontology requires one to follow the rules of the culture, consequentialism requires one to do a cost benefit analysis when making a decision (Bartels, 2008; Fernandez-Berrocal & Extremera, 2005). Producing the best consequence is the goal in this decision making norm. Moreover utilitarianism, a byproduct of consequentialism goes a step further requiring one to produce an outcome that would be most favorable to the majority of subjects. Moral reasoning is susceptible to the framework in which it is being used as one can use moral rules, their emotions or a cost benefit analysis to come to a moral judgment in decision making.

Heuristics, a potential side effect to a deficit in moral reasoning, is a mental shortcut, rule of thumb, an educated guess, intuition, figuring things out on your own (Heuristic, 2014). Heuristic thinking not only contaminates one's moral compass but has a domino effect in government and judicial decision making (Fernandez-Berrocal & Extremera, 2005). Fernandez-Berrocal and Extremera suggest additional research be done on moral judgments. These researchers felt decisions using heuristics are error prone (Fernandez-Berrocal & Extremera). Using underlining moral intuition as a basis for decision making without using reflection lacks reliability and can lead to error (Fernandez-Berrocal & Extremera).

Decision makers must be careful about using familiarity to address both unusual and challenging problems (Fernandez-Berrocal & Extremera, 2005). Anderson (2005) suggests that reflection should not supersede heuristics but be considered likely when debating solutions. Graver (2009) appeals that using reason, consideration and focus are the avenues to which clear judgment and inner peace could be found. Cost-benefit analysis is a moral heuristic that is often accepted once the drawbacks are squarely presented and adhered to (Fernandez-Berrocal & Extremera).

Some of today's philosophers are raising question to one's moral judgment as it relates to authenticity (Novicevic et al, 2006). A leader is often faced with their own personal standards of operation or thinking versus those of group and having to resolve the two. However an authentic leader is expected to perform outside of the bounds of the status quo to find solutions to moral conflicts (Pianalato, 2003).

One who fails to exert the authenticity of a moral component to decision making face detriments, in their decision making that can be costly.

These detriments coined by Novicevic et al. (2006) are:

- moral deterioration,
- moral paralysis, and
- moral disengagement.

Moral deterioration speaks to the leader being morally indecisive. Leaving their followers to not only complete their tasks but taking responsibility for their failures. Leaders exhibiting moral paralysis fail to act due to their absence of self-confidence in the position they were hired to do. Oftentimes perfectionists, the fear of failure binds their ability to act leaving those within their influence vulnerable to disaster. Morally disengaged leaders however, go along to get along while abandoning their personally morality. These leaders often find themselves bankrupt in self-respect and overwhelmed with guilt due to being void of being true to self (Barnard, 1938).

Educational institutions, once considered the bedrock for moral development, no longer considers morality a focus (Gallant, 2011; Strike, 2008). Moreover, graduate programs in education have been found to invest less in the moral development of their students unlike schools of medicine, law and other professions (Greer et al., 2015). This can be concerning considering Rest (1979) found that adults moral judgement tends to plateau once they conclude formalized education. Rest concluded that post academia work experiences have little impact on the development of moral judgment therefore encouraging individuals to seek education past high school. Bebeau, on the other hand found merit in a graduate student's field experience when building upon their moral reasoning acumen (Thoma & Bebeau, 2013). Greer et al.'s study found that 113 master's, educational specialist and doctoral level educational leadership/administration students of from five institutions administered the DIT-2 electronically

rated considerably lower on post conventional moral thinking. This is Kohlberg's highest level of moral development in which one must consider right and wrong which may outweigh individual needs (Crain, 1985).

Myers (2015) in a longitudinal study of two cohorts of business students found that the first cohort which was rated in the first course of their first year of study had significantly lower P scores of moral reasoning than the second cohort of students at the conclusion of their fourth and final year of business school from 35.91 to 42.00 (*t* test score of .95), with the N2 indexes increasing from 33.06 to 39.72 (*t* test score of .90). The study suggests that the more collegial training one has the greater their levels of moral reasoning.

2.5 Summary

The literature review in Chapter 2 delivered a more in-depth examination of the key variables in the study: ethical decision making, emotional intelligence, and moral reasoning, as well as their correlations with leadership of school administrators.

Ethical decision making calls into question the duty of school principals and their ability to use critical thinking skills, complemented with their morality that lends to impartiality, virtue, and good character. For every conflict there is an ethical consideration (Vaughn, 2013). Therefore it is critical that school leaders are equipped and resourceful when tough decisions are to be made. Bruine de Bruin, Parker & Fischhoff (2007) suggested that it is more likely people will have better decision making outcomes if they subscribe to better decision making processes. The literature review also examined authentic leadership by defining its position in the science of positive psychology. The framework of authentic leadership theory is built on the need for one to be true to self. In making ethical decisions leaders must be cognizant that ultimately they will

have to contend with themselves in terms of the decision that was made. The chapter closed with the suggestions based on the literature that ethical decision making has the propensity to be increased with high levels of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning framed by authenticity. The reader is encouraged that the AL theory constructs can be applied and practiced with consideration.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the methods used to measure ethical decision making and examine the impact of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning of school leaders. The chapter includes explanations of the sample size, demographics of the subjects, methods used to determine the analyses, and the analyses that were used.

3.2 Research Design

The researcher used a non-experimental, quantitative study design method to analyze the data. Three survey instruments were used to gather data related to the dependent variable, decision making and the two independent variables emotional intelligence and moral reasoning. In this survey design, the researcher sought to make generalizations or create claims per the population being researched (Creswell, 1998; Drew & Hardman, 2008). Based on a sample population, the researcher sought to identify the attitudes, opinions and trends using an analysis of the data (Creswell, 1998).

The study was designed to give educational leaders, particularly those responsible for hiring new administrators, insight into the decision making skills one needs to lead effectively. The study examined ethical decision making and the impact of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning of school leaders. Litchman (2010, p. 82) states "the key is to identify the characteristic, trait or behavior in advance and then identify individuals who have or are thought to have the characteristic." Babbie (1990) suggests one identify a behavior and or characteristic that can be generalized using a segment of the population for implications of that behavior. The purpose was to examine school leader's ethical decision making and the impact of the variables

of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning. This single group design limited the possible cost of comparison groups which “can be costly and have little chance of payoff” (Linn, 1990, p. 44). A survey method was used to expedite a turnaround that would support the demand for research on decision making in leadership (Cranston & Kusanovich, 2014; Locke & Anderson, 2014; Roberto, 2014). While Babbie (2002) recommends one completes a qualitative and quantitative analysis to have a depth of data, this research relied more heavily on numerical data and patterns within the statistics in order to be enlightened with causality of the dependent variable, ethical decision making and independent variables, emotional intelligence and moral reasoning.

3.3 Sample Subjects

Using purposive sampling, the researcher requested that state public school district superintendents consent to participate in the study. Purposive sampling, also called judgment sampling, allowed the researcher to survey subjects that met the criteria the research was targeting (Ayiro, 2012; Huck, 2004). Fourteen school districts were asked to participate in the study and offered a copy of the results at the conclusion of the study. Four regretfully declined participation. One was omitted from consideration because it required school board approval which can take an additional thirty days which was not in alignment with the timeline for the study to be completed. Superintendent’s signed consent was received by nine of the fourteen superintendents invited.

Subjects were contacted by email via the Survey Monkey software. The number of eligible subjects in each district ranged from 4 to 35. The invitation email contained a cover letter advising subjects that permission was received by their superintendent to conduct a research study of school leaders in the district in which they are employed. Following the cover

letter was a letter of consent introducing the researcher, the academic program, the purpose and goal of the study. Subjects were also given an expected timeline, of 31 days, for the survey to be submitted back to the researcher for scoring. The informed consent also contained an explanation of how the results of the study will be handled and used (Creswell, 1998). To address a subject's desire to give "socially desirable" responses the researcher suggested the subjects consider the survey as an opportunity to self-reflect and confidentiality was reiterated (Schutte et al., 2009).

A confidentiality clause in addition to the option to decline participation at any time during the duration of the study and where to call if there were questions or concerns about the study was also provided. Subjects were required to affirm they had read and understood the informed consent, agreed to be a subject in the research study, and were aware that they could decline participation in the study at any time (Creswell, 2009). Checking, I affirm, served as their electronic signature.

In an attempt to garner an acceptable response rate, number of subjects to return the survey, a follow up email was sent to any subject that had not completed the survey within two weeks of the survey being sent giving a reminder of the response due date. A total of 230 instruments were completed. Sixteen responses were eliminated during the DIT scoring due to concerns with consistency and reliability. Checks for consistency and reliability suggested that the subject did not understand the directions or did not take the measure seriously. Once responses were received informed consent forms were saved in a password secured electronic file. Each subject's response was given a unique identifier to maintain the confidentiality of each subject and saved in a password secure data file during data analysis. Now that the study is

complete, the data file has been downloaded to an external hard drive, stored in a locked safe and erased from previously maintained storage devices.

3.4 Instrumentation and Data Collection

Once consent was checked the subjects were led to four data collection instruments. The first instrument gathered demographic information on each subject, which included the subject's age, degree of education, gender, ethnicity, current position, total years in education, total years as a school administrator and number of years in current position. The second instrument presented was the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES), measuring Emotional Intelligence. Thirdly the subject was led to complete the Adult Decision-Making Competence (A-DMC) to measure decision making developed by Bruine de Bruin, Parker and Fischhoff (2007) to measure individual differences in adult decision making. The fourth and final measure presented was the Defining Issues Test-2 (DIT-2), prepared by Rest and Narvaez (1998), which measures morality reasoning.

Subjects were asked to complete the four surveys within a month. Notably when completing the DIT-2 portion, subjects were encouraged to complete the survey in one sitting as recommended by the survey's developer. On average, using Survey Monkey's analytics, completing all four surveys (demographics, AES, A-DMC and DIT-2), took subjects an average of 29 minutes. In total, 214 surveys were completed.

3.5 Data Analysis

The four data sets (demographics, AES, DIT-2 and A-DMC) were exported from Survey Monkey in Statistical Packages for Social Science (SPSS) Version 25 and Excel format for data analysis. SPSS was used to analyze the data sets for the AES and the A-DMC. However, scores

for the DIT-2 and demographics were required to be calculated for norming by the Center for the Study of Ethical Development at the University of Alabama. The researcher extracted an export, in both a numerical and actual answer text format, for scoring submission. SPSS was also used by the scorers to run the statistical analysis for the DIT-2 and demographics. The scores were returned to the researcher within a week in SPSS and Excel format as requested. The results of the data analysis are reported using descriptive and inferential statistics for the independent and dependent variables (Creswell, 1998). Pearson correlation two-tailed tests of significance was used to initially to determine the linear correlations between variables. In a Pearson correlation, two continuous variables are examined to establish the direction and strength of their relationship (Pallant, 2001).

3.6 Summary

Chapter 3 described the rationale for the study and reintroduced the variables by including the researcher's intent to pinpoint behaviors or characteristics using a purposively sampled population, which could be generalized and supported by the literature review. The study's sampling, size of the sample, survey instruments, collection methods used in this non-experimental research design and intended analysis was also explained. After the acknowledgement of informed consent, 230 instruments were completed. Ultimately, due to concerns of consistency and reliability, 16 instruments were purged from the data set, leaving 214 that were scored in the final data analysis.

CHAPTER 4: DATA AND RESULTS

This chapter discusses the data findings and analyses that were performed using SPSS software. It explains the impact of the sample size, demographics of the subjects, analyses used, methods used to determine the analyses, and the manner in which the data was examined and the results derived from the data will be explained. Also presented are the results of the tested research hypotheses examining the relationships between the independent variables of emotional intelligence, moral reasoning, demographic variables (age and gender) and the dependent variable of ethical decision making. The culminating sections of the chapter was designated for a review of the research questions, the results of the tested research hypotheses examining the relationships between the independent variables of emotional intelligence, moral reasoning, demographic variables (age and gender) and the dependent variable of ethical decision making, along with methodological assumptions and any limitations.

4.1 Findings

The researcher's intent was to calculate a correlation between the AES, which measures emotional intelligence and A-DMC which measures decision making, as well as calculate a correlation between the DIT2, which measures moral reasoning and the A-DMC, using the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS).

From this point in the findings, subjects will also be referred to as building leaders. The operative characteristics of building leaders are that they are: (a) building administrators responsible for the direction or supervision of school employees; (b) employed in one of several public school districts in the selected state (c) state certified to be administrators at the building level; and (d) appointed the position of principal, assistant, associate, or vice principal.

4.2 Demographics of Subjects

The purpose of collecting the demographic data was to enable the researcher to examine themes that could potentially emerge based on age, gender, educational level, and ethnic background (Creswell, 2009). The researcher was also interested making comparisons and assumptions about the subjects' experiences in the field of education. Therefore, additional demographic information was requested such as the school leader's position (principal or assistant principal, associate principal, or vice principal), total years in education field (as a para-educator, teacher, administrator), total years as a school administrator (principal or assistant, associate, or vice principal), and the number of years in current position.

Demographic data collected on all subjects is illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2

Frequencies of Demographic Variables

Age	<i>f</i>	Rel <i>f</i>	<i>cf</i>	Percentile
25–29	1	0.02	54	100.00
30–39	12	0.22	53	98.15
40–49	33	0.61	41	75.93
50–59	7	0.13	8	14.81
60+	1	0.02	1	1.85
Gender				
Female	37	0.69	54	100.00
Male	17	0.31	17	31.48
Ethnicity				
African American	10	0.19	54	100.00
Caucasian	39	0.72	44	81.48
Other	5	0.09	5	9.26
Degree				
Bachelors	0	0.00	0	0.00
Masters	41	0.76	54	100.00
Doctorate	13	0.24	13	24.07
Post Doctorate	0	0.00	0	0.00
Position Title				
Principal	23	0.43	54	100.00
Assistant Principal	31	0.57	31	57.41
Total Years in the Field of Education				
3–5 years	0	0.00	54	0.00
6–10 years	4	0.07	54	100.00
11–19 years	28	0.52	50	92.59
20–29 years	20	0.37	22	40.74
30 years or more	2	0.04	2	3.70
Total Years as a School Administrator				
0–1 years	7	0.13	54	100.00
2–5 years	18	0.33	47	87.04
6–10 years	20	0.37	29	53.70
11–20 years	9	0.17	9	16.67
21–29 years	0	0.00	0	0.00
30 years or more	0	0.00	0	0.00
Number of Years in Current Position				
0–1 years	13	0.24	54	100.00

2–5 years	29	0.54	41	75.93
6–10 years	10	0.19	12	22.22
11–20 years	2	0.04	2	3.70
21–29 years	0	0.00	0	0.00
30 years or more	0	0.00	0	0.00

Note. $N = 54$

Sixty-one percent of the school leaders' ages were between 40-49, with 24% being below 40 and 15% above 49. Of the subjects 69% were female and 31% were male. Nearly three quarters of the sample (72%) were Caucasian, nearly a fifth (19%) were African American, and the remaining school leaders (9%) were of various ethnicities.

Approximately three-quarters (76%) of the sample's highest degree achieved was a master's, while the remaining leaders (24%) had attained a doctorate degree. Close to three-fifths (57%) of the school leaders were principals and the remaining 43% were assistant principals.

In terms of experience, the greatest number of school leaders (52%) had been working in the field of education ranging from 11-19 years, followed by those with 20-29 years of experience (37%); the remaining school leaders had less than eleven years in the field of education (7%) or over 29 years (4%). None of the subjects had less than five years in the field, which mirrors the administration certification requirement of five years of teaching experience prior to becoming a certified public school administrator in the subjects' state.

The years of experience as a building administrator for the school leaders was greatest at the 6-10 year range (37%), followed by 2-5 year of experience as a school leader (33%); the remaining school leaders (29%) had more than ten years of experience or less than five years of experience in school building leadership. Over half of the school leaders (54%) had been in the current level of building administration between two and five years. Almost a quarter of the

school leaders (24%) had been in their position for one year or less. The remaining school leaders (22%) had held their current position for over ten years.

In order to gather the subjects' levels of ethical decision making, emotional intelligence and moral reasoning the researcher administered three questionnaire survey instruments: the Adult Decision Making Competence (A-DMC), Assessing Emotions Scales (AES) and the Defining Issues Test (DIT2). A description of each instrument is provided below.

4.3 Instruments and Descriptive Data

Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)

To measure a school leader's emotional intelligence the researcher administered the Assessing Emotions Scale (Schutte et al, 2009). The test also referred to in other studies as the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale, the Emotional Intelligence Scale, or the Self-Report Emotional Test was developed in response to the Salovey and Mayer's emotional intelligence model (1990). The four branches of emotional intelligence applied were appraisal and expression of self and other's emotion, regulation of self and other's emotion and solving problems utilizing emotion. This scale purports to measure emotional intelligence in terms of characteristics or traits developed by Salovey and Mayer.

The Assessing Emotions Scale has been used in diverse populations ranging from fifth year grade school students to adults (Schutte, 2009). Studies conducted using the Assessing Emotions Scale suggests the scale could be useful for one reflecting on career aspirations or concerned with their emotional state (Schutte et al., 2009). The instrument was not suggested for candidates looking to gain favorably in an organization (Schutte et al., 2009). It is suggested

ability or performance measurements be used for employee screening or situation where one feels obligated to impress the assessor (Schutte et al., 2009).

The Assessing Emotions Scale used characteristics and traits to measure the EI of each subject, which in previous studies had been found to be as equally as relevant as ability (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, 2000). The Assessing Emotions Scale is a self-report scale consisting of 33 items central to emotional intelligence. Subjects used a 5 point scale to rate identifying factors of EI.

As of 2009, Schutte et al. reports the use of the Assessing Emotions Scale had been published in over 200 pieces of literature (2009). The internal consistency of the Assessing Emotions Scale has been reported as high as 0.90. However, it has a retest reliability of 0.78 and a mean alpha using multiple tests of 0.87.

While other studies extend beyond EI into other adaptation of the construct, such as emotional social intelligence (Bar-On, 2000), this level of exploration has been reported to create nebulous interpretations of what exactly is being measured (Contee, 2005). For the sake of the study, the researcher used the Assessing Emotions Scale which is framed within the original emotional intelligence model of Salovey and Mayer. Subjects were asked the 33 questions which probed their emotions or response linked to their emotion using a likert scale to decide if the statement was a true depiction of how they respond and to what degree using 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = somewhat agree, 3 = neither agree or disagree, 4 = somewhat agree or 5 = strong agree.

Table 3 provides the findings of the Assessing Emotions Scale's total mean score in addition to the scores for each of the measure's subscales, as well as the total sum scores.

Table 3

Assessing Emotions Scale – Descriptive Statistics

	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
AES Mean	3.42	4.82	4.16	0.34
Perception of Emotion	3.3	5	4.18	0.42
AES Managing Self Emotions	3.11	5	4.32	0.43
Managing Others' Emotions	3.25	4.88	4.09	0.39
Utilization of Emotion	2.5	4.83	3.97	0.44
AES Sum	113	159	137.26	11.27

Note. *N* = 54.

Sum scores ranged from 33 to 165. The higher the score, the more the subject exhibits the characteristic of emotional intelligence (Schutte et al., 2009). The AES had a mean of 4.16 and a standard deviation of 0.34. School leaders on average scored highest in the area of managing self-emotions. The researcher used the AES's mean score to complete the subsequent correlation.

Defining Issues Test (DIT2)

Derived from Kohlberg's theory of moral development the Defining Issues Test (DIT2) instrument was used to measure the subject's use of three schemas of Moral Reasoning. DIT2 required subjects to order or give value to different issues that may result from a presented problem (Rest et al., 1999). The DIT2 has a Cronbach alpha of .77. It has a test retest P index of 0.71 to 0.82 and the D index ranges from 0.62-0.83 (Rest et al., 1987). Scores from the DIT have significant correlations to "many 'prosocial' behaviors and to desired professional decision making" including "political attitudes and choices" (Rest et al., 2000, p. 390-391). It also has a higher validity than original DIT.

The DIT evolves using Kohlberg's earlier attempts to measure morals. Like Kohlberg, whose work was largely based on macromorality, a strict configuration of laws, traditions and titles, that has an effect on society as a whole (Rest et al. 1999), the DIT maintains the relevant measures of macromorality and cognition. The DIT also emphasizes personal construction which upholds the importance of rights, responsibilities, maintaining order and reciprocity (Rest et al., 1999).

For the purpose of this study the online DIT2 was used as opposed to the traditional paper and pencil version of the test. In a study conducted by Xu et al., the online version of the DIT was compared to the original paper and pencil instrument (2007). The P scores reveal a near Cronbach alpha of $\alpha=.54$ for online measure and $\alpha = .56$ for the pencil and paper measure (2007). Subjects in this study are familiar with technology. Therefore, the researcher believed the online version would be more suitable and accommodating to their busy schedules. The test retest value of the online DIT2 ranges from .53 to .57.

In this study the DIT 2 developmental indices which are comprised of the moral schema scores and the N2 score. There are three moral schemas which are views that depict one's personal interests (Personal Interest), views that depict one's consistency to maintain social laws and norms (Maintaining Norms) and views that depict one's moral ideal or process for making decisions about difficult moral topics (Postconventional or P-score). More recently an N2 score was considered because it was found to yield statistically more significant results than the P score. The N2 score is two parts. The first part, which highly comparable to the P-score, reports a subjects prioritization of Postconventional items, and low ratings received on Personal Interest

items. These two parts are added to create one score which includes the P-score and data from the ratings data multiplied by three.

For the purpose of this study the researcher chose to solely use the N2 score based on the higher construct validity score which produces the result with the highest level of moral reasoning (Rest, Thoma, Narvaez, & Babeau, 1997). In addition the N-Score is strongly correlated with the P score exhibiting avoidable redundancy (Rest et al.).

Table 4
Defining Issues Test – Descriptive Statistics

	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
P-score Post Conventional	6	72	35.67	14.76
Stage23 Personal Interest	2	44	21.81	10.07
Stage4P Maintain Norms	14	62	36.85	12.33
N2Score New Post Conventional	0.28	68.12	31.58	14.35

Note. *N* = 54.

As illustrated in Table 4, the N2 score had a mean of 31.58 and a standard deviation of 14.35.

Comparably, the P-score had a mean of 35.67 and a standard deviation of 14.76.

Adult Decision Making Competence (A-DMC)

To measure decision making the researcher used the Adult Decision Making Competence (A-DMC) self-report. This test was adapted from the Youth Decision Making Competence (Y-DMC) to measure the decision making of adults (Bolavar,2013; Bruine de Bruin et al., 2007; Bruine de Bruin et al., (2007) published the Adult Decision-Competence (A-DMC) to assess the standard skills needed for typical adults to make competent decisions. Using four skills Bruine de Bruin et al. believed to be essential to decision making: belief assessment, value assessment, integration and metacognition the assessment developers created six tasks. The tasks created are:

“Resistance to Framing, Recognizing Social Norms, Under/overconfidence, Applying Decision Rules, Consistency in Risk Perception, Path Independence, and Resistance to Sunk Costs. The components are defined succinctly by the Adult - Decision Making Competence (A-DMC) as:

Resistance to Framing assesses whether choices are affected by irrelevant differences in problem description, specifically framing the options in terms of gains or losses. Recognizing Social Norms assesses understanding of the social norms of the peer group. Under/Overconfidence assesses how well calibrated individuals are in terms of recognizing the extent of their own knowledge. Applying Decision Rules assesses how well individuals are able to use different described decision rules, such as equal weighting of attributes. Consistency in Risk Perception assesses probability numeracy, specifically how well individuals understand probability rules. Resistance to Sunk Costs assesses the ability to ignore prior investments when making decisions. (n.d.)

The A-DMC has been found to be a construct to determine adult’s ability to make real world decisions (Bruine de Bruin et al., 2007). The authors, of the instrument, caution the effects that certain demographics may have on test results, particularly in the Sunk Cost component. For example adults in poverty are often faced with adverse circumstances that can be controlled for and sometimes not. The subjects in this study are professional, middle class earners. Prior research, using the measure, also brings attention to the probability that a subject’s age can pose a threat to results due to older adults being more self-assured which imposes on consistency in decision making (Finucane, Mertz, Slovic, & Schmidt, 2005). Age was examined closely for obvious variants in reporting.

The A-DMC has an overall Cronbach alpha of .73 and a test-retest reliability of .68 (Bruine de Bruin et al., 2007). Subjects can be given a single component to measure that specific skill or all to measure decision making entirely (Bruine de Bruin et al.). For the purpose of this

study the researcher used one of the components, Resistance to Sunk Costs (SC). This component measures value assessment using the criterion of accuracy in resisting. It has a Cronbach alpha of .54 and a test-retest of .61. Subjects were given a problem and asked to choose between two options using a scale, ranging from 1 symbolizing one option and ending with 6 symbolizing the other option. The subject had to choose a number within the range that most echoes their comparable preference amongst the two choices. In measuring the Sunk Costs scores of the subjects, $M = 4.49$ and $SD = 0.67$.

Table 5
Adult Decision Making Competency (Resistance to Sunk Costs)

	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
A-DMC (SC) Mean	3	6	4.49	0.67
A-DMC (SC) Sum	30	60	44.85	6.73

Note. $N = 54$.

4.4 Sample Size

To regulate for sample size, the Bonferroni correction, also known as Bonferroni adjustment, is one of the methods used post hoc during statistical hypothesis testing to account for the potential of a Type I error due to the comparison of several different groups (Huck, 2004; Pallant, 2001; Salkind, 2008). To compensate for the chance that the data reflected was by casual and not a result of significance, thus possibly incorrectly accepting the null hypothesis, the Bonferroni correction was used to test each hypothesis at a significance level of α/m . In this instance, the desired overall alpha level was .05 and the number of hypothesis being tested is $m=2$.

4.5 Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1

RQ1: To what extent is there a relationship between emotional intelligence and ethical decision making?

During data analysis, as shown in Table 6, a Pearson correlation was performed using the scores of the four subscales of AES and the mean scores of the A-DMC in an effort to respond to Research Question 1.

Table 6

Correlations Between the Assessing Emotions Scale and the Adult Decision Making Competency Overall Scale and Subscales

		AES Mean	Perception of Emotion	Managing Self Emotions	Managing Others' Emotions	Utilization of Emotion
A-DMC	Pearson Correlation	-0.033	-0.171	0.037	-0.061	0.154
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.815	0.217	0.793	0.660	0.266

Note. $N = 54$.

H1. There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and ethical decision making.

There was a non-significant correlation of $r = .033$, $p = .41$ between the AES mean score and A-DMC as presented. Also, significance was not found measuring any of the AES subscales and the A-DMC. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Research Question 2

RQ2: To what extent is there a relationship between moral reasoning and ethical decision making?

H2. There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between moral reasoning and ethical decision making.

To address Research Question 2, the hypothesis was tested using the scores of the DIT-2's four indices of moral reasoning and the mean score of the A-DMC. The output derived from measuring moral reasoning using the DIT2 indexes: P-score Post Conventional, Stage 23 Personal Interest and Stage 4P Maintain Norms is illustrated in Table 7. There was a nonsignificant correlation of $r = .242$, $p = .039$, dividing 0.078 by two to account for the one-tailed hypothesis, between moral reasoning (N2Score) ethical decision making. This result does not reach the required significance level of .025, using Bonferroni correction, but is close which suggests performing research to give these variables further exploration. With exception to the N2Score index, no levels close to significance were found. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 7

Correlation of Defining Issues Test (DIT2) Scale Scores and the Adult Decision Making Competency Scale

		P-score Post Conventional	Stage23 Personal Interest	Stage4P Maintain Norms	N2Score New Post Conventional
A-DMC	Pearson Correlation	0.204	-0.086	-0.164	0.242
	Sig. (2- tailed)	0.138	0.535	0.236	0.078

Note. $N = 54$.

Multiple Regression

Multiple linear regression is an analysis selected when a researcher is interested in the predictability of a study's multiple independent variables on one continuous dependent variable (Pallant, 2001; Salkind, 2008). Based on the suggestiveness of the correlation of the N2Score and A-DMC, the researcher sought to further investigate any possible interrelationships among the three scale variables tested, in addition to the key demographic variables that showed relativity, age and gender as seen in Table 8.

Table 8
Age, Gender, AES, and N2 Score

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE [standard error of] B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Age	0.234	0.125	0.246	1.876	.067
Gender	0.328	0.211	0.228	1.553	.127
AES (Mean)	0.015	0.271	0.008	0.056	.955
N2	0.014	0.007	0.302	2.149	.037

Note: $R^2 = .164$, ($N = 54$, $F(4) = 2.398$, $p = .063$)

Thus the predictive ability of moral reasoning, emotional intelligence, age and gender were tested as independent variables on the continuous dependent variable, decision making. The results of Table 8 below denote age (.067) and N2 (.037) as having some relevance to the A-DMC. However, gender (.127) and AES (.955) does not display any reportable significance.

4.6 Summary

The researcher ran Pearson correlation tests seeking to identify a significant relationship between the independent variables emotional intelligence, moral reasoning and the dependent variable decision making. The null hypothesis was accepted when measuring the correlation

between emotional intelligence and decision making ($r = .033$, $p = .408$). The null hypothesis was also accepted when measuring the correlation between moral reasoning and decision making ($r = .242$, $p = .039$). Adjusting for a potential Type 1 error, the researcher used the Bonferroni correction, which required a significance level of 0.025. Through further factor analysis, the researcher observed a fairly close result worth further exploration. The researcher concludes if only research question 2 were posed, it is highly probable significance would have been reached using a level of 0.05.

To determine if there were interrelationships among the subscales of all three scales surveyed, which showed the highest predictability, and the demographic variables age and gender, the researcher ran a multiple regression test using the independent variables emotional intelligence, moral reasoning, age, gender and the dependent variable decision making. The researcher observed a fairly close result (a positive relationship between the N2Score, one scale of those measuring moral reasoning and A-DMC, measuring ethical decision-making) worth further exploration. Another fairly close result showed a positive relationship between age and ethical decision-making. Gender and emotional intelligence were not shown to be related to ethical decision-making. The researcher concludes that if only Research Question 2 had been posed, or if a larger sample had been used, it is possible that significance would have been reached using a level of 0.05.

In Chapter 5 the researcher synthesizes the findings of the descriptive and inferential data based on the findings reported in Chapter 4 and what has been reported in related literature.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter contains a summation of the research, discussions of the findings reported in Chapter Four, as well as connections between the literature review and the current research. Suggestions for future research and a conclusion will end the chapter.

The study was designed to examine the impact of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning on a school leader's ethical decision making. Considering the critical need for school leaders during times of intensified emotion (Fullan, 2001), in addition to a need for those same school leaders to model a code of ethics representative of the communities they serve (Green, 2005) the researcher's purpose was to explore how emotional intelligence and moral reasoning would impact the decision making skills necessary to create ethical decision makers (Dotger & Mangram, 2008). The study was anchored in the theoretical framework of authentic leadership, which suggests that one remains true to oneself by knowing oneself interpersonally, intrapersonally and developmentally. Chapter Two presented a review of literature which delved into the definitions and related research of the key variables: ethical decision making, emotional intelligence and moral reasoning.

The researcher, with the support of nine school district superintendents, invited building principals and assistant principals to participate in the study with the purpose of determining the relationship between emotional intelligence and ethical decision making and the relationship between moral reasoning and ethical decision making. The researcher used the Assessing Emotion Scale (AES) to measure emotional intelligence, the Defining Issues Test (DIT-2) to

measure moral reasoning, the Adult Decision Making Competency (A-DMC) to measure decision making and a demographic questionnaire.

A correlational analysis was conducted to test the relationships between two independent variables, emotional intelligence and moral reasoning and the dependent variable decision making. The results of the correlations were found to be insignificant for both research questions posed. In a multiple regression analysis, the researcher also included the testing of the demographic variables in an effort to identify additional emerging themes. This analysis showed that, variables, age from the demographics portion of the survey, and the moral reasoning N2-score, exhibited stronger relationships with ethical decision making, but these relationships remained not quite significant.

5.2 Discussions and Findings

Emotional Intelligence and Ethical Decision Making

In recent years, success in leadership has been attributed to the degree of emotional intelligence one has when making ethical decisions (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009; Harati, 2013; Lerner & Shonk, 2010; Lynch, 2012; Mayer & Curuso, 2002; Moore, 2009). This study's goal was to examine the impact of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning on decision making. While statistical significance was not obtained several significant findings emerged which can provide a foundation for subsequent research that has the potential to reach statistical significance and application.

A high level of emotional intelligence has been deemed necessary for leaders (Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2003; Eichmann, 2009; Fulcher, 2017). Leadership requires one to be in tune with the people they are leading (Ackerman et al., 1996; Ayiro, 2009; Fulcher, 2017; Fullan,

2001; Hess & Bacigalupo, 2013; May-Vollmar, 2017; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Yet, school leadership remains a relatively male-dominated profession (Taie & Goldring, 2017). In examining school leaders, it was found that males were less likely to perceive emotion ($r = .002$, $p = -.409$). In addition, the more years of experience the school leader had in the field of education, the better their perception of emotion ($r = .270$, $p = 0.25$) as well as their decision making ($r = .288$, $p = 0.18$).

To improve leaders' emotional intelligence, leadership programs should further explore opportunities to address emotional intelligence with potential leaders. Gaining an understanding of the impact making an ethical decision absent of emotional intelligence can have on themselves and those their decisions affect, and identifying one's levels of EI so that weaknesses can be addressed prior to undertaking a role as a school leader, should be critical in developing successful leaders. Programming that focus on improving a leader's emotional intelligence will support the success of their organization through increased collaboration, efficiency and efficacy when making ethical decisions with their school community (Eichmann, 2009). School districts should consider opportunities for professional development in the area of emotional intelligence to improve skills of current building leaders.

Moral Reasoning and Ethical Decision Making

Leadership programs must place emphasis on the skills leaders need to address moral issues and the impact this has on ethical decision making, not only in their profession, but also their personal lives, considering they are in some respect considered public officials or at the least public figures (Bowen et al., 2006; Green, 2005; Greer, 2015; NPBEA, 2015; Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2016; Tursak, 2000).

During the study, the researcher found the ability to make better moral judgements had a positive relationship with the ethical decision making of the school leaders. Interestingly, the school leaders in the study produced findings that suggest that their moral reasoning patterns lack the consistency. This suggests that other factors impacted their ability to reason such as devout religious beliefs in at least one out of the five questions ($m = 3.74$; $SD = 2.56$) which are determined by a choice made on a proxy question in which a doctor was determining if a patient should be kept alive or have lifesaving efforts halted based on high levels of pain. This frame of thinking is believed to be based on God being the only author and finishers of one's fate. Contrarily, strong free thinking ideologies, which were determined by high post-conventional scores ($m = 1.85$; $SD = 1.09$) were also used to measure inconsistency on the opposite end of the spectrum. Another score that came into question for the researcher was the number of "cannot decide choices" ($m = 1.20$; $SD = 1.38$). This result indicates indecisiveness that is not particularly negative, but part of one's cognitive thought process. It could be possible that the school leader needs more time to process the thought or requires more information before reaching such a critical decision (Bebeau & Thoma, 2003). It is suggested that programs in educational leadership provide coursework that focuses on the cognitive processes and patterns associated with making ethical decisions that could potentially challenge a leader's moral thinking and question their authenticity.

Examining the correlation between moral reasoning and a school leader's level of education, the researcher found when the level of education increased the school leader's moral judgement also improved ($r = .233$, $p = 0.45$). Rest (1979) found that adult moral judgement levels decrease once they end their formal education. Graduate educational programs dedicate minimum time to the development of their students' moral character unlike graduate programs in

the areas of law and medicine among other professions (Greer, 2015; Strike, 2008; Gallant, 2011). Of the school leaders measured, 24% had earned a doctorate's degree with the remaining 76% holding the minimum education qualification of a master's degree. Becoming an exceptional leader requires one to evaluate their moral purpose, be aware that change is inevitable during the process, continue to welcome opportunities to learn, foster relationships that are diverse and pursue truth (Fullan, 2001). The study's findings support the need for additional moral development and reasoning coursework for educational leaders that will prepare them to make ethical decisions. This includes creating and maintaining an educational environment that has a culture that appreciates, welcomes and embraces various ideals, traditions, and cultures.

In studies conducted by Greer (2015) and Strum (2017) a decrease in ethical decisions made by those in management positions was found. Having the authority to hire, fire, control budget, make disciplinary decisions, select programming, and maintain facilities (Miller, 2009; Murphy & Beck, 1995) school leaders should be aware of what tools to use to make ethical decisions. In the United States, the average age of public school principals was 47 in 2016 with the majority under age 45 (Taie & Goldring, 2017). Considering the current direction that calls for increased principal autonomy and accountability (Murphy & Beck, 1995), new leaders should be assessed and challenged in terms of their decision making processes. School leaders often lack the requisite skills needed to make ethical decisions (Meyer, 2010). School leaders in this study were rated on their ability to resist sunk costs, which means ignoring investments made in the past and basing their decisions on future consequences. Given a series of 10 questions, using a Likert scale of 1-6, the school leaders who chose answers closest to six were able to resist sunk costs. The researcher found, on average, the leaders ignored sunk costs with a score of 4.48 ($m =$

4.48; $SD = .672$). When correlated, as age increased the decision making skill sunk cost increased ($r = .267, p = 0.25$).

During a time when the need for ethical decision making is great (Sweeney, 2009; Trimmer, 2013), pressures to make the best decisions require skill (Bartels, 2008; Fernandez-Berrocal & Extremera, 2005; Johnson & Kruse, 2009) and school leadership is transitioning to younger, less experienced administrators (Meyer, 2010). It is recommended that supports are in place, such as peer senior administrators and district level mentors.

5.3 Suggestions for Future Research

This study might be considered an exploratory study. In future studies, the researcher recommends the use of a larger sample, which might yield more significant results. Understanding more clearly the importance of estimating the effect size of a study, using similar previously done studies and the quantitative analysis conducted, would have had a probable impact on the finding of this study (Linn & Erickson, 1990). In hindsight, a bigger sample of subjects should have been invited to participate and more should have been done to build enthusiasm for participation in the study.

The examination of the relationship between emotional intelligence with decision making, using the two instruments selected for measurement, did not produce enough substance to consider replication, even using a larger sample. However, it is suggested that the relationship between moral reasoning and decision making be explored with the use of a larger sample size.

Having one examine how others perceive what their strengths and weaknesses, in terms of EI, increases the propensity to improve (Ballou et al., 1999). The researcher suggests

researchers consider peer or employee report measures for school leaders to measure their levels of emotional intelligence (Lievens, Klehe, & Libbrecht, 2011). This topic is worth exploring with other school leadership positions, such as teachers, considering the decisions teachers make have an even greater impact on students who eventually become society's leaders.

The DIT-2, which measured moral reasoning, produced promising topics one could explore for further research. It is suggested that researchers interested in the study of moral reasoning look more closely at how age and level of education impact one's moral compass. The DIT-2, in its original state, included a demographic variable for political affiliation. In retrospect, the political affiliation variable might have possibly correlated with decision making. Moreover; researchers should consider how the political affiliation variable would correlate with emotional intelligence. Bearing in mind the current political climate across the nation, studies measuring one's moral reasoning, emotional intelligence, political affiliation and decision making could perhaps be of high interest and have an impact on many types of leadership.

In addition the researcher suggests further study of the construct of decision making, using all of the components of the A-DMC. The length of the entire instrument is not feasible for educators who are volunteering their time to participate in a study with an expectation to finish at their own pace. While the instrument was designed for components to be measured individually or collectively, using a controlled location in which the researcher has scheduled the completion of the study in one room may provide a better data set for further exploration.

Revisiting the purpose of the study, whereas the results were not at a level of correlation that yielded significance, a replication of the study with a larger sample size might provide more significance on the impact of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning on decision making.

Alternatively, if only one question would be asked, with the given sample size, the analysis might report significance.

Surveying school leaders can be difficult, considering the impact their careers have on their lack of free time. While the use of online survey tools, such as Survey Monkey, tends to make completing surveys simpler in terms of having access via one's desktop or handheld device, subjects reported the survey having been diverted to their junk mail which was likely caused by spam filters used to prevent unsolicited emails. It is suggested that online survey methods, requesting that a potential subject participate in a study, are paired with mailed correspondence to aid in ensuring it is received.

Thirteen school districts were initially invited to participate. At least two of the superintendents admitted they wanted to help but were concerned with the length of the survey. Using three instruments and a demographic questionnaire, which accounted for an average completion time of 30 minutes, was a deterrent to some subjects. Even those in support of completing the survey, while finding the questioning interesting, commented about the lengthiness of the instrument. Some subjects were also concerned about the sensitivity of some of the questioning, for example a question that related to cancer which coincided with an unfortunate personal experience the subject had experienced and was not ready to process, thus offering their regrets to abandon the study.

The study of ethical decision making has merit in educational leadership programming and warrants further study. School leaders, ready or not, must be equipped with experiences and training in the area of ethical decision making, emotional intelligence and moral reasoning to effectively handle the requisites of being successful in their roles.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Institutional Review Board Approval



DELAWARE STATE UNIVERSITY

Institutional Review Board – Human Subjects Protection Committee

December 19, 2017

Ms. Tamara Toles Torain
Department of Education

Ms. Torain

Delaware State University's Institutional Review Board (IRB)-Human Subjects Protection Committee has reviewed your project "**An Examination: The Impact of Emotional Intelligence and Moral Reasoning on the Ethical Decision Making of School Leaders**". After review of application, the Committee has granted an exemption from the IRB as it meets a Category of Exempt Research specified in 45 CFR 46.101(b).

Please contact the Office of Sponsored Programs at [redacted] if you have any questions or concerns.

Sincerely,

Dr. Brian Friel
Chairperson, Human Subjects Committee (IRB)

ckh

Appendix B

Letter of Cooperation to District Superintendents

< Date >

<Name of School Superintendent>

<Name of School District>

<Street Address of School District>

<City, State, Zip Code>

Greetings <Name of School Superintendent>,

My name is Tamara Toles Torain and I am a doctoral student at Delaware State University. I would sincerely appreciate your assistance with my research project titled: Ethical Decision Making: An Examination on the Impact of Emotional Intelligence and Moral Reasoning on School Leaders. The research proposal is being submitted as a partial fulfillment of a Doctorate Degree in Educational Leadership. The topic is aimed at investigating ethical decision making and the impact of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning on school leaders. Sample subjects for the study are building administrators serving in a principal or assistant principal capacity. Administrators will complete 3 surveys: Adult Decision Making Scale (A-DMS) (measures decision making), Assessing Emotions Scale (measures emotional intelligence), and the Defining Issues Test (measures moral reasoning). The time to complete the surveys is estimated at 75 minutes. I will assure you that responses from this survey will remain confidential and anonymous. Each participant will receive a cover letter, an informed consent form, instructions and questionnaires via email.

Respondent confidentiality will be of utmost importance and the data will only be used for the purpose of this study. There are no foreseen risks associated with participation in this research study. Moreover, there are no direct benefits. However participation in the study aims to indirectly benefit the body of educational research. Also note that participants can withdraw involvement in this study at any time without penalty.

Thank you for considering allowing this research to be conducted. If you have any questions regarding this survey, please do not hesitate to contact me at

Best regards,

Tamara Toles Torain

Please signify your consent and intent to participate in the research project explained above by your signature:

Printed Name of School District Official

Title of School District Official

Signature of APPROVAL School District Official

Date

Appendix C

Letter of Informed Consent to School Leaders

< Date >

<Name of School Principal>
<Name of School>
<Street Address of School>
<City, State, Zip Code>

Dear Colleague,

I am a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership Program at Delaware State University. I am presently culminating the completion of my doctoral degree in education. I am requesting your assistance in completing my research on the impact of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning on the ethical decision making of school leaders. The goal of the study is to analyze the decision making processes of school building leaders as measured by the Adult-Decision Making Competence Test, Assessing Emotions Test and the Defining Issues Test, Version 3 (DIT-2).

I understand that this is an extremely demanding time of year for all of us in school administration, so I would be grateful if you take a moment of reflection and complete these measures: Adult-Decision Making Competence Test, Assessing Emotions Test and the Defining Issues Test, Version 3 (DIT-2) **before January 30, 2018**. Your completion of the survey will certify that you have read and understood the Informed Consent and that you are agreeing to participate in this study. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this research, please contact me at any time at _____ or via email at _____. For additional information on this study, you may also contact my dissertation Chairperson, Dr. Joseph Falodun, _____, or the Office of Education Graduate Programs, Delaware State University _____. If you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights as a participant of this study, please contact the Office of Sponsored Programs at _____.

I thank you in advance for your valuable time.

Sincerely,

Tamara Toles Torain
Delaware State University

Appendix D

Instrument

Copy of AN EXAMINATION: THE IMPACT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND MORAL REASONING ON THE ETHICAL DECISION MAKING OF SCHOOL LEADERS

Demographic Information

* 1. What is your age?

25-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60 or older

* 2. What is the highest degree you have received?

Bachelors degree Masters degree Doctorate degree Post Doctorate

* 3. What is your gender?

Female Male

Other (specify)

* 4. What is your ethnicity origin (or race)

Asian American Indian or Alaskan Native Black or African American Hispanic or Latino White

Two or more races

Other ethnicity or race (please specify)

* 5. Are you Mexican, Mexican-American, Chicano, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Cuban-American, or some other Spanish, Hispanic, or Latino group?

I am not Spanish, Hispanic, or Latino Mexican Mexican-American Chicano Puerto Rican Cuban

Cuban-American Some other Spanish, Hispanic, or Latino group From multiple Spanish, Hispanic, or Latino groups

* 6. What is your position title?

Principal Assistant Principal, Associate Principal or Vice Principal

Other (please specify)

* 7. **Total Years in the field of Education** (as a para-educator, teacher, specialist, administrator)

3-5 years 6-10 years 11-19 years 20-29 years 30 years or more

* 8. **Total years as a school administrator** (principal and/ or assistant/ associate/vice principal combined)

0-1 years 2-5 years 6-10 years 11-20 years 21-29 years 30 years or more

* 9. **Number of years in current position** (principal or assistant/associate/vice principal)

0-1 years 2-5 years 6-10 years 11-20 years 21-29 years 30 years or more

Copy of AN EXAMINATION: THE IMPACT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND MORAL REASONING ON THE ETHICAL DECISION MAKING OF SCHOOL LEADERS

The Assessing Emotions Scale - (measures Emotional Intelligence)

Schutte, N.S., Malouff, J.M., & Bhullar, N. (2009). The Assessing Emotions Scale. C. Stough, D. Saklofske & J. Parker (Eds.), The Assessment of Emotional Intelligence. New York: Springer Publishing, 119-135.

Directions: Each of the following items asks you about your emotions or reactions associated with emotions. After deciding whether a statement is generally true for you, use the 5-point scale to respond to the statement. Please circle the "1" if you strongly disagree that this is like you, the "2" if you somewhat disagree that this is like you, "3" if you neither agree nor disagree that this is like you, the "4" if you somewhat agree that this is like you, and the "5" if you strongly agree that this is like you.

There are no right or wrong answers. Please give the response that best describes you.

1 = strongly disagree

2 = somewhat disagree

3 = neither agree nor disagree

4 = somewhat agree

5 = strongly agree

* 1. I know when to speak about my personal problems to others.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree nor disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 2. When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree nor disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 3. I expect that I will do well on most things I try.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree nor disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 4. Other people find it easy to confide in me.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree nor disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 5. I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree nor disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 6. Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree nor disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 7. When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree nor disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 8. Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 9. I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 10. I expect good things to happen.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 11. I like to share my emotions with others.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 12. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 13. I arrange events others enjoy.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 14. I seek out activities that make me happy.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 15. I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 16. I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 17. When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 18. By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 19. I know why my emotions change.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 20. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas.

strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 30. I help other people feel better when they are down.

strongly disagree somewhat disagree neither agree or disagree somewhat agree strongly agree

* 31. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles.

strongly disagree somewhat disagree neither agree or disagree somewhat agree strongly agree

* 32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice.

strongly disagree somewhat disagree neither agree or disagree somewhat agree strongly agree

* 33. It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do.

strongly disagree somewhat disagree neither agree or disagree somewhat agree strongly agree

Copy of AN EXAMINATION: THE IMPACT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND MORAL REASONING ON THE ETHICAL DECISION MAKING OF SCHOOL LEADERS

Adult Decision-Making Competence (A-DMC)

Bruine de Bruin, W., Parker, A.M., & Fischhoff, B. (2007). Individual differences in Adult Decision-Making Competence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 92, 938-956.

Instructions:

Each of the following problems presents a choice between two options. Each problem is presented with a scale ranging from 1 (representing one option) through 6 (representing the other option). For each item, please circle the number on the scale that best reflects your relative preference between the two options.

* 1. Problem 1

You are buying a gold ring on layaway for someone special. It costs \$200 and you have already paid \$100 on it, so you owe another \$100. One day, you see in the paper that a new jewelry store is selling the same ring for only \$90 as a special sale, and you can pay for it using layaway. The new store is across the street from the old one. If you decide to get the ring from the new store, you will not be able to get your money back from the old store, but you would save \$10 overall.

Would you be more likely to continue paying at the old store or buy from the new store?

Most likely to continue paying at the old store						Most likely to buy from the new store
1	2	3	4	5	6	
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 2. Problem 2

You enjoy playing tennis, but you really love bowling. You just became a member of a tennis club, and of a bowling club, both at the same time. The membership to your tennis club costs \$200 per year and the membership to your bowling club \$50 per year. During the first week of both memberships, you develop an elbow injury. It is painful to play either tennis or bowling. Your doctor tells you that the pain will continue for about a year.

Would you be more likely to play tennis or bowling in the next six months?

Most likely to play tennis						Most likely to play bowling
1	2	3	4	5	6	
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 3. Problem 3

You have been looking forward to this year's Halloween party. You have the right cape, the right wig, and the right hat. All week, you have been trying to perfect the outfit by cutting out a large number of tiny stars to glue to the cape and the hat, and you still need to glue them on. On the day of Halloween, you decide that the outfit looks better without all these stars you have worked so hard on.

Would you be more likely to wear the stars or go without?

Most likely to wear stars						Most likely not to wear stars
1	2	3	4	5	6	
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 4. Problem 4

After a large meal at a restaurant, you order a big dessert with chocolate and ice cream. After a few bites you find you are full and you would rather not eat any more of it.

Would you be more likely to eat more or to stop eating it?

Most likely to eat more						Most likely to stop eating
1	2	3	4	5	6	
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 5. Problem 5

You are in a hotel room for one night and you have paid \$6.95 to watch a movie on pay TV. Then you discover that there is a movie you would much rather like to see on one of the free cable TV channels. You only have time to watch one of the two movies.

Would you be more likely to watch the movie on pay TV or on the free cable channel?

Most likely to watch pay TV						Most likely to watch free cable
1	2	3	4	5	6	
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 6. Problem 6

You have been asked to give a toast at your friend's wedding. You have worked for hours on this one story about you and your friend taking drivers' education, but you still have some work to do on it. Then you realize that you could finish writing the speech faster if you start over and tell the funnier story about the dance lessons you took together.

Would you be more likely to finish the toast about driving or rewrite it to be about dancing?

Most likely to write about driving						Most likely to write about dancing
1	2	3	4	5	6	
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 7. Problem 7

You decide to learn to play a musical instrument. After you buy an expensive cello, you find you are no longer interested. Your neighbor is moving and you are excited that she is leaving you her old guitar, for free. You'd like to learn how to play it.

Would you be more likely to practice the cello or the guitar?

Most likely to play cello						Most likely to play guitar
1	2	3	4	5	6	
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 8. Problem 8

You and your friend are at a movie theater together. Both you and your friend are getting bored with the storyline. You'd hate to waste the money spent on the ticket, but you both feel that you would have a better time at the coffee shop next door. You could sneak out without other people noticing.

Would you be more likely to stay or to leave?

Most likely to stay						Most likely to leave
1	2	3	4	5	6	
<input type="radio"/>						

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Defining Issues Test-2

This questionnaire is concerned with how you define the issues in a social problem. Several stories about social problems will be described. After each story, there will be a list of questions. The questions that follow each story represent different issues that might be raised by the problem. In other words, the questions/issues raise different ways of judging what is important in making a decision about the social problem. You will be asked to rate and rank the questions in terms of how important each one seems to you.

PLEASE TRY TO FINISH THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IN ONE SITTING.

* 1. **Example of Task.** Imagine you are about to vote for a candidate for the Presidency of the United States. Before you vote, you are asked to rate the importance of five issues you could consider in deciding who to vote for. Rate the importance of each item (issue) by checking the appropriate box. Rate the following issues in terms of importance.

	Great	Much	Some	Little	No
1. Financially are you personally better off now than you were four years ago?	<input type="radio"/>				
2. Does one candidate have a superior moral character?	<input type="radio"/>				
3. Which candidate stands the tallest?	<input type="radio"/>				
4. Which candidate would make the best world leader?	<input type="radio"/>				
5. Which candidate has the best ideas for our country's internal problems, like crime and health care.	<input type="radio"/>				

Note. Some items may seem irrelevant or not make sense (as in item #3). In that case, rate the item as "NO".

* 2. Consider the 5 issues above and rank which issues are the most important.

	1	2	3	4	5
Most important item	<input type="radio"/>				
Second most important	<input type="radio"/>				
Third most important	<input type="radio"/>				
Fourth most important	<input type="radio"/>				

Again, remember to consider all of the items before you rank the four most important items and be sure that you only rank items that you found important.

Note also that before you begin to rate and rank items you will be asked to state your preference for what action to take in story.

Thank you and you may begin the questionnaire!

Page Break

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Story 1

Famine

The small village in northern India has experienced shortages of food before, but this year's famine is worse than ever. Some families are even trying to feed themselves by making soup from tree bark. Mustaq Singh's family is near starvation. He has heard that a rich man in his village has supplies of food stored away and is hoarding food while its price goes higher so that he can sell the food later at a huge profit. Mustaq is desperate and thinks about stealing some food from the rich man's warehouse. The small amount of food that he needs for his family probably wouldn't even be missed.

* 1. What should Mustaq Singh do? Do you favor the action of taking the food?

- Should take the food Can't decide Should not take the food

* 2. Rate the following issues in terms of importance.

	Great	Much	Some	Little	No
1. Is Mustaq Singh courageous enough to risk getting caught for stealing?	<input type="radio"/>				
2. Isn't it only natural for a loving father to care so much for his family that he would steal?	<input type="radio"/>				
3. Shouldn't the community's laws be upheld?	<input type="radio"/>				
4. Does Mustaq Singh know a good recipe for preparing soup from tree bark?	<input type="radio"/>				
5. Does the rich man have any legal right to store food when other people are starving?	<input type="radio"/>				
6. Is the motive of Mustaq Singh to steal for himself or to steal for his family?	<input type="radio"/>				
7. What values are going to be the basis for social cooperation?	<input type="radio"/>				
8. Is the epitome of eating reconcilable with the culpability of stealing?	<input type="radio"/>				
9. Does the rich man deserve to be robbed for being so greedy?	<input type="radio"/>				
10. Isn't private property an institution to enable the rich to exploit the poor?	<input type="radio"/>				
11. Would stealing bring about more total good for everybody concerned or wouldn't it?	<input type="radio"/>				
12. Are laws getting in the way of the most basic claim of any member of a society?	<input type="radio"/>				

* 3. Consider the 12 issues above and rank which issues are the most important.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Most important item	<input type="radio"/>											
Second most important	<input type="radio"/>											
Third most important	<input type="radio"/>											
Fourth most important	<input type="radio"/>											

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Story 2

Reporter

Molly Dayton has been a news reporter for the Gazette newspaper for over a decade. Almost by accident, she learned that one of the candidates for Lieutenant Governor for her state, Grover Thompson, had been arrested for shop-lifting 20 years earlier. Reporter Dayton found out that early in his life, Candidate Thompson had undergone a confused period and done things he later regretted, actions which would be very out-of-character now. His shoplifting had been a minor offense and charges had been dropped by the department store. Thompson has not only straightened himself out since then, but built a distinguished record in helping many people and in leading constructive community projects. Now, Reporter Dayton regards Thompson as the best candidate in the field and likely to go on to important leadership positions in the state. Reporter Dayton wonders whether or not she should write the story about Thompson's earlier troubles because in the upcoming close and heated election, she fears that such a news story could wreck Thompson's chance to win.

* 1. Do you favor the action of reporting the story?

- Should report the story Can't decide Should not report the story

* 2. Rate the following issues in terms of importance.

	Great	Much	Some	Little	No
1. Doesn't the public have a right to know all the facts about all the candidates for office?	<input type="radio"/>				
2. Would publishing the story help Reporter Dayton's reputation for investigative reporting?	<input type="radio"/>				
3. If Dayton doesn't publish the story wouldn't another reporter get the story anyway and get the credit for investigative reporting?	<input type="radio"/>				
4. Since voting is such a joke anyway, does it make any difference what reporter Dayton does?	<input type="radio"/>				
5. Hasn't Thompson shown in the past 20 years that he is a better person than his earlier days as a shop-lifter?	<input type="radio"/>				
6. What would best service society?	<input type="radio"/>				
7. If the story is true, how can it be wrong to report it?	<input type="radio"/>				
8. How could reporter Dayton be so cruel and heartless as to report the damaging story about candidate Thompson?	<input type="radio"/>				
9. Does the right of "habeas corpus" apply in this case?	<input type="radio"/>				
10. Would the election process be more fair with or without reporting the story?	<input type="radio"/>				
11. Should reporter Dayton treat all candidates for office in the same way by reporting everything she learns about them, good and bad?	<input type="radio"/>				
12. Isn't it a reporter's duty to report all the news regardless of the circumstances?	<input type="radio"/>				

* 3. Consider the 12 issues you rated above and rank which issues are the most important.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Most important item	<input type="radio"/>											
Second most important	<input type="radio"/>											
Third most important	<input type="radio"/>											
Fourth most important	<input type="radio"/>											

Story 3

School Board

Mr. Grant has been elected to the School Board District 190 and was chosen to be Chairman. The district is bitterly divided over the closing of one of the high schools. One of the high schools has to be closed for financial reasons, but there is no agreement over which school to close. During his election to the School Board, Mr. Grant had proposed a series of "Open Meetings" in which members of the community could voice their opinions. He hoped that dialogue would make the community realize the necessity of closing one high school. Also he hoped that through open discussions, the difficulty of the decision would be appreciated, and that the community would ultimately support the school board decision. The first Open Meeting was a disaster. Passionate speeches dominated the microphones and threatened violence. The meeting barely closed without fist-fights. Later in the week, school board members received threatening phone calls. Mr. Grant wonders if he ought to call off the next Open Meeting.

* 1. Do you favor calling off the next Open Meeting?

- Should call off the next open meeting Can't decide Should have the next open meeting

* 2. Rate the following issues in terms of importance.

	Great	Much	Some	Little	No
1. Is Mr. Grant required by law to have Open Meetings on major school board decisions?	<input type="radio"/>				
2. Would Mr. Grant be breaking his election campaign promises to the community by discontinuing the Open Meetings?	<input type="radio"/>				
3. Would the community be even angrier with Mr. Grant if he stopped the Open Meetings?	<input type="radio"/>				
4. Would the change in plans prevent scientific assessment?	<input type="radio"/>				
5. If the school board is threatened, does the chairman have the legal authority to protect the Board by making decisions in closed meetings?	<input type="radio"/>				
6. Would the community regard Mr. Grant as a coward if he stopped the open meetings?	<input type="radio"/>				
7. Does Mr. Grant have another procedure in mind for ensuring that divergent views are heard?	<input type="radio"/>				
8. Does Mr. Grant have the authority to expel troublemakers from the meetings or prevent them from making long speeches?	<input type="radio"/>				
9. Are some people deliberately undermining the school board process by playing some sort of power game?	<input type="radio"/>				
10. What effect would stopping the discussion have on the community's ability to handle controversial issues in the future?	<input type="radio"/>				
11. Is the trouble coming from only a few hotheads, and is the community in general really fair-minded and democratic?	<input type="radio"/>				
12. What is the likelihood that a good decision could be made without open discussion from the community?	<input type="radio"/>				

* 3. Consider the 12 issues you rated above and rank which issues are the most important.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Most important item	<input type="radio"/>											
Second most important	<input type="radio"/>											
Third most important	<input type="radio"/>											
Fourth most important	<input type="radio"/>											

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Story 4

Cancer

Mrs. Bennett is 62 years old, and in the last phases of colon cancer. She is in terrible pain and asks the doctor to give her more painkiller medicine. The doctor has given her the maximum safe dose already and is reluctant to increase the dosage because it would probably hasten her death. In a clear and rational mental state, Mrs. Bennett says that she realizes this; but she wants to end her suffering even if it means ending her life. Should the doctor give her an increased dosage?

* 1. Do you favor the action of giving more medicine?

- Should give Mrs. Bennett an increased dosage to make her die. Can't decide
- Should not give her an increased dosage

* 2. Rate the following issues in terms of importance.

	Great	Much	Some	Little	No
1. Isn't the doctor obligated by the same laws as everybody else if giving an overdose would be the same as killing her?	<input type="radio"/>				
2. Wouldn't society be better off without so many laws about what doctors can and cannot do?	<input type="radio"/>				
3. If Mrs. Bennett dies, would the doctor be legally responsible for malpractice?	<input type="radio"/>				
4. Does the family of Mrs. Bennett agree that she should get more painkiller medicine?	<input type="radio"/>				
5. Is the painkiller medicine an active hallucinogenic drug?	<input type="radio"/>				
6. Does the state have the right to force continued existence of those who don't want to live?	<input type="radio"/>				
7. Is helping to end another's life ever a responsible act of cooperation?	<input type="radio"/>				
8. Would the doctor show more sympathy for Mrs. Bennett by giving the medicine or not?	<input type="radio"/>				
9. Wouldn't the doctor feel guilty from giving Mrs. Bennett so much drug that she died?	<input type="radio"/>				
10. Should only God decide when a person's life should end?	<input type="radio"/>				
11. Shouldn't society protect everyone against being killed?	<input type="radio"/>				
12. Where should society draw the line between protecting life and allowing someone to die if the person wants to?	<input type="radio"/>				

* 3. Consider the 12 issues you rated above and rank which issues are the most important.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Most important item	<input type="radio"/>											
Second most important	<input type="radio"/>											
Third most important	<input type="radio"/>											
Fourth most important	<input type="radio"/>											

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Story 5

Demonstration

Political and economic instability in a South American country prompted the President of the United States to send troops to "police" the area. Students at many campuses in the U.S.A. have protested that the United States is using its military might for economic advantage. There is widespread suspicion that big oil multinational companies are pressuring the President to safeguard a cheap oil supply even if it means loss of life. Students at one campus took to the streets in demonstrations, tying up traffic and stopping regular business in the town. The president of the university demanded that the students stop their illegal demonstrations. Students then took over the college's administration building, completely paralyzing the college. Are the students right to demonstrate in these ways?

* 1. Do you favor the action of demonstrating in this way?

- Should continue demonstrating in these ways Can't decide Should not continue demonstrating in these ways

* 2. Rate the following issues in terms of importance.

	Great	Much	Some	Little	No
1. Do the students have any right to take over property that doesn't belong to them?	<input type="radio"/>				
2. Do the students realize that they might be arrested and fined, and even expelled from school?	<input type="radio"/>				
3. Are the students serious about their cause or are they doing it just for fun?	<input type="radio"/>				
4. If the university president is soft on students this time, will it lead to more disorder?	<input type="radio"/>				
5. Will the public blame all students for the actions of a few student demonstrators?	<input type="radio"/>				
6. Are the authorities to blame by giving in to the greed of the multinational oil companies?	<input type="radio"/>				
7. Why should a few people like Presidents and business leaders have more power than ordinary people?	<input type="radio"/>				
8. Does this student demonstration bring about more or less good in the long run to all people?	<input type="radio"/>				
9. Can the students justify their civil disobedience?	<input type="radio"/>				
10. Shouldn't the authorities be respected by students?	<input type="radio"/>				
11. Is taking over a building consistent with principles of justice?	<input type="radio"/>				
12. Isn't it everyone's duty to obey the law, whether one likes it or not?	<input type="radio"/>				

* 3. Consider the 12 issues you rated above and rank which issues are the most important.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Most important item	<input type="radio"/>											
Second most important	<input type="radio"/>											
Third most important	<input type="radio"/>											
Fourth most important	<input type="radio"/>											

Appendix E

Permission to Use Emotional Intelligence Framework Figure

RE: Use of EI framework figure permission



Priscilla De San Juan Olle <Priscilla.Olle@KornFerry.com>

Sun 2/18, 8:47 PM

Tamara S Toles-Torain



Reply all | v

Inbox

Hi Tamara,

My apologies if I didn't already respond to your email below. You may use the following to cite the ESCI framework, which is described in the technical manual:

Korn Ferry. (2017). *Emotional and social competency inventory research guide and technical manual*. In Korn Ferry Technical Manuals. Retrieved from <https://www.kornferry.com/technical-manuals>

Kind Regards,

Priscilla