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Empathy as a crucial skill for instructional coaches: Can it be taught?

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EMPATHY AS A CRUCIAL SKILL FOR INSTRUCTIONAL COACHES: CAN IT BE TAUGHT?

A Dissertation Presented to

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In Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

by

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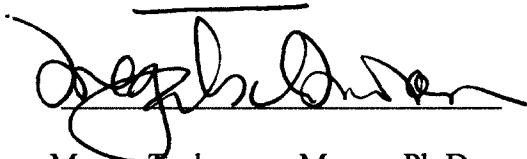
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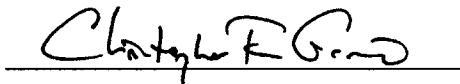
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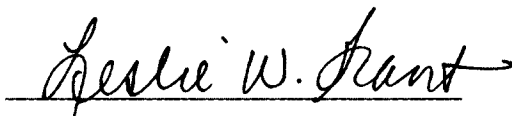
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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my loving husband, Gene Carter. It was your love and encouragement that enabled me to achieve this accomplishment. Thank you for your love, support, and patience. Your love was my strength to endure the rigors of this degree.

I would also like to dedicate this dissertation to the memory of my late parents, James R. Bennett and Eleanor J. Bennett, and to the memory of my late father-in-law, Carrol E. Carter, Sr. (Bubba). Thank you to my parents for raising me with strong values and loving me unconditionally. I am everything I am because you loved and supported me.

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ABSTRACT

When a coach empathetically listens to another person's ideas, thoughts, and concerns, the coach communicates that the other person's life is important and meaningful. This may be the most important service that a coach can provide. (Knight, 2007, p.43)

This study explored whether instructional coaches that completed the 20-hour Evocative Coaching model training program, which included specific training in empathy, significantly improved their emotional intelligence (EI). A mixed method design was employed. Quantitative analysis examined gain scores in an identical pretest and posttest measure of EI, using the EQmentor (Justice, 2010). The qualitative portion of the study addressed changes participants perceived to their level of EI as a result of the training and their perception of how it affected their performance as instructional coaches.

Of nearly 200 people in seven cohorts, who completed the training between January 2011 and May 2012, 90 participants elected to participant in the study. The treatment group consisted of administrators, teachers, coaches, and personnel in instructional support positions from eight states within the United States and two countries outside of the United States. Nine participants were interviewed for the qualitative portion of the research study, four whose EI scores increased and five whose EI scores decreased.

Results from the EQmentor (Justice, 2010) revealed that the overall emotional quotient (EQ) score and interpersonal composite score showed a statistically significant

increase as did the subscales of motivation, empathy, and social skills. The subscales of self-awareness, self-regulation, and the intrapersonal composite score did not show a significant change in the full sample, but did for those participants who had volunteered to take the training (as opposed to those who were directed to do so).

Themes emerging from the participants interviewed included increased awareness, improved listening, expressing empathy, Nonviolent Communication, emotional intelligence, observation tools, and instructional leadership. Overall, the participants felt the Evocative Coaching model training was a positive influence on their practice as instructional leaders. Specifically, the instructional coaches felt the training helped them to grow in the following areas: a) by using the observational tools for observing and not evaluating the teachers; b) by increasing awareness of their coaching presence and laying the groundwork for their coaching conversation; c) by using mindful listening to stop whatever else was going on and just listen; and d) by using authentic empathy coaches were able to appreciate the experience of the other person and foster new change possibilities and therefore improve the instructional practices of those they were coaching.

INDEX WORDS: Instructional coaches, Emotional intelligence, Empathy

CHAPTER 1- INTRODUCTION

School districts are using varied forms of professional development to provide continuous support and assistance for all teachers (Barr, Simmons, & Zarrow, 2003; Ingersoll, 2007). One form of professional development is the use of coaching, more specifically instructional coaching (Cornett & Knight, 2008; Knight, 2009). An instructional coach is a professional developer who teaches educators how to use proven instructional methods (Knight, 2006). As an improvement tool, instructional coaching enhances teaching practices by providing individualized instructional feedback and support. This practice has emerged out of the one-shot approach of professional development, which is typically insufficient at improving teaching practices (Annenberg Institute for School Reform, 2004; Denton & Hasbrouck, 2009). Instructional coaching provides teachers new approaches for relationship-based professional development including feedback from observations, as well as reflection and discussion on their practices, all deemed as critical professional skills (Knight, 2009). Through the use of instructional coaching, teachers achieve their own personal academic growth and ultimately impact student achievement (Driscoll, 2008; Ingersoll, 2007; Knight, 2009).

Emotional intelligence (EI) has recently become a prominent construct in organizational and educational literature (Bar-On, 2004; Chrusciel, 2008; Justice, 2010; Mitchell, Skinner & White, 2010; Nicholaides, 2002; Pink, 2006; Wats & Wats, 2009). A person's ability to understand and manage their emotions constitutes their EI, with regard to both interpersonal and intrapersonal aspects. Barsade, Brief, and Spataro (2003) declared that attention to EI is creating an affective revolution in organization behavior resulting in a paradigm shift. This shift has brought into focus a new skill set that

required employees to be prepared for the future work force. These skills influence how individuals get along with others through listening, communication, and action (Wats & Wats, 2009).

Empathy is an essential component of EI (Authier, 1986; Bentley, 2000; Carlson, Clemmer, Jennings, Thompson, & Page, 2007; Goleman, 1995). Empathy is comprised of a higher capacity to learn, analyze, and discriminate between subtle differences in one's own and others' emotions (Goleman, 1995). The intent of this research study is to determine if individuals improved their EI by participating in a training intervention designed, in part, to support the development of participants' empathy skills. Previous research has investigated programs that have used various modalities to increase EI; however, the overall effectiveness of these programs has not been clearly established (Eyberg, Nelson, & Boggs, 2008; Hogan, 1969; Lipsey & Wilson, 2001; Long, Angera, Carter, Nakamoto & Kelso, 1999; Trzcinka & Grskovic, 2011). This current research study strives to contribute to those efforts.

Conceptual Framework

Emotional intelligence (EI) consists of a person's ability to understand and use their emotions in a way that is productive in interpersonal and intrapersonal interactions. When a leader's EI improves, this supports quality interactions between and among the leaders and the employees. Consequently, a work environment becomes more satisfying and effective for the employees as a result (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Goyal & Akhilesh, 2007; Pauleen & Schroeder, 2007). Stein and Book (2000) claim empathy can be improved by individuals who intentionally work on it. Thus, educators may be able to improve their individual EI by gaining awareness of the realms of feelings and

needs through training (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Pauleen & Schroeder, 2007). Recognizing the value of improved EI for educators, this current study seeks to provide information that will help instructional coaches (ICs) understand how improved empathy, leading to improved EI, can enhance their effectiveness at assisting teachers to improve instruction and consequently improve school achievement.

The hypothesis to be tested by this study is that EI can be taught. The research design includes identical pretest and posttest assessments using the EQmentor (Justice, 2010). The EQmentor is based on Goleman's (2001) model of EI. Salovey and Mayer (1990) described EI as "a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 187). Based on Salovey and Mayer's work, Goleman categorized five components of EI: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. Justice (2010) referenced the same five components in crafting the EQmentor. Self-awareness, self-regulation, and motivation are components of the intrapersonal scale, while empathy and social skills are components of interpersonal scale.

The intervention that took place between the pretest and posttest assessments uses a 20-hour training program in instructional coaching based on the Evocative Coaching model. Figure 1 depicts the conceptual framework of a pretest, Evocative Coaching training, and posttest for the study. The pretest and posttest consist of the EQmentor with its subscales of self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills.

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework

Emotional Intelligence (EQ) Pretest • Self-Awareness • Self-regulation • Motivation • Empathy • Social Skills	→	Evocative Coaching Training: • Story • Empathy • Inquiry • Design	→	Emotional Intelligence (EQ) Posttest • Self-Awareness • Self-regulation • Motivation • Empathy • Social Skills
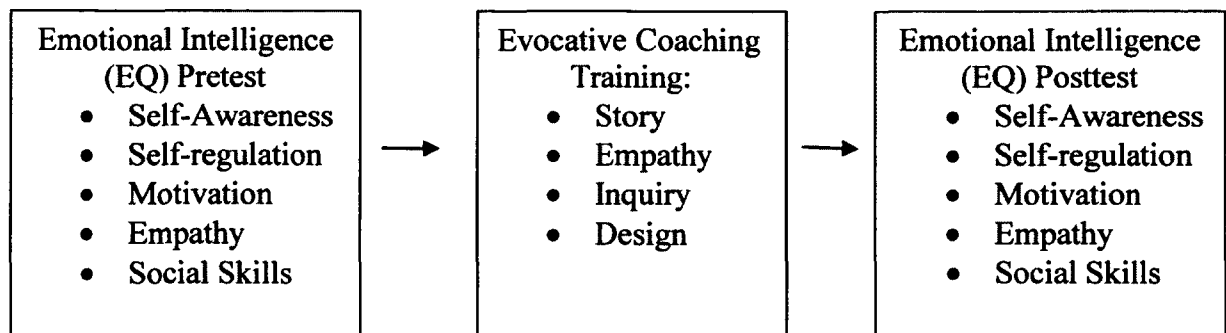
Through the process outlined in the book *Evocative Coaching: Transforming Schools One Conversation at a Time,* Tschannen-Moran and Tschannen-Moran (2010) have developed a process for improved conversations regarding instructional practices. Through this process, participants can embrace changes in their self-awareness and find solutions to become more effective in their work environments.

The Intervention: Evocative Coaching Training Program

The Evocative Coaching process starts with a no-fault understanding of what is happening in the present moment and then builds on that understanding by using appreciative inquiry, a strengths-based approach for discovering and realizing new possibilities (Tschannen-Moran & Tschannen-Moran, 2010). With this strengths-based approach to coaching conversations, they contend that change will follow. The logic model for Evocative Coaching consists of three parts: (1) inputs; (2) activities; and (3) outcomes as depicted in Figure 2.

The inputs are the Evocative Coaching textbook, instructors, participants, Maestro Conference Interface, and Center for School Transformation Groupsite, willing educators for coaching practice, audio/video recording devices, and time. Once participants register for the training, they receive a telephone number with a unique pin number assigned to

them which allows them to call in to the Maestro Conference Interface and be identified

by name. The interface allows the participants to hear the instructors, participate in a

dyad, triad, or speak to the entire group in a discussion. The Center for School

Transformation Group Site is a website with files to download, information regarding

other participants, and blogs to comment upon, and participate in through the site. The

activities of the Evocating Coaching model consist of reading assignments from the

textbook, in-class lectures and discussions, in-class practice exercises, and between-class

practice exercises. The activities section also includes the weekly class valuation surveys.

The outcomes of the Evocative Coaching model assessed in this study consist of

short-term and intermediate outcomes. The short-term outcomes are revealed in a weekly

class valuation survey and participants' reflection on using the Evocative Coaching

model. Another short-term outcome was the result of an increased or decreased score on

the EQmentor for the intrapersonal and interpersonal scale. The intermediate outcomes'

included the self-perceived impact of improved emotional intelligence and the impact on

instructional leadership practices. Another intermediate outcome is continued

participation on the Center for School Transformation community of practice on

Groupsite, which may potentially lead to a portfolio-based coaching certification by the

Center for School Transformation.

A logic model for this research study including the inputs, activities, and

outcomes is presented in Figure 2. The research study components are shown as the

yellow-shaded bubbles, starting with the inputs of the EQmentor pretest. The outcomes of

the study are broken into two sections, completion of the program and after completion of

the program. The yellow bubbles represent data collection tools in the two sections of the

outcomes: the EQmentor (Justice, 2010) posttest and the interviews from selected

participants. The after-completion outcome includes the selection of participants for

interviews based on difference scores on the EQMentor. Results from the EQmentor

generate the quantitative portion of the study, and transcriptions from the interviews

provide themes for the qualitative portion of the results.

Statement of the Problem

The problem addressed in this study is to assess whether measurable improvement

in emotional intelligence (EI) or empathy can result from a 20-hour intervention. The

development of empathy, as a component of EI, bridges the gap between a person's

individual awareness and social awareness. Recognizing the value of improved EI for

educators, this current study seeks to provide information that will help instructional

coaches understand how improved empathy, leading to improved EI, can enhance their

effectiveness at assisting teachers to improve instruction and schools achievement.

Figure 2 - Logic Model

Inputs   **Activities**   **Outcomes**

Completion of Program   **After Completion**

Weekly Class
Valuation Surveys

Interviews with Selected
Participants

EQmentor - Posttest

Researcher Selects
Participants for
Interviews

Researcher Compiles
Results from EQmentor
and Interviews

EQmentor – Pretest
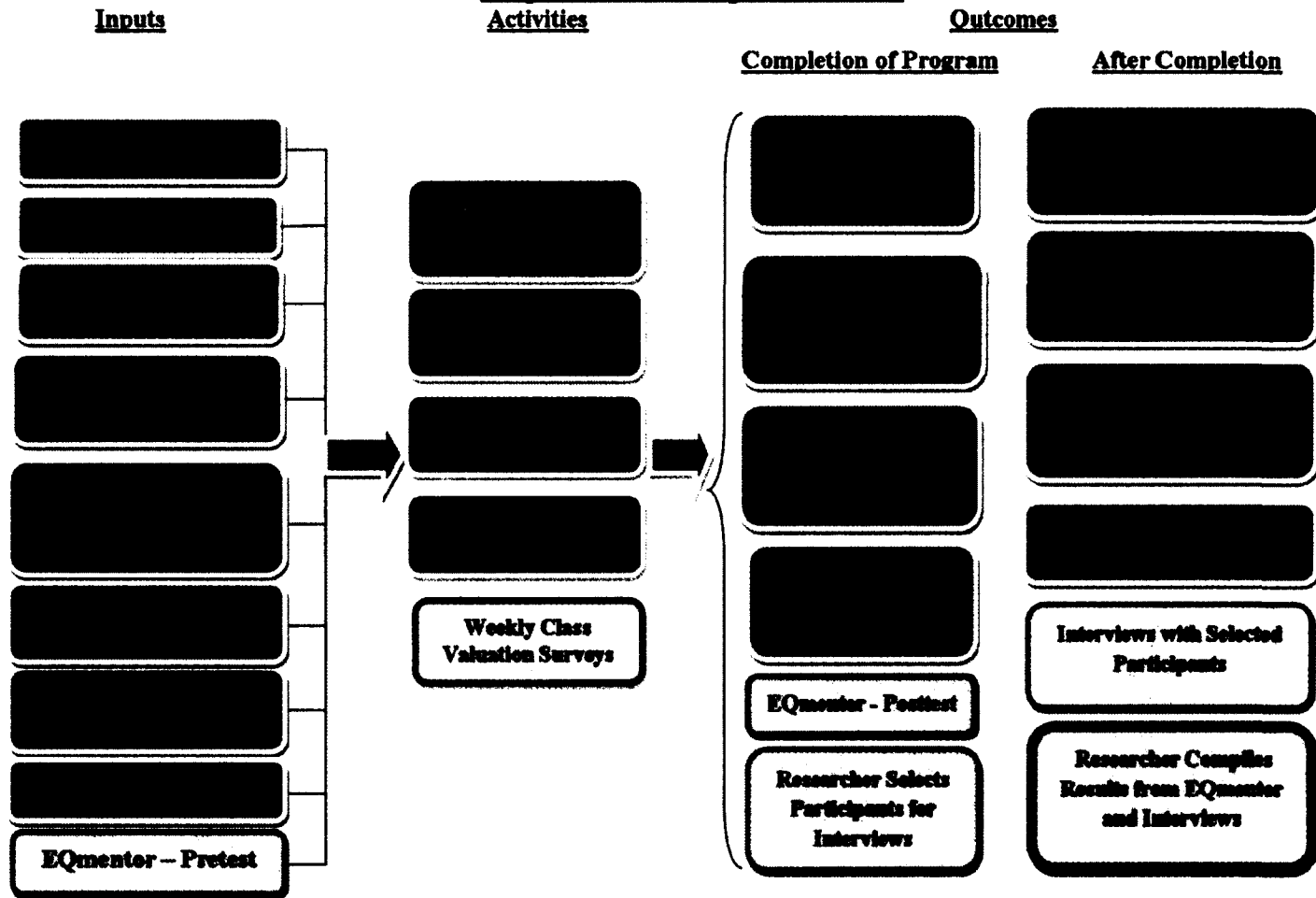
Significance of the Study

There has been a paradigm shift for our future work force requiring employees to be well armed with a variety of skills, including "hard skills" as well as the "soft skills" (Mitchell, Skinner & White, 2010). Hard skills reference the technical requirements of a job including the academic skills, experiences, and levels of individual expertise (Davis, Proe, & Box, 2006). However, hard skills alone are not enough. It has been estimated that "soft skills" contribute 85% to one's success, with the remaining 15% attributable to the technical or "hard skills" (Wats & Wats, 2009; Whitaker, 2010). Employment shifts in the United States of America require employees to engage in more interpersonal interactions than ever before; thus, possessing only technical skills will not be adequate in the new global marketplace (November, 2010; Timm, 2005). Hence, organizations, including education, will need to address the ever increasing need for EI as an essential skill (Justice, 2010; November, 2010; Wats & Wats, 2009).

Perreault (2004) defined "soft skills" as personal qualities and attributes that set a person apart from other individuals who have similar experience and skills. Soft skills contain certain career attributes that individuals can possess such communication skills, team skills, leadership skills, customer service skills, and problem solving skills (James & James, 2004). Soft skills include both self-empathy, an awareness of one's own feelings and needs, as well as empathy toward others' feelings and needs. These vital skills are an integral part of EI (Nicolaides, 2002). Sutton (2002) found that soft skills are so important that employers identify them as "the number one differentiator" for new job applicants in all types of industries (p. 40). Wilhelm (2004) claimed that employers rate soft skills highest in importance for entry-level success in the workplace. Glenn (2008)

agreed that hiring individuals who possess soft skills is instrumental for high-performing organizations to retain a competitive edge.

The professional standards for educational leadership, as well as professional development standards for the field, require administrators to promote and sustain a productive school culture and an instructional program that encourages student growth. Forty-three states use the educational leadership standards presented by the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards for School Leaders as a template for the development of school administrators (Educational Leadership Policy Standards, 2008). Standard Two states, "An education leader promotes the success of every student by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth" (Educational Leadership Policy Standards, 2008, p. 14). The functions under Standard Two include evaluating the instructional and leadership capacity of staff, supervising instruction, and maximizing time spent on quality instruction.

Professional development standards developed and promoted by Learning Forward, a nonprofit organization for professional development in education, defines professional development as "a comprehensive, sustained, and intensive approach to improving teachers' and principals' effectiveness in raising student achievement" (Learning Forward, 2011). Standard Two of the Learning Forward standards reference the need for schools to have educators that are equipped by well-prepared school principals and/or school-based professional development coaches, mentors, master teachers, or other teacher leaders (Learning Forward, 2011). Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, and Cohen (2007) found that exemplary professional

development programs for administrators have many common components, including a focus on equipping administrators for their roles as instructional leaders. The more detailed, directed, and specified professional development utilized as a basis for improving teachers' and principals' effectiveness, along with this study, helps to determine if instructional coaching should be incorporated into a school's instructional and improvement plan. Knight (2011) takes it a step further regarding coaching by stating "EI and communication skills help, but another factor is crucial....how we think about coaching significantly enhances or interferes with our success as a coach" (p. 18). The alignment of coaching as professional development with both the ISLLC standards and the Learning Forward standards provides a significant rationale for this study.

Unfortunately, within the school environment, administrators and teachers are too often unaware of the effects EI levels have on the individuals they lead. The current educational environment is comprised of teachers earning content areas expertise, as required of school employees by meeting certain educational degrees and passing content knowledge tests (Goleman, 1998). The missing component from the traditional requirements for personnel entering the educational setting is the ability to support quality interactions between adults, through improved EI, which helps to provide an effective and productive work environment (Goleman, 1998; Pink, 2006; Wagner, 2008). Educators suggest that EI is a necessary component essential to make good decisions, solve problems, and encourage success (Caruso & Salovey, 2004; Gardner, 1999; Goleman, 2000; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Bar-On (2004) summarized EI as a predictor for success because it demonstrates how individuals apply knowledge to their immediate situations. "In a way, to measure emotional intelligence is to measure one's 'common

sense' and the ability to get along in the world" (Bar-On, 2004, p. 1). A leader's ability to leverage EI to create a more positive direction creates a better work environment for all involved, and this leadership provides the cohesion necessary for EI allowing people to work in teams and within their own organizations (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002). In education, Johnson, Kardos, Kauffman, Liu, & Donaldson (2004) explains it is never one size fits all, but it is one size fits one.

Hypothesis

The hypotheses that guided this mixed-methods study was that there will be a statistically significant increase in scores on a measure of emotional intelligence (EI) at the conclusion of 20 hours of coach training in a program that includes explicit training in empathy. Furthermore, it was hypothesized that participants would note improved performance as instructional leaders as a result of increased awareness of their own and others' feelings and needs.

Research Questions:

The research questions to be investigated were:

1) To what extent are scores on a measure of emotional intelligence changed as a result of participation in a 20 hour coach-training program?

   a) To what extent is there a measurable difference in the participants' total emotional quotient (combining the interpersonal and intrapersonal scores) of emotional intelligence before and after participation in the coach training program?

   b) To what extent is there a measurable difference in the participants' intrapersonal skills (combining the self-regulation, self-awareness, and

motivation subscales) of emotional intelligence before and after

participation in the coach-training program?

c) To what extent is there a measurable difference in the participants'

interpersonal skills (combining empathy and social skills) of emotional

intelligence, before and after participation in the coach training

program?

2)   What changes do selected participants perceive to their level of empathy

as a result of the training, and how do they perceive that their emotional

intelligence affects their performance as administrators and/or teacher

leaders?

3)   What do selected participants perceive to have been the influence of the

training in the Evocative Coaching model on their practices as

instructional leaders after the completion of the training?

Definition of Key Terms

This study focuses on improving emotional intelligence (EI) through specific

training in empathy as operationalized by a measure of EI among instructional coaches

who work with teachers to improve their instruction.

Administrator –A school administrator is an education leader who promotes the success

of every student by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and

instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth

(Educational Leadership Policy Standards: ISLLC, 2008).

Coaching –Coaching is "the art of creating an environment, through conversation and a way of being, that facilitates the process by which a person can move toward desired goals in a fulfilling manner" (Gallwey, 2000, p. 177).

Emotional Competence –Emotional competence refers to a learned capability based on emotional intelligence, which result in outstanding performance at work (Berz, 2007; Taylor 2007)

Emotional Intelligence (EI) – EI represents the ability to perceive emotions, to generate and assess emotions, to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; the ability to understand feelings when they facilitate cognitive activities and adaptive actions, and the ability to regulate emotions in ones-self and in others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Emotional Quotient (EQ) –For this study, EQ is the means of quantifying EI by combining multiple subscales on an assessment of emotional intelligence to arrive at a given score (Drew, 2007; Moyer, 2007). The higher the EQ, the more competent a person is in self-understanding and in general social situations (Drew, 2007; Moyer, 2007). In some cases, EQ is used interchangeably with EI (Mayer & Salovey, 1995).

Empathy – "Empathy is a respectful, no-fault understanding and appreciation of someone's experience" (Tschannen-Moran & Tschannen-Moran, 2010, p. 21). Both self-empathy and empathy directed towards others are grounded in an understanding of the feelings and underlying universal needs that drive behavior.

Evocative – Evocative is "calling to mind, bringing to existence, eliciting emotions, causing to appear, summoning into action, and finding one's voice (from Latin

evocave, to call, akin to vox, voice)"(Tschannen-Moran & Tschannen-Moran, 2010, p. 7).

Evocative Coaching – Evocative Coaching is "calling forth motivation and movement in people through conversation and a way of being, so they achieve a desired outcome and enhance their quality of life" (Tschannen-Moran & Tschannen-Moran, 2010, p. 7).

Hard Skills –Hard skill are the technical requirements of a job (Davis, Proe, & Boxx, 2006).

Instructional Coaches – For purposes of this study, all educators who provide formative assessments and who work to support teachers to improve instruction will be referred to as instructional coaches, whatever their formal title or other duties might entail. These might include, but are not limited to, principal, assistant principal, teacher leader, department chair, instructional specialist, or curriculum lead. An instructional coach is a professional developer who teaches educators how to use proven instructional methods (Knight, 2006).

Professional Development –Professional development is a comprehensive, sustained, and intensive approach to improving personnel that provide instruction for raising student achievement (National Staff Development Council, 2001).

Soft Skills – Soft skills are the cluster of personality traits, social graces, and facility with language, personal habits, friendliness, and optimism that mark people to varying degrees (Davis, Proe, & Boxx, 2006).

CHAPTER 2 – REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter focuses on the concept of empathy as a component of emotional intelligence (EI). Empathy is a core concept in such varied fields as psychology, medicine, business, politics, and education (Goleman, 1998, 2000; Justice, 2010). This chapter starts with an introduction of the styles of leadership, funneling down to the leadership style of coaching. The chapter is then divided into three major sections: Coaching, EI, and empathy. The first section on coaching provides an introduction, definition, and a history of instructional coaching relating to school settings. The next section on EI starts with a history and definition of the construct. This section then continues with a definition and comparison of the three prominent models of EI: Goleman (1995), Mayer and Salovey (1997), and Bar-On (2004). A final model of EI, Justice (2010), EPowerment, will also be introduced, defined, and compared to the previous three models.

After the second section, a bridge will be built the two constructs of EI and empathy. The first part of this section provides a description of the construct of empathy, followed by an exploration of empathy as an aspect of EI. Empathy will be explored from educational, medical, and business perspectives. From there, cognitive, affective, and behavioral empathy are discussed, empathy is distinguished from sympathy and pity, and empathy emerges as a 21st century skill, providing more clarity in defining the construct. The final part, a specific method of teaching empathy, Nonviolent Communication ®, which is used in this study, is then presented.

Leadership

There are numerous styles of leadership in education today. Northouse (2007)

identifies leadership as a process in which an individual influences a group of people to

achieve a common goal. Goleman (2011) lists six styles of leadership: affiliative,

authoritative, coaching, coercive, democratic, and pacesetting. Affiliative leaders create

emotional bonds among the followers. Authoritative leaders mobilize individuals toward

a vision. Coaching leaders develop individuals by using the one-on-one component that

assists with long-term growth, and coercive leaders demand immediate participation and

compliance. Democratic leaders build consensus with individual participation. The

pacesetter leaders expect self-direction and excellence. Goleman concludes, "Leaders

who have mastered four or more – especially the authoritative, democratic, affiliative,

and coaching styles – have the best climate and business performance" (Goleman, 2000,

p. 87). Each leadership style originates and demonstrates its own components of

emotional intelligence (EI) (Goleman, 2011). Likewise, Fullan (2001) supports leaders as

needing emotional intelligence. "It should come as no surprise then that the most

effective leaders are not the smartest in an Intelligence Quotient (IQ) sense but are those

who combine intellectual brilliance with emotional intelligence (IQ)" (Fullan, 2001, p.

71). Goleman (2000) found that managers who failed in performance were all high in

expertise and IQ, but their weaknesses were in EI. He found that the EI characteristics

prominent in those managers were arrogance, overreliance on brainpower, inability to

adapt to alternating shifts, and disdain for teamwork or collaboration. Relationships are

everywhere and for them to be successful, a high EI is essential (Goleman, 2000; 2011).

Effective leaders work to improve their own EI and that of others (Goleman, 2000; 2011).

Leaders use and need many styles in effective leadership. Goleman (2011)

suggests leaders must first understand which EI competencies exist in the leadership

styles of others that they are lacking in their own repertoire. Likewise, the most effective

leaders switch and are flexible among the various leadership styles as needed. For

example, an affiliative leader has strengths in three EI competencies, consisting of

empathy, building relationships, and communication. So, if you are primarily a pacesetter

type of leader and you want to use the affiliative style, you need to improve your level of

empathy and your skills at building relationships or communicating effectively

(Goleman, 2011).

Of the many styles of leadership, coaching helps individuals identify unique

strengths and weaknesses and encourages personal growth (Goleman, 2011). These

leaders assist individuals with their roles and responsibilities for their development plans

by providing instruction and feedback. Goleman (2011) found through his research that,

of the six styles, the coaching styles is practiced the least. Leaders confirmed that the

coaching style is a slow, tedious, and lengthy process of teaching people and ultimately

provides individual growth. "Leaders who ignore this style are passing up a powerful

tool: its impact on climate and performance are markedly positive" (Goleman, 2011, p.

670).

Coaching

Schools are increasingly using coaches for their professional development

requirements, and educators now recognize the need of continuous assistance for all

teachers due to increasing accountability (Barr, Simmons, & Zarrow, 2003; Kowal &

Steiner, 2007; Knight, 2009). With the passing of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB),

schools and school divisions are required to develop and implement school improvement

plans that incorporate activities, such as coaching, provided consistently over time

(Kowal & Steiner, 2007). Professional development must be ongoing, job-embedded in

the teachers' classrooms, student-focused, specific to grade levels or academic content,

and research-based (Poglinco & Bach, 2005). The use of instructional coaches provides

opportunities for ongoing professional development. Educational leaders recognize the

old form of professional development built around the common and traditional in-service

sessions for teachers, simply doesn't affect student achievement (Knight, 2006).

Coaching offers support, feedback, and individualized professional learning, promising to

improve instruction in the schools. Instructional coaching represents one way to provide

sufficient support for these changes to occur (Knight, 2006). Coaching is a non-

evaluative, learning relationship between a teacher and the coach, both who share the

same goal of learning together, ultimately improving instruction and student achievement

(Knight, 2009).

The International Coach Federation (ICF), an organization which develops

standards and skills for professional coaches, reports that as of 2009,there are more than

11,000 certified coaches worldwide and 30,000 practicing coaches, which includes those

without professional coaching credentials (Reiss, Brackett, Shamosh, Kiehl, Salovey &

Gray, 2009). Professional coaches work for large corporations, but only a few works for

schools (Reiss et al., 2009). The National Staff Development Conference program from

1997 mentioned the word coach 19 times, but in 2007, the word or its variation appears

193 times at the same national conference (Knight, 2009). The trend is changing for the

field of coaching particularly in schools thus creating the need for instructional coaches

(ICS) (Knight, 2009).

Definition of Coaching

In the field of coaching, there exists a number of organizations with articulated

standards and ethical codes of conduct. The International Coach Federation (ICF) defines

coaching as "partnering with clients in a thought-provoking and creative process that

inspires them to maximize their personal and professional potential" (ICF, 2009, p. 1).

The International Association of Coaching (IAC) defines coaching as "a transformative

process for personal and professional awareness, discovery and growth" (IAC, 2011, p.

1). One of the earlier definitions for coaching in education is provided by Showers (1982)

defining coaching as "a combination of several elements…companionship…feedback…

and analysis of application" (p. 8). Knight (2007) defines coaching as "an approach that

offers time and support for teachers to reflect, converse about, explore, and practice new

ways of thinking about and doing this remarkably important and complex act, called

teaching" (p. 2). More importantly for education, Knight (2007) stated that coaching puts

teacher needs in the forefront of professional development by individualizing learning.

Duessen, Coskie, Robinson, and Autio (2007) contributed that "coaching occurs when a

more knowledgeable professional works closely with another professional to increase

productivity or to meet some predetermined outcome" (p. 5).

Instructional Coaching

For the past decade, educators throughout the United States are increasingly using

the strategy of instructional coaches (ICs) to improve instruction (Knight, 2007). These

ICs are generally outstanding teachers who come to the school and work one-on-one with

the classroom teachers to improve their individual level of instruction. These coaches

exhibit expertise in their teaching skills and content knowledge. Knight (2007) based his

seven principles from the fields of adult education, cultural anthropology, leadership,

organizational theory, and epistemology to form his theoretical framework for

instructional coaching.

Teachers and instructional coaches share teaching practices. Knight (2009) used a

framework referred to as the Big Four which includes classroom management, content,

instruction, and formative assessment for learning. The first, classroom management is

crucial for any learning environment. If student behavior is out of control, the

instructional coach (IC) and teacher will struggle to make other practices work if

classroom management is not addressed first. Secondly, content references whether the

teacher has a deep knowledge and understanding of the content and which content is most

important and how to explain the content. Third, instruction is the teacher using teaching

practices that ensure all students master and understand the content. The fourth

component of the Big Four is the formative assessment; does the teacher know if students

are mastering the content?

History of Instructional Coaching

As far back as the 1800s, "committee men fulfilled the function of supervisors by

giving directions, checking for compliance with teaching techniques, and evaluating

results of instruction by the teachers in their charge" (Oliva & Pawlas, 2004, p. 5). The

role of the instructional coach during the first half of the nineteenth century was that

teachers were following the state curriculum and students were passing standardized tests

(Starratt, 2002). In 1969, the first signs of a coaching model emerged from Goldhammer

and Cogan, two Harvard University supervisors. They borrowed the term "clinical supervision" from the medical profession where it is still used as a process for perfecting the specialized knowledge and skills of practitioners. Goldhammer (1969) initiated a five-stage process which included a pre-observation conference, classroom observation, data analysis and strategy, conference, and post-conference analysis. This marked the initial beginnings of coaching for instructional purposes (Krajewski & Anderson, 1980). Teachers did not view the clinical supervision as instructional coaching or support, but more as evaluative. Clinical supervision failed to fully materialize because it involved too much time for the school administrators (Krajewski & Anderson, 1980).

Baker and Showers (1984) concluded that the inclusion of coaches as part of the professional development for teachers resulted in teachers demonstrating greater long-term retention of the skills. They also concluded that the use of new skills from the professional development was apparent than the teachers that received no assistance from the coaches. Likewise, Bush (1984) found that only 10% of the participants were able to transfer the new skill from professional development to the classroom. Bush (1984) found 13% were able to transfer the new skill to the classroom when the skill was modeled during professional development and 16% transferred the skill when they were allowed to practice the new skill with their peers and given performance feedback. More importantly, when teachers were offered and provided coaching as part of the professional development, 95% of the teachers transferred the new skill to their classroom.

Boston Public School System (BPSS) used ICs as the heart of their reform efforts during the 1997-2005 school years. With their private foundation support of over $20

million from the Annenberg Foundation and other public service organizations, they

initiated a plan to allow teachers and principals to determine their own learning needs and

to address them with on-site professional development (Brown, Reumann-Moore, Hugh,

duPlessis, & Christman, 2006). This initiative, referred to as Whole-School Change, was

implemented over a four-year period with a quarter of the BPSS schools entering a new

cohort each September. Each of these new cohorts were referred to as "21st Century

Schools" and each school was provided a part-time whole-school change coach and

developed instructional leadership and coach teams (Brown et al., 2006).

Pennsylvania also entered into a similar reform with the Annenberg Foundation

serving 24 of the most at-risk high schools referred to as the Pennsylvania High School

Coaching Initiative (PAHSCI) (Brown et al., 2006) PAHSCI placed one literacy and

math coach in a school for every 600 students. The state hoped the program would result

in the development of professional learning communities that build teacher capacity and

contributed to an expansion of the coaching model. This was attained through increased

student achievement with a focus on literacy preparing the students for the work force.

Pennsylvania placed 180 coaches in high schools across the state to support student

achievement (Brown et al., 2006). A distinct feature of the PAHSCI was that coaches

also provided coaches and administrators with mentoring to model the same types of

supports as the teachers. Eisenberg (2008) pointed out the PAHSCI required the coaches

to participate in before, during, and after conference sessions with the teachers. One of

the most beneficial elements of the coach and teacher interaction was the post-conference

which allowed coaches to provide feedback on the strengths and limitations of the lesson

(Eisenberg, 2008). Brown et al. (2006) found that as a whole, teachers and principals held

ICs as a valuable resource. Also, Brown et al (2006) found that 72% of teachers that had strongly participated in one-on-one coaching relationships reported their individual coach had a significant role in increasing student achievement and only 43% who had not strongly participated in coaching activities responded with such support of their coaching

Chicago Public School System (CPSS) started at the beginning of the 2007-2008 school to use ICs to increase student achievement. Dieger, Goldwasser, and Hurtig (2008) conducted a qualitative study to provide the CPSS with an external analysis of the activities of the ICs and their impact on student achievement. In the end, both teachers and principals confirmed coaches with having a positive impact on student achievement. Consequently, one common finding in research literature is that notable improvement in education rarely takes place in the absence of professional development (Guskey, 2000). Also, the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) required that professional development programs to incorporate activities, like coaching, to be provided consistently over time (Kowal & Stein, 2007). To this response, low-performing school districts across the nation are investing large amounts of time and money in instructional coaches in hopes of reform implementation and sustainment (Kowal & Steiner, 2007).

Within Knight's (2007) theoretical framework, he incorporated seven principles into instructional coaching consisting of equality, choice, voice, dialogue, reflection, praxis and reciprocity. The equality principle represents that the teacher and the instructional coach are equal partners; the instructional coach listens to understand, not to tell the teacher what should happen or what they should do (Knight, 2007). The choice principle signifies that the teachers have a choice in what and how they learn (Knight, 2007). The voice principle suggests that professional development should empower and

value the voices of teachers (Knight, 2007). The dialogue principle means that

professional development should create more dialogue meaning the instructional coach

should listen more than they talk (Knight, 2007). The reflection principle represents the

existence of reflective thinkers have the right to choose or reject ideas (Knight, 2007).

The praxis principle means that teachers apply their learning to real-world practice

(Knight, 2007). The reciprocity principle represents that instructional coaches should

expect to receive as much as they give (Knight, 2007). With these seven principles and

the partnership approach, instructional coaches work with individual teachers to help

them integrate research-based strategies into their instruction to ultimately improve

instruction and student achievement.

Coaching in School Settings. Primary schools are defined as schools

encompassing grades pre-kindergarten through the 5th grade. One of the most well-known

programs using coaching is Reading First (Toll, 2005). Reading First is a federal project

that seeks to improve reading skills in low-performing K-3 schools. Reading First schools

have been established in all 50 states, District of Columbia, Native American Indian

reservations, and U.S. territories (Toll, 2005). An essential component of the Reading

First program has been professional development for teachers through workshops and

site-based literacy coaches (Deussen, Coskie, Robin, & Autio, 2007). Since the Reading

First requires that the professional development be provided by a reading coach, over

5,200 schools have recruited and hired reading specialist or reading coaches (Deussen et

al., 2007). Davis and Roccograndi (2007) found in a study of the Reading First program

through interviews, surveys, and observations teachers reported coaches as their choice

for the primary vehicle of professional development. With the Reading First program,

mixed results were reported with student achievement. However, there was dramatic

growth with the minority population and the students considered as English Second

Language (ESL) and also the low socio-economic background. Reading coaches and

literacy coaches are synonymous in some schools while other school systems place

distinct roles for each type of coach (Knight, 2007). Knight (2007) concluded "that

literacy and reading coaches perform a wide range of valuable activities in schools,

sometimes working with students and more frequently working with teachers, to increase

students' literacy skills and strategies" (p. 12). Literacy coaching may range from

different teaching strategies to test taking strategies for standardized tests whereas a

reading coach focuses on phonic and the teaching of reading (Toll, 2005).

In primary school classrooms, evidence showed that social and emotional

development in children can positively influence future academic outcomes (Rhoades,

Warren, Domitrovich, & Greenberg, 2011). Another study, Pears, Fisher and Bronz

(2007) found children who struggle socially early in school are more likely to flounder

throughout their academic year. Skiffington, Washburn, and Elliott (2011) are members

of the team at Education Development Center (EDC) in Newton, Massachusetts and they

developed and refined a coaching model through the Excellence in Teaching courses and

projects funded by the U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Science,

Office of Head Start, and numerous state education agencies. Their model is a three-

phase process consisting of a pre-observation planning conference, observation and

analysis, and the third phase being the reflective conference. The colleagues at EDC used

various other models of instructional coaching but found this model had the potential to

promote pre-K through grade 12 teachers' application of any new knowledge

(Skiffington, Washburn, & Elliott, 2011).

Hasbrouck and Denton's (2005) model of Student-Focused Coaching (SFC) is

based on research and incorporates aspects from several coaching strategies implemented

in primary schools. Unlike other coaching models, the SFC is a model where its primary

goal is student focused and not focused on the need for teacher change. The model is

primarily for reading coaches to implement with students using three categories of

activities including facilitator, teacher/learner, and collaborative problem solver. It is

defined as "a cooperative, ideally collaborative relationship with parties mutually

engaged in efforts to provide better services for students" (Hasbrouck & Denton, 2005, p.

690).In a randomized controlled study in six schools. Mathes, Denton, Fletcher, Anthony,

Francis, and Schatschneider (2005) validated the SFC model for first-grade struggling

readers. Unique to the SFC model is a web-based component that allows coaches and

teachers to view the results of student.

In a landmark meta-analysis of 165 programs in secondary schools, it emerged

that secondary schools needed to take social-emotional learning innovations and

implement with quality and sustainability (Elias, Zins, Graczyk, & Weissberg, 2003). The

authors also concluded that implementing social and emotional programs reported lower

dropout rates, while posting higher attendance numbers. Other academic benefits from

the implementation of social and emotional programs have included handling emotions in

stressful academic situations, being resilient in challenging situations, and high

inclusiveness of all school population. Moreover, the Pennsylvania High School

Coaching Initiative (PAHSCI) found that the teachers who participated were more likely

to apply instructional strategies when coaching was provided (Brown et al., 2006). The

ICs worked one-on-one with teachers to solve problems, model lessons, and conduct

classroom visitations that included the pre-observation, classroom observation, and post-

conference after the observation.

Instructional Coaching as Professional Development. The National Staff

Development Council (NSDC, 2001) stated that professional development is imperative

in enhancing teacher quality and improving student achievement. Over the past decade

since the NCLB Act, extreme importance has been placed on professional development

because it is believed that student achievement is linked to teachers' practices (Guskey,

2003; Killeen, 2002; Peterson & West, 2003). Professional development has become a

major element for the use of school funds in school improvement plans and educational

reform due to the NCLB Act. This stresses the significance of valuable professional

development to ensure all teachers are highly-qualified and that all students can reach

high levels of success in their achievement (Peterson & West, 2003).

According to the National Staff Development Council (NSDC) (2001),

instructional coaching is effective professional development because it provides follow-

up, incorporates diversity, and supports and encourages the use of collaboration. NSDC

identifies 12 standards for effective professional development and they are divided into

three categories: context standard, process standard, and content standard. The context

standard category focuses on creating learning communities, providing continuous

instructional improvement through leadership and resources (NSDC, 2001). The process

standard category addresses the development, implementation, and delivery of the

professional learning focus. The standard addresses data, evaluation, research-based

design, learning, and collaboration providing professional learning leading to student

learning. The final category, content standard, focuses on equity, quality teaching, and

family involvement (NSDC, 2001). Instructional coaching encompasses these major

categories making it a useful vehicle for professional development (Poglinco & Bach,

2005).

Driscoll (2008) claims that professional development is most effective when it

includes components that are based in the school, embedded in the job, and increased

teacher academic understanding of their job. Coaches act as change agents to advance

student achievement increasing collaboration (Driscoll, 2008). Teachers and coaches

work collaboratively to plan, perform, and reflect on the lessons taught. Through this

process, coaches work with the teachers to establish, foster, and maintain a trusting and

honorable relationship (Cornett & Knight, 2008). When teachers can rely and confide in

their coaches, instructional coaching becomes professional development (Cornett &

Knight, 2008; Poglinco & Bach, 2005).

Knight (2009) described teachers and ICs as sharing teaching practices. Working

with the University of Kansas Center for Research on Learning, Knight (2009) used a

framework referred to as the Big Four which includes classroom management, content,

instruction, and formative assessment for learning. The first, classroom management is

crucial for any learning environment. If student behavior is out of control, the IC and

teacher will struggle to make other practices work if classroom management is not

addressed first. Secondly, content references whether the teacher has a deep knowledge

and understanding of the content and which content is most important and how to explain

the content. Third, instruction is the teacher using teaching practices that ensure all

students master and understand the content. The fourth and final component of the Big

Four is the formative assessment concerns how the teacher knows whether the students

are mastering the content.

Characteristics of Instructional Coaches. Neufeld and Roper (2003) referenced

that instructional coaching enhances professional development because it focuses on

supporting knowledge, improving practice in the school, and promoting student

achievement. Ferger, Woleck, and Hickman (2004) along with Burkins and Ritchie

(2007) identify certain characteristics as knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary for

ICs. These characteristics are interpersonal skills, content knowledge, pedagogical

knowledge, knowledge of the curriculum, awareness of coaching resources, and

knowledge of the practice of coaching (Burkins & Ritchie, 2007; Ferger, Woleck &

Hickman, 2004). The first, knowledge, meaning pedagogical knowledge is very

important because the ICs must demonstrate proficiency as an effective classroom

teacher. Skills, the second of the identified characteristic, are the behaviors and feelings

existing with the coach. The coach must be able to communicate effectively with the

teachers and create a trusting and credible relationship. ICs must be tactful,

compassionate, and sensitive to get teachers to change their current practices (Kowal &

Steiner, 2007). The final dispositions refer to the qualities that characterize a person as an

individual. The five dispositions that ICs should share are empathy, positive view of

others, positive view of self, authenticity, and a meaningful purpose and vision (Ferger,

Woleck, & Hickman, 2004). Empathy is the consideration and acceptance of another

individual's point of view. The positive view of self and others includes believing that

you and others have worth, ability, and potential. Authenticity represents having a sense

of openness enabling you to be honest and genuine. Finally, meaningful purpose and

vision incorporates the commitment to a purpose and determined to reach a goal at hand.

Emotional Intelligence

In today's global environment, the need for interpersonal awareness and

intrapersonal communication skills are researched more than the needs for cognitive

skills (Justice, 2010; Patnaik, 2008; Pink, 2006, 2010; Whitaker, Whitaker, & Lumpa,

2010). During the last two decades, emotional intelligence (EI) has been featured in cover

stories in national magazines (Goleman, 1995), and coverage in the international press

(Miketta, Gottschling, Wagner-Roos, & Gibbs, 1995; Thomas, 1995). EI represents the

ability to perceive emotions, to generate and access emotions, to understand emotion and

emotional knowledge; the ability to understand feelings when they facilitate cognitive

activities and adaptive actions; and the ability to regulate emotions in ones-self and in

others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). EI refers to the effectiveness of an individual's response

to his or her own feelings or emotions and to those of others. A person with high EI is

very adept at understanding and properly responding in an appropriate way to the

nuances of social situations. An emotionally intelligent person can use his or her

understanding of emotion in harmony with good reasoning skills to make reasonable

decisions while maintaining good relationships (Drew, 2007; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey,

2004; Moyer 2007; Wats & Wats, 2009). The results of an EI assessment are called an

EQ, the Emotional Intelligence Quotient, which is designed to quantify EI. The higher the

EQ, the more competent a person is in self-understanding and in general social situations

(Drew, 2007; Moyer, 2007).

A person with low EI is likely to disregard or confuse the impact of human

emotion apparent in social situations. Goleman (1995), one of the leading researchers in

emotional intelligence theory, cited an excerpt from Aristotle's *Nicomachean Ethics* as an

example of the implications of EI. Aristotle said: "Anyone can become angry -- that is

easy. But to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the

right purpose, and in the right way-- this is not easy" (p. xix). People with alexithymia, a

severe form of low emotional intelligence, lack the verbal ability to express emotion or

describe emotions in others.

History of Emotional Intelligence

Researchers as early as 1920 recognized the importance of emotional intelligence

(EI) as the way we use our emotions and its components relating to non-cognitive

abilities. EI goes back as far as Thorndike's (1920) social intelligence, which related the

concern of the ability to understand and manage people to act wisely in human

relationships. Thorndike first introduced three divisions of intelligence being abstract

intelligence, mechanical intelligence, and social intelligence. Social intelligence relates to

people. Thorndike refers to social intelligence as "the ability to understand and manage

men and women" (p. 228). Other researchers refined this definition to "the ability to get

along with people in general" (Moss & Hunt, 1927, p. 108) and "social technique or ease

in society; knowledge of social matter, susceptibility to stimuli from other members of a

group, as well as insight into the temporal moods or underlying personality traits of

strangers" (Vernon, 1933, p. 44)."You intentionally make your emotions work for you by

using them to guide your behavior and thinking in ways that enhance your results"

(Weisinger, 1998, p. 45). When a person is aware of their feelings and behavior as well as

what others' perceive of them, it creates the opportunity to influence their own actions in such a way that it works to their advantage.

The initial works of Gardner (1983) on multiple intelligences and, in particular, his works concentrating on intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence were the beginning of contemporary research on EI. According to Gardner (1999), "interpersonal intelligence denotes a person's capacity to understand and the intentions, motivations, and desires of other people and, consequently, to work effectively with others" (p. 43). On the other hand, "intrapersonal intelligence involves the capacity to understand oneself, to have an effective working model of oneself– including one's own desires, fears, and capacities – and to use such information effectively in regulating one's own life" (p. 43).

As a term, EI, appeared many times in the research literature (Greenspan, 1989) before the initial formal model introduced by Salovey and Mayer (1990). Mayer, DiPaolo, and Salovey (1990) carried out the first relevant empirical study of EI. Their study examined characteristics of the perception of emotion in visual stimuli: its amplitude, range, and consensual quality. As Mayer, DiPaolo, and Salovey predicted, the ability to extract emotional information from faces, color, and even abstract design was related to empathy. They also revealed in their study that empathy requires the accurate identification of the emotional responses of other people and must accurately perceive the emotions before empathy can take place or be measured (Mayer, DiPaolo, & Salovey, 1990). Goleman (1995) popularized the construct and influenced the study of EI. Goleman (2000) described EI as a mix of skills including awareness of emotions; traits, such as persistence and zeal; and good behavior. Similarly, research in the areas of

interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence has evolved (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Goleman (1995) proposed EI as "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those

of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in our relationships"

(p. 476).

EI initially started appearing in academic articles in the early 1990s. By 1995, the

academic concept had attracted attention and powerful claims concerning its importance

for predicting success were surfacing (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). Shortly after

these theoretical articles and relevant research, Goleman (1995) published his popular

book on EI, and EI entered popular awareness.

Bar-On (1997) defined EI as being concerned with understanding oneself and

others, relating to people, and adapting to, and coping with immediate surroundings to be

successful in environmental demands. Regardless of all the varied definitions of EI and

varied models, it is clear that EI is distinct from standard intelligence. Within the models

of EI, ability models regard EI as a pure form of mental ability and thus as a pure

intelligence. In contrast to the ability model, mixed models of EI combine the mental

ability with personality characteristics such as optimism and well being (Mayer &

Salovey, 1999). Bar-On based his model of EI within the context of personality theory,

emphasized co-dependence of the ability aspects of EI with personality traits and their

application to personal well being. Bar-On's model is in contrast to Goleman who

proposed a mixed model in terms of performance integrating an individual's abilities and

personality applying their corresponding effects on performance in the workplace

(Goleman, 2001).

Models of Emotional Intelligence

There are three prominent models of emotional intelligence (EI) extending from the ability model of Salovey and Mayer (1990) to the competency model of Goleman (1995); and to the personality traits and characteristics of the Bar-On model (2004). A fourth model, EPowerment (Justice, 2010) allows for empowerment, high levels of EI, and maximization of the "e", referencing the electronic world. Each of the EI models maintains an established test to measure EI aligning with their own working definition of their model. All of the above mentioned EI models differ in their definition of EI and the assessments used to measure EI. Additionally, the models differ on their theory of whether and to what extent an individual's EI can be improved. Thus, there is a lack of agreement within the field regarding the construct of EI.

Mayer and Salovey Model. Mayer and Salovey's (1990; 1993; 1997) model represents a foundational ability model of self-awareness as depicted in Figure 3.With this in mind, the Mayer and Salovey model is based upon EI as natural abilities. The Mayer and Salovey model, also known as the Four-Branch model, describes four areas of capacities or skills that collectively describe EI. Mayer and Salovey defined EI as "the ability to monitor one's own and others feelings of emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189). Later they refined their definition of EI to "perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004, p. 197).

Figure 3. Emotional Intelligence Four-Branch Model (1990)

	__Awareness__	__Management__
__Self__	__Self-Awareness__ • Emotional Self-Awareness • Accurate self-assessment • Self-confidence	__Self-Management__ • Self Management • Transparency • Adaptability • Achievement • Initiative • Optimism
__Social__	__Social Awareness__ • Empathy • Organizational Awareness • Service	__Relationship Management__ • Inspiration • Influence • Developing Others • Change Catalyst • Conflict Management • Teamwork and Collaboration

The definition of EI in Mayer and Salovey's model is more refined than in other models, such as Goleman's and Bar-On's, and is less ambiguous in that it is not a broad brush model diluted by personality indicators. The weakness of this model with respect to the focus of this research is that it is based on the assumption that EI, like the Intelligence Quotient (IQ), is a fixed ability than cannot be improved through training. With this in mind, designing, training, and analyzing a model of coaching to improve EI was not in alignment with the basic tenants of this model. However, there is little research from education environments to prove or disprove that EI can be improved through training when EI is measured using the Mayer and Salovey's definition for EI. More research would be needed for researchers that value the concepts of this model.

Goleman Model. Goleman (1995) extended Mayer and Salovey's work to consider how EI differed from cognitive intelligence, or IQ, which was found to be a weak predictor of job performance (Sternberg, 1995). Goleman's ability model focuses

on EI as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance.

Goleman's (1998) model of EI divides into four categories: self-awareness, self-

management, social awareness, and relationship management as depicted in Figure 4.

Goleman suggests that individuals are born with a general EI that determines their

potential for learning emotional competencies (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000).

Goleman's (1995) ability model attempts to isolate personality attributes or personal

tendencies associated with higher levels of emotional intelligences.

Walter Mischel, psychologist, performed a study in 1960 at Stanford University,

often referenced as the "marshmallow study", consisting of four year old participants that

suggested that EI helped improve cognitive functioning. Four year olds participants were

asked to stay in a room alone with one marshmallow and not to eat it. If they did not eat

it, they received a second marshmallow upon the researcher's return. Researchers

followed the participants of the study and found ten years later that the children who were

able to delay eating the marshmallow scored 210 points higher on the Standard

Achievement Test (SAT) than those who ate the first marshmallow while alone in the

room. The result of this study reflects "self-control." Lehrer (2009) reported those who

were quick to eat the marshmallow seemed likely to have behavioral problems in home

and school and scored lower on their SAT. Furthermore, they struggled in stressful

situations, had difficulty paying attention, and found it difficult to maintain friendships

(Lehrer, 2009). The participant who waited the fifteen minutes to eat the marshmallow

had a SAT score that was, on average, two hundred and ten points higher than the

participant who did not wait (Lehrer, 2009).

The strength of the Goleman model is that EI is experience-based and is easy to

understand within a business or educational setting, which focuses on experience

building. The weakness of the Goleman model is its corresponding assessment, the

Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) created in 1999 and the Emotional and Social

Competency Inventory (ESCI) created in 2007. Both these assessments are less

statistically sound than other EI assessments because of their low predictive value.

Figure 4. Goleman's 2001 Emotional Intelligence Model

Competencies	SELF Personal Competence	OTHER Social Competence
RECOGNITION	Self-Awareness Emotional Self-Awareness Accurate Self-Assessment Self-Confidence	Social Awareness Empathy Service Orientation Organizational Awareness
REGULATION	Self-Management Self-Control Trustworthiness Conscientiousness Adaptability Achievement Drive Initiative	Relationship Management Developing Others Influence Communication Conflict Management Leadership Change Catalyst Building Bonds Teamwork and Collaboration

Bar-On Model. The third model introduced by Bar-On (2004) coined the term

emotional quotient (EQ), which is different than EI in that EQ is a measurement term that

connects to the concept of the intelligence quotient (IQ) since both represent a numerical

measurement of abilities. In his model, Bar-On outlined five components of emotional

intelligence: intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management, and general

mood. Within these components are sub-components, all of which are outlined in Figure

5. Bar-On's definition of EI represents two decades of research and includes the scales of

intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management, and general mood (Bar-On,

2004). Bar-On's definition of EI emphasizes resiliency and optimism and a person's ability to cope with demands and pressure (Bar-On, 1997). The strength of Bar-On's model is that it includes stress management and general mood. These are important factors for inclusion in a training intervention program considering the rapid change within work environments. On the converse, the weakness of the Bar-On model lies in the definition of EI which includes the ambiguity of personality traits and behaviors. This could prove to be problematic as it is a more sensitive issue to address through a coaching intervention than by measuring a leader's discrete abilities as with the Mayer & Salovey (2004) model. Bar-On's model of EI relates to the *potential* for performance and success, rather than performance or success itself, and is considered process-oriented rather than outcome-oriented (Bar-On, 2004). Three assessments frequently used in research include the Bar-On Emotional quotient Inventory (EQ-i), Goleman's Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI), and the Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MJSCEIT) (Druskat, Sala, and Mount, 2006). Although there is a high degree of variability among these EI measurement instruments, all the theories intersect in that they are based on the foundation that the higher the person's EI, the better the quality of their interpersonal interactions.

Figure 5. Bar-On Model of Emotional Intelligence (2004)

Components	Sub-Components
Intrapersonal	Self Regard
	Emotional Self-Awareness
	Assertiveness
	Independence
	Self-Actualization
Interpersonal	Empathy
	Social Responsibility
	Interpersonal Relationship
Adaptability	Reality Testing
	Flexibility
	Problem Solving
Stress Management	Stress Tolerance
	Impulse Control
General Mood Components	Optimism
	Happiness

EPowerment Model. A final model to be discussed was created by Justice (2010)

takes on an approach to the definition of EI. Justice defined EI as "emotional quotient

(EQ) being composed of two broad areas – one's relationship with self (intrapersonal)

and with others (interpersonal)" (p. 49). The intrapersonal intelligence consists of self-

awareness, self-regulation, and motivation. The interpersonal intelligence consists of

empathy and social skills. Figure 6 represents Justice's model of EI which shows the five

divisions of the interpersonal and intrapersonal skills.

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Figure 6. Emotional Intelligence (Justice, 2010)
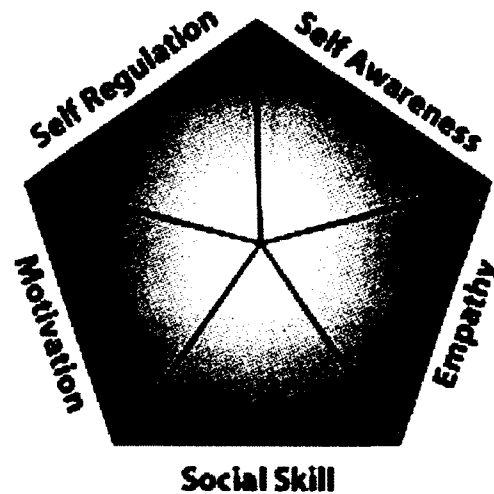
With the five components, Justice (2010) refers to EI as a body of traits and

abilities closely tied to success in both our professional and personal lives. Justice

claimed the most effective ways to enhance the model or a person's EI is the extended

learning model, which includes emotional safety, outcome-based learning model,

mentoring, and multi-mode learning. Within the extended learning model, the student

would evaluate experiences at the point-of-need, know learning is relevant, and provide

self-awareness of patterns. For the emotional safety component, one needs to be able to

disclose information freely. Outcome-based learning includes individuals learning from

work experiences, growing from impact to business, and focusing on immediate

application to their work environment. Further, for the mentoring component, individuals

learn from someone who has walked their path providing knowledge and wisdom. For the

final way to enhance EQ, the multi-mode learning involves active, self-directed learning

as well as the use of self, peers, knowledge sources, and mentors.

Empathy as an Aspect of Emotional Intelligence

Recently, increasing attention focusing on developing emotional intelligence

(EI), empathy, and soft skills has been the subject of educators. Considerable discussion

has emerged pertaining to the appropriateness of education in terms of its ability to

produce sound leaders (Dosch & Wambsganss, 2006), individuals with capable soft skills

(Wats & Wats, 2009) and individuals with recognizable EI (Kirch, Tucker & Kirch,

2001; Goleman, 2011; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002). As a result of changing

business practices, 56% of all employers in the United States are currently experiencing a

shortage of leaders (November, 2010). Moreover, 52% of employers feel there is not

enough qualified managers in their organizations and 78% report they will either not be

able to fill future leadership positions or will not have enough individuals for the growth

of their company (November, 2010). Still, despite the calls to change the presentation of

education to reflect the demands of today's economic realities and futures, research has

found that utilitarian, individualistic and social values are the key motivators to success in

the financial industry (Bonnstetter, 2006).

In the past, employees remained loyal to their employer, but the current average

tenure of employees within an organization is five years, indicating a shift to what is

known as a rent model (Justice, 2010). This model implies that both employer and

employee are renting each other and not accepting ownership of their profession.

Individuals are, in essence, using their employer for skills for their next employment.

Educating individuals differently requires a curriculum resulting in the creation of a new

type of culture changing from the rental model to the ownership model. "Leaders will

have to figure out how to create an ownership culture in a renter's world to maximize

performance, innovation, and collaboration" (Justice, 2010, p. 6). They will have to

create a culture of empowerment from their own individual growth resulting in

globalization of future employees. Through globalization, the most successful

organizations will become those whose leaders and teams are best equipped to work with

people through a variety of cultures. Davis and McLaughlin (2009) conducted a study of

Chief Financial Officers at 112 *Fortune 500 Companies*. They used 1,000 forms with the

goal of the research to determine how finance partners aligned with line management in

today's economic climate. This study referenced the use of training and development to

include leadership training in group facilitation, interpersonal skills, motivation, written

and oral communication and team building.

Empathy as a component of EI has been discussed as a higher capacity to learn,

analyze, and discriminate between subtle differences in individuals. The concept of

emotional intelligence is central to empathy and higher intelligence is largely

conceptualized in the components of empathy (Khalifa, 2011, p. 24). Goleman (1995)

described empathy as the foundation of EI. Goleman further described EI as an alternate

competency that explains the variance in interpersonal functioning that is not accounted

for by intelligence and other constructs. Of these constructs, Marshall (1995) targeted

cognitive recognitions skills like reading nonverbal signals, body language, and facial

expressions to determine the emotional state of another. Marshall conceptualized the

beginning of empathy deficit as the initial lack of recognition of the emotions of other,

while Graziano, Habashi, Sheese, and Tobi (2007) suggested an alternate pathway.

Through their sequential model of empathy, increasing emotional regulation skills would

increase empathic responding. Empathetic responses vary depending on the context of the

interaction (Zaki, Bolger & Oschner, 2008), gender (Baron-Cohen, 2003), age (Hoffman,

2000), and individual temperament (Strayer & Roberts, 2004). Humans have been found

to have a mirror neuron system that promotes autonomic mirroring responses, possibly

providing clues to the origins of empathic responding (Schulte-Ruther, Markowitsch,

Shan, Fink & Piefke, 2008). Studies have suggested that both emotional competencies

and personality traits are related to social adaptation (Lopes, Brackett, Neziek, Schutz,

Sellin & Salovey, 2010; Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall, & Salovey, 2006; Lopes, Salovey,

& Straus, 2003).Thus, empathy according to Goleman (1995) is the essential component

of EI.

Empathy

Empathy is a complex construct. While considerable research exists on the

construct of empathy, there are varied definitions of the word empathy. Empathy has

been understood to have two main components, affective and cognitive. The affective

component of empathy produces the more frequently targeted audience of training

programs or for the use of improved emotional intelligence (EI). Goleman (1995)

stressed that cognitive empathy is the ability to appropriately respond and accurately

perceive the thoughts and feelings of another person, while affective empathy is the

actual emotional sharing of another's emotional state (Carkhuff & Truax, 1965: Hodges

& Meyers, 2007). Even though affective and cognitive components of empathy are

discussed regularly in the research literature, this complex interrelationship has proven

elusive (Hatcher, Favorite, Hardy, Goode, DeShetler & Thomas, 2005).

The foundations of empathy and social interactions begin as early as infancy and

are embedded in core psychological theories. Family members or caregivers model

empathetic responses to children in their early development. Attachment theory contends

that empathy is learned through experiencing caregiver empathy and reflective

responding (Bowlby, 1998). The timing and quality of these social interactions provide

an explanation for the various levels we see in empathetic attunement and empathy

response to individuals. Attachment theorists describe a window in early childhood in

which the child either attaches to a caregiver or the child loses the capacity to attach.

Much of the attachment process consisting of mirroring, attunement, responsiveness, and

eye contact describe empathic responding (Khalifa, 2011). Object relations theory and

ego psychology speak directly to creating empathy in our daily lives (Fairbairn, 1952:

Goldstein, 2001; Hartman, 1958).

Empathy developed or created at an early age creates a growth milestone allowing

people to predict thoughts and internal feelings of others (Apperly, Samson, &

Humphreys, 2009). Developments of these cognitive abilities contribute to a way of

understanding the abilities of the mind. The process of healthy separation and

individuation allows for an understanding that others do have different thoughts and their

internal thoughts are different from one's self (Mahler, 1968). This skill, to separate the

abstract ability to understand another person's mind, is a cognitive process and links the

cognitive component of empathy, rather than the affective component of empathy.

Parenting is a central feature of secure parent-child creating a home environmental

climate fostering the development of empathy and reciprocity within peer relations

(Garber, Robinson, & Valentiner, 1997). Social interactions affect the development of

empathy but also the social reinforcement of expressions of empathy (Khalfia, 2011). The

cultural, developmental, and familial influences on empathy vary according to whether or

not empathy is modeled, taught, or reinforced (Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2004). Baron-Cohen (2003) support static factors, such as gender and intelligence, play an important role in the development of empathy. Females generally have higher levels of empathy based on their attunement to relationship factors (Baron-Cohen, 2003). Also, this correlation between females and empathy levels supported by Baron-Cohen (2003) neuroimaging studies suggest clear gender differences in responses emotionally as well as empathetic ability. Some authors have made the claim that empathy can improve or that one can improve EI by working on it (Stein & Book, 2000). Testing this claim is the focus of this study.

Empathy Defined

One of the many problems with studying empathy is its definition. Currently, there exists no consensus on the definition of empathy, how it exists in interpersonal skills, or how to measure or train one's level of empathy. A good place to start with the definition of empathy would be Carl Rogers who has been responsible for highlighting the position of empathy in the psychotherapeutic process (Thwaites & Bennett-Levy, 2007). Carl Rogers (1967), psychologist, delivered a lecture at the California Institute of Technology entitled "Experiences in Communication". He included in his lecture a reoccurring theme referencing the nature and power of empathy. Rogers (1967) described empathy this way:

> The therapist is sensing the feelings and personal meanings which the client is experiencing in each moment, when he can perceive these from 'inside', as they seem to the client, and when he can successfully communicate something of that understanding to his client (p. 62).

A similar definition by Kohut (1984), another contributor in the psychotherapeutic

world, defined empathy as "the capacity to think and feel one-self into the inner life of

another person" (p. 81).

The definitions by both Rogers (1967) and Kohut (1984) emphasize two

important aspects of empathy; both contain emotional and cognitive aspects. Empathy

involves the ability to tune into the emotions experienced, and to derive meanings

associated with emotions (Thwaites & Bennett-Levy, 2007). Most definitions of empathy

generated from the psychotherapy field emphasize the cognitive or understanding the

client's perspective (Bohart, Elliott, Greenberg & Watson, 2002). Bohart et al. (2002)

concluded from their meta-analytic review that empathy accounts for between 7-10% of

the variance in therapy outcome studies. In contrast, writers from a developmental

perspective tend to see empathy as an emotional response. For instance, Hoffman (2000)

described empathy as "an affective response more appropriate to another's situations than

one's own" (p. 4). Also, Eisenberg and Fabes (1998) suggested empathy is "an affective

response that stems from the apprehension or comprehension of another's emotional state

or condition and that is identical or very similar to what the other person is feeling or

would be expected to feel" (p. 702).

The second aspect of empathy shared by Rogers' and Kohut's definitions is that

therapists engage in a particular mode of processing while being empathic: "feeling

oneself into the inner life of another person" (Kohut, 1984), "perceive these feelings from

'inside'" (Rogers, 1967). Two other philosophers, Shamasundar (1999) and Jacobs

(1991), made similar points. Shamasundar (1999) described empathy as "the ability to be

affected by the other's affective state, as well as the ability to 'read' in oneself what the

effect has been" (p. 234). Jacobs (1991) emphasized that to gain empathic understanding, therapists should reflect on personal memories and emotions. The implications from the above writers indicate that the empathic mode of processing for therapists involves the use of "the self", and reflecting on "the self", to process and understand the experience of the client (Thwaites & Bennett-Levy, 2007).

Goleman (1995) brought all the definitions together by including recognizing emotions in others as one of the five domains of EI. The five domains consist of (1) knowing one's emotions, (2) managing emotions, (3) motivating oneself, (4) recognizing emotions in others, and (5) handling relationships. Particularly, those people who are attuned to the subtle social signals indicating what others need or want are more empathic. Goleman concluded "This makes them better at callings such as the caring professions, teaching, sales, and management" (p. 43). Furthermore, Goleman isolated three reasons for why empathy is so important: the increasing use of teams, the rapid pace of globalization, and the growing need to retain talent. Goleman stated that "leaders with empathy do more than sympathize with people around them; they use their knowledge to improve their companies in subtle, but important ways. This implies they willingly and consciously consider employees feelings while making intelligent decisions." (p. 43).

Goleman (1995) suggested that empathy positively relates to intrinsic motivation and effective problem solving, a 21st century skill. Pink (2006) described empathy as "the ability to imagine yourself in someone else's position and to intuit what that person is feeling" (Pink, 2006, p. 159). He goes on to describe empathy as "the ability to stand in someone else's shoes, so see with their eyes and to feel with their hearts" (p. 159). Wagner (2008) defined empathy as "a sense of shared experience, including emotional

and physical feelings, with someone or something other than oneself." This is an important skill as it works toward understanding someone else's perspective and a different point of view.

A still more recent researcher, Justice (2010), stated that the significance of empathy is "to increase your connection with other people by trying to put yourself in their shoes" (p. 49). Through this action, one puts empathy into practice. Tracing the word empathy back as far as 1906 in social science literature, the word einfublung is referenced. To take the word einfublung and translate it literally, ein means "one" and fublung means "feeling". With this translation, empathy grew to mean a state of mind where the receiver experiences the same feeling, having "one feeling" with the other. Tschannen-Moran and Tschannen-Moran (2010) defined empathy as "a respectful, no-fault understanding and appreciation of someone's experience" (p. 21). Pink (2006) stated that, "empathy is largely about emotion – feeling what another is feeling" (p. 162). All of these definitions relate back to the "feeling" part of an individual.

Awareness is a matter of perception, created by the use of empathy. Rosenberg (2006) compared empathy to surfing, as if one is riding a wave. He went on to explain empathy as the thrill of being so exhilarating that you forget everything else - you live in the moment when nothing else matters, so intent on riding the wave perfectly that you and the wave become one. Unfortunately, Rosenberg went on to state, "many of us are blocked from that divine energy by the way we've been taught to think. But for me, empathy is getting with that energy that's coming through the other person" (Rosenberg, 2006, p. 82).

Empathy Distinguished from Sympathy and Pity. Many psychologists insist that empathy should not be confused with sympathy. The difference between empathy, sympathy, and pity lies within individual interpretation. Tschannen-Moran and Tschannen-Moran (2010) stated, "Empathy differs from pity and sympathy in that it is a coach's reflection of the teacher's perceived experience rather than a full-fledged sharing in it (p. 88)". While sympathy is emotional contagion, or the feeling with another's emotions, and pity is grieving another's experience, empathy is the respectful understanding of another's experience. Another definition provided by Chismar (1988) states that a "sympathizer" is one who goes along with a party or viewpoint, while an "empathizer" may understand but not agree with the particular cause (p. 257). Chismar goes to say that "I don't make my appearance at a funeral home to express my empathy, but to convey my sympathy" (p. 257). The main difference between empathy and sympathy is that sympathy can interfere with our listening of others because it triggers reactive responses and turns our listening and attention more to our own concern than to that of the other person (Tschannen-Moran & Tschannen-Moran, 2010). Pity is grieving someone else's' experience and implies fateful resignation to unfortunate circumstances. Empathy trumps both sympathy and pity as the gateway to growth and change for individuals.

Cognitive, Affective, and Behavioral Empathy. Davis (1983), the creator of the Interpersonal Reactivity Index, employs both cognitive and emotional approaches to the study of empathy (Davis, 1983; Thornton & Thornton, 1995). Davis (1983) conceptualized general empathy as "a set of constructs having to do with the response of one individual to the experiences of another" (p. 12). Still, Hoffman (2001) proposed

empathy to be "an emotional response that is focused more on another person's situation or emotion than on one's own" (p. 62). In defining empathy, many researchers agree that with the broad definitions of empathy, it is still a construct which lacks the ability to be measured on its effectiveness or progression. With this in mind, researchers have resorted to using multifaceted and varied component models for empathy.

Finally, there exists considerable disagreement in the literature for an inclusive definition of empathy. Most researchers agree that empathy includes a cognitive, affective, and behavioral component (Davis, 1983: Jolliffe & Farrington, 2006b; Thornton & Thornton, 1995: Thwaites & Bennett-Levy, 2007). Whereas the cognitive component is defined as the ability to perceive and decode another's emotional state; affective is defined as the emotional connection to another's emotional state; and behavioral is defined as an action taken to demonstrate empathy. Still, recent definitions of empathy include an interactive component (Freedberg, 2007; Zaki, Bolger & Oschner, 2008).

Discussing the definition of empathy brings us to the correlation of various types of intelligences. EI has been discussed to correlate to empathy as a higher capacity to learn. The concept of EI is central to empathy and higher EI is conceptualized in the components of empathy. Goleman (1995) proposed the importance of emotional attunement and social skills as crucial human qualities and skills. Further, he described empathy as the foundation of EI. Given such attention to the individual differences in empathic response, consequences of high and low empathy, and differential response to empathy training programs, we arrive at the need for this current study.

Still, the definition of "empathy" has had a history of discrepancy, ambiguity, and controversy among educators, psychologist, philosophers, and scholars from varied fields of social, medical, business, and behavioral. In re-conceptualizing empathy, the cognitive, affective, communicatory, and physiological components will provide us with implications for future practice and training of our work force.

Business Applications of Empathy. In the corporate business world, especially given tough economic times, empathy plays into the morale of the employees. Pink (2006) predicted that the qualities needed for individuals in business to compete in the economy market fall within six vital areas. The six areas are (1) design, (2) story, (3) symphony, (4) empathy, (5) play, and (6) meaning. Empathy, the ability to imagine yourself in someone else's position, to imagine what they are feeling, to understand what makes people tick, to create relationships and to be caring of others, is difficult to automate or outsource, and is very important to business. Goleman (1995) isolated three reasons for why empathy is important for the increasing use of teams. "Leaders with empathy do more than sympathize with people around them; they use their knowledge to improve their companies in subtle, but important ways (p. 48)". Therefore, empathy is ability worth cultivating in the business industry. "In a business leaders' tool box, empathy is a soft abstract tool that can lead to hard tangible results" (Martinuzzi, 2006, p. 19). According to Susan Richter, Director of Human Resources for Food Lion, future employees are going to look very different than what we are accustomed to seeing. For example, "high performance was all about metrics, and we rewarded people who were able to execute – those who got the most sales and achieved profitability got the rewards (Justice, p. 12). Today, Richter explains that the bar is being raised to bring out the best

in every employee and not accept mediocrity. Richter stated, "Success will now be

measured by questions such as, "How do I engage the associates on my team, have I set

the context, do they understand why we are doing this?" (Justice, p. 12) In essence,

Richter exemplified the shift of the new world, the way we are doing things and how we

are recognizing, coping, and rewarding employees for the future.

Medical Applications of Empathy. Empathy, as defined in medical fields, can

be a powerful force. The board issuing credentials for medical schools now make

communicating effectively and empathically with patients a factor in a student doctor's

overall evaluation (Pink, 2006). This new requirement for physicians has created for a

context in which Megan Cole, a stage actress, travels across the United States teaching a

course titled, "The Craft of Empathy." She instructs doctors-in-training how to use

nonverbal cues such as their body language, facial expressions, and tone, to better equip

them to convey concerns to their patients (Pink, 2006). Jefferson Medical School in

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania has gone a step further to develop a measure of empathy titled

the Jefferson Scale of Physician Empathy (JSPE). Scores on the JSPE have been found to

have no relationship to scores on the medical licensing tests, indicating that the traditional

scores did not determine any predictability on the bedside manners of a doctor or the

ability to diagnose a patient's illness (Hojat, Mangione, Kane, & Gonnella, 2005).

Another interesting fact from the JSPE was that women generally scored higher than men

(Hojat & Fields, 2004), and nurse practitioners generally scored higher than medical

doctors with hospital-based specialties (Fields, Hojat, Gonnella & Mangione, 2003). The

growing recognition of empathy's role in the healing professions solidifies the reason for

empathy in emotional intelligence care because it is not the sort of thing that can be automated or outsourced to another country.

Educational Applications of Empathy. Defining empathy relevant to a school setting leads to the question of why empathy is important in classrooms. Schools greatly need administrators and teachers with empathy who will inspire others with their modeling and dedication to step across the boundaries of policy and procedures to create a new educational shift for students. Known as "the empathy approach", Holmberg (1996) suggested empathy "as feelings of personal relations between student and teacher, promote motivation, study pleaser and effectiveness" (Holmberg, 1996, p. 489). Similarly, in Goleman's (1995) work on EI, Holmberg defined empathy as a crucial facet of social awareness and a key component to an overall feeling of success in life.

In the classroom when two people connect, that being the teacher and the student, any kind of conflict, learning, or understanding can take place creating an atmosphere where everyone's individual needs can be met. In education, new research by Nelson, Low, and Nelson (2011) defined empathy "as the ability to accurately understand and constructively respond to the expressed feelings, thoughts, behaviors, and needs of others" (p. 35). EI has become a topic being discussed as an important skill needed for teacher preparation curriculum (Goad, 2005: Justice, 2010). According to their research, Goad and Justice assert pre-service teacher education and induction experiences from mentoring could strength the preparation of new teachers with EI. With the established relationship between EI and academic achievement, students would reap the benefits from learning and the application of EI for school and college settings (Nelson, Low, & Nelson, 2011).

Recent doctoral research has linked EI with academic achievement and college

success (Stottlemyre, 2002; Vela, 2003; Potter, 2005; Smith, 2004). Finally, with this

new research linking EI to instructional practices it validates the need for EI into the

curriculum as a factor in teacher retention, pre-service, novice, and new teachers benefit

from learning and using EI skills for personal and professional growth.

Empathy as a 21st Century Skill

Despite the conceptual uncertainty, empathy is among the most frequently

mentioned humanistic quality for 21st century learners (Justice, 2010; Pink, 2006;

Whitaker, 2010). As a result of current economic trends, Pink (2006) has asserted that we

are shifting from the Information Age to the Conceptual Age, listing empathy as one of

the six values essential for the 21st century learners. The Information Age is known as the

knowledge and intellectual era, whereas the Conceptual Age is known as the era of

creators and empathizers. More specifically, Pink (2006) suggests that 21st century

learners must work towards developing in themselves six right brain "senses" to

complement the left side of the brain. These skills include design, story, symphony,

empathy, play, and meaning. Still, in the current age of educational accountability,

educators direct their instructional efforts to help student's master left-brain skills. With

the left brain skills intact, teachers and students feel successful because they have

satisfied the accountability standards needed for their annual yearly progress.

Moreover, Alan November (2010), a noted educational speaker commented on the

right brain skill of empathy recalling that when he asked a senior executive at a global

investment bank, "What is the most important skill for today's students to learn so they

are prepared to succeed in the new global economy?", the executive replied, "Empathy –

the ability to understand and respect different points of view" (November, 2010, p.53).

Still, the meaning of empathy relates to the fact that today's companies are all over the

world and several of the largest companies have branches in multiple countries. Chances

are high that when students enter the workforce, they will be working with or doing

business with someone from another nation, having a different culture and perspective,

thus requiring them to have empathy. The executive went on to explain that it is not

difficult to find people who are smart; what is hard to find are employees who have the

ability to empathize with, and to be sensitive to the needs of people from other countries..

The Intervention: Nonviolent Communication

Rosenberg (2003b, 2006) developed Nonviolent Communication ® (NVC) from

Mahatma Gandhi's principles of nonviolence in the 1960s. NVC also known as

Compassionate Communication (Baron, 1998) or Authentic Communication (Lasley,

2005) is based on the natural state of compassion where there exists no violence in the

heart. Gandhi's principle of nonviolence stresses against the use of violence often found

in forms of speech (Bode, 1992), and proposed that nonviolence requires seeing the good

in one another and recognizing humans not as evil but as misinformed (Starosta & Shi,

2007). NVC expands on Gandhi's definition of nonviolence by proposing a language

founded on communication skills that strengthen our ability to remain human, even under

trying conditions (Rosenberg, 2003b). NVC guides individuals in reframing how to

express ourselves and hear others through empathetic listening. Rosenberg refers to NVC

as "a process of communication, a language of compassion, and a flow between myself

and others based on a mutual giving from the heart" (p. 4). On June 15, 2007, the United

Nations General Assembly passed a resolution to honor Gandhi's influence on

nonviolence in an International Day of Nonviolence. Members were asked to commemorate the day in "an appropriate manner and disseminate the message of non-violence, including through education and public awareness. (Starosta & Shi, 2007).

Rosenberg (2003b), a trained clinical psychologist and student of Carl Rogers, upset by the dissension and violence in his Detroit neighborhood started looking for a way to decrease physical and verbal violence. In Rosenberg's early years, he consulted with public schools, coaching students, teachers, and administrators in using his model of communication. Dr. Rosenberg left his clinical practice and took his practice on the road teaching people what he wanted to "give away" regarding communication skills, the skills he had been teaching his clients. To speak the skills of NVC, he founded the Center for Nonviolent Communications in 1984 as a non-profit organization. This organization began with a volunteer staff that shared the same vision of a more peaceful world in the United States and then spread to Europe. The Center for Nonviolent Communication (CNVC) is now a global organization whose vision is that all people are getting their needs met and resolving their conflicts peacefully. Within this vision, people are using NVC to create and participate in networks of worldwide life-serving systems in economics, education, justice, healthcare, and peace-keeping (Rosenberg, 2003b, 2006).

Rosenberg (2003b) has acted as a mediator between Palestinians and Jews in the Middle East, between the Hutus and Tutsis in Africa, and between police and gang members in the inner cities of America. Rosenberg's Center for NVC has grown into an interactive peacemaking organization with teachers and trainers in Eastern and Western Europe, the Middle East, Russia, Asia, Africa, and in North and South America (Rosenberg, 2006). NVC is present in schools, prisons, churches, community centers,

colleges, and universities. Teachers have used the principles and developed curriculum material to use with children from kindergarten through high school (Dalton & Fairchild, 2004; Hart & Hodson, 2004; Rosenberg 2003b). In short, Rosenberg developed a new method of listening and speaking that aspires to generate compassion and a mutual meeting of needs rather than conflict and disagreement.

At the most basic level, NVC consist of four skills: (1) differentiating observations from evaluations; (2) identifying, experiencing, and expressing feelings; (3) connecting feelings to needs; and (4) making and responding to requests in order to contribute to human flourishing (Rosenberg, 2003b). The above mentioned skills consist of three modes: (1) honest expression, (2) empathic reception, and (3) self-empathy (Latini, 2009). The first mode of honest expression involves stating one's own observations, feelings, needs, and requests. The second mode of empathic receptions involves non-anxious presence and the ability to reflect back to another person their own observations without making judgment or evaluations. This mode involves sensing the feeling and needs of another person and creating the opportunity for requests to emerge and identify those needs. The final mode of self-empathy involves the ability to recognize and transform life-alienating thinking into compassionate thinking. The transformation of our own personal dialogue paves the way for honesty and empathy to occur.

Using the four skills in the three modes of honest expression, empathic reception, and self-empathy requires considerable practice, as they are opposite to most of the ways we have been taught to understand ourselves as well as others. Simply put, NVC calls not for just a new form of communication but for a new way of being in relationship with yourself and others. Hence, NVC is a life-giving connection and understanding that exists

between individuals and groups making NVC a language of life. Rosenberg (2003) puts it

simply, "What I want in my life is compassion, a flow between myself and others based

on a mutual giving from the heart" (p. 91).

Steps of the NVC Model. Rosenberg (2003b; 2006) defined NVC as a four-step

process model (Figure 7) by which receiving empathically and expressing honestly are

the two parts of the model. Both parts of the model use the four components which are

what we are observing, feeling, needing, and what we are requesting to happen.

Receiving empathetically represents empathy put into practice. It requires the listener to

focus completely on the other person's message in a nonjudgmental, compassionate

acceptance for what the other person has to say, and to provide feedback feel their

concerns have been heard (Rosenberg, 2003). Expressing honestly represents the ability

to gain self-knowledge regarding intimate thoughts and emotions through self-

compassion, and to connect with intimate needs at the root of all feelings enabling the

listener to make clear and nonviolent requests (Rosenberg, 2003). Rosenberg suggests

that the two parts are conceptually distinct, yet positively correlated dimensions of the

overarching NVC construct.

Figure 7. The Nonviolent Communication (NVC) Process Model

| Observations | → | Feelings | → | Needs | → | Requests |

Figure 7 shows that the first step in the NVC model individuals communicate

their observations to each other, with no evaluation or judgment. In the second step,

individuals identify and exchange feelings followed from their observations. The third

step involves the expression and acknowledgement of the feelings, which are the personal

needs. Finally, the fourth steps, when needs are not being met, individual's make and

receive requests for specific actions that contribute to their well-being and resolve their

interpersonal conflicts.

Summary

Based upon the review of the literature, it is apparent that emotional intelligence

(EI) can be conceptualized and defined in various ways, as highlighted by the various

models of EI. In addition, the assessment instrument to determine the level of a person's

EI varies according to the model used for assessment. The ongoing debate of which

constructs in each of the different models should be the ones tested to improve EI

becomes based on the concept that EI can be learned and improved.

All of the highlighted models agree with the central theme that EI is foundational

to an individual's ability to function at a more productive level. Therefore, it was the

focus of this research to assess whether measurable improvement in EI and empathy can

result from a 20-hour training intervention with educational leaders. The design of the

training intervention was based upon the beliefs of adult learning theory. A gap in the

literature exists in empirical research that there is limited specific information on EI

training programs that includes the intervention design, implementation, and pre- and

post-training assessments data practical within educational environments (Grove,

McEnrue, & Shen, 2008). In addition, there is not a reported defined length of training

for any of EI improvement courses. Salovey stated a need for future research, noting "we

need better studies of the efficacy of intervention designed to enhance the competencies

involved in emotional intelligence" (Druskat et al., 2006, p. 406). With this in mind, EI

pre- and post-training results will be collected. Data were also collected regarding

qualitative comments and quantitative scores of the participants to determine the level of

satisfaction with the training program design, personal development achieved, and

feelings about the training program.

CHAPTER 3- METHODOLOGY

Emotional intelligence (EI) is comprised of a combination of intrapersonal and interpersonal empathy that leads to productive interpersonal relationships. Scholars consistently include empathy in their conceptualizations of EI (Bar-On, 2004, Goleman, 1995, 1998, 2002; Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee, 2002; Justice, 2010). This study explored whether instructional coaches who completed the 20-hour Evocative Coaching Model training program, that included specific training in empathy, significantly improved their EI. A mixed method design was employed. Quantitative analysis examined gain scores in a pretest and posttest measure of EI, using the EQmentor (Justice, 2010). The qualitative portion of the study addressed changes participants perceived to their level of EI as a result of the training and their perception of how it affected their performance as instructional coaches. This chapter identifies the research questions and research design of the study. The participants, instruments, and methods of data analysis will be described. Finally, ethical safeguards and considerations will be discussed along with limitations and delimitations of the study.

Research Questions:

1) To what extent are scores on a measure of emotional intelligence changed as a result of participation in a 20 hour coach-training program?

   a) To what extent is there a measurable difference in the participants' total emotional quotient (combining the interpersonal and intrapersonal scores) of emotional intelligence before and after participation in a training program?

b) To what extent is there a measurable difference in the participants'

intrapersonal scale (combining the self-regulation, self-awareness, and

motivation subscales) of emotional intelligences before and after

participation in the coach training program?

c) To what extent is there a measurable difference in the participants'

interpersonal scale (combining empathy and social subscales) of emotional

intelligence before and after participation in the coach training program?

2) What changes do selected participants perceive to their level of empathy as a

result of the training and how do they perceive that emotional intelligence

affects their performance as instructional coaches?

3) What do selected participants perceive to have been the influence of the

training in the Evocative Coaching model on their practice as instructional

leaders after the completion of the training?

Research Design

The focus of this research was to study the development of empathy as a result of

the training intervention in Evocative Coaching for instructional coaching in PK-12

schools. The research design was a mixed-methods study combining both quantitative

and qualitative methods. With this approach, the quantitative methods used a one-group

pretest-posttest design to answer the first research question. Identical pretest and posttest

EI assessments were administered prior to and following a 20-hour training intervention.

Qualitative methods were used to answer research questions two and three. The treatment

group consisted of administrators, teachers, coaches, and personnel in instructional

support positions from various regions of the United States as well as two countries

outside the U.S., identified in this study as instructional coaches. The researcher chose to

blend a quantitative and qualitative design approach to provide a more in-depth analysis

of a relationship between a 20-hour coaching model and the teaching of emotional

intelligence. According to Gall, Gall & Borg (2007), a study involving both quantitative

and qualitative results regarding the same phenomenon produces richer insights and

raises more interesting questions for future research than a study only involving one set

of results.

The intervention consisted of the participants completion of a 20-hour training

program designed to improve the coaching skills of educators working with teachers to

improve their instruction. The number of participants across the seven cohorts ranged

from 2 to 25. The advanced bridgeline technology used during the training sessions

enabled the instructors to divide the class size into small groups for skill specific practice.

Data were collected during the spring, summer, fall sections of 2011 and the spring

section of 2012, of the Evocative Coaching model training.

Question 1 (Quantitative Phase)

The data used to answer research question one was collected using the EQmentor

(Justice, 2010). In particular, the five subscales of self-awareness, self-regulation,

motivation, empathy, and social skills were analyzed with repeated measure t-tests (Gall,

Gall, & Borg, 2007).

Participants

All participants who enrolled in the training intervention were invited to

participate in this research study and there was no selection process. Of nearly 200 people

in seven cohorts who completed the training between January 2011 and May 2012, 90

participants elected to participate in the study by completing the pre and post-test of the

EQmentor. The treatment group consisted of administrators, teachers, coaches, and

personnel in instructional support positions took the pre and post-test on the EQmentor.

Among the 90 participants, 77 were female and 13 were male. The overall population of

participants taking the course was similar in gender statistics. The participants came from

eight states within the United States and two countries outside the US. The participants

were primarily concentrated in three states: Virginia (n = 47, 52%), Utah (n = 17, 19%),

and California (n = 14; 16%), with the remaining from Massachusetts (n = 3, 3%), New

York (n = 2; 2%), Florida (n = 2; 2%), North Carolina (n = 1, 1%), and Washington (n =

1; 1%). In addition, one participant came from India and another was from Malaysia.

About half of the participants who took the EQ assessment were volunteers who had self-

elected to take the Evocative Coaching training (n = 44; 49%), while for slightly more

than half were people who were directed to take the training as part of a district initiative

over which they had no say (n = 46; 51%).

The 90 people who participated in the research study all volunteered to take the

EQmentor (Justice, 2010). Rosenthal and Rosnow (1975) described 11 characteristics of

research volunteers that may affect the results of a research study, depending upon the

specific nature of the study. Of the 11 characteristics, three stand out as relevant

regarding the participants in this current study. The three characteristics were (1)

volunteers tend to be more sociable than nonvolunteers; (2) volunteers tend to be higher

in need for social approval than nonvolunteers; and (3) volunteers tend to be better

educated than nonvolunteers, especially when personal contact between investigator and

respondent is not required. The participants who elected to participate needed to have

willingness to speak and talk to strangers on the phone; thus needing to be more social.

Also, the cohorts consisted of over 200 participants, but only 90 chose to take the

EQmentor desired to know more facts about their own EI resulting in their own desire to

be more educated. All participants that signed up for the training were invited to

participate; thus, there was no selection process. The total participants who elected to

participate were comprised of seven class cohorts.

Instrumentation

Emotional intelligence (EI) was assessed using the EQmentor (Justice, 2010).

Permission for the use of the pretest and posttest was granted by Target Training

International (TTI) and made available free of charge from January 2011 through May

2012. The participants took an identical pretest and posttest resulting in the quantitative

results for research question one. The five subscales included: self-awareness (10 items),

self-regulation (12 items), motivation (12 items), empathy (12 items), and social skills

(11 items). There were 34 items for the intrapersonal and 23 items for the interpersonal

EQ. The assessment was based on a multi-dimensional view of EQ and personality.

There were 57 questions total in the EQmentor (Justice, 2010) assessment. The

participants taking the EQmentor rated each item using a response scale with the options:

"Very Inaccurate, Somewhat Inaccurate, Neither Accurate nor Inaccurate; Somewhat

Accurate, and Very Accurate". Of these, there were nine reverse-scored items on the

EQmentor.

A question representative from the self-awareness section of the assessment was:

"I am good at reading what other people are feeling." A question representative from the

self-regulation section of the assessment was: "When a crisis arises, I know whom to turn

to for help." A sample question from the motivation section of the assessment was: "I do not let setbacks stand in the way of my dreams." The sum of the self-awareness, self-regulation, and motivation represented the intrapersonal emotional quotient score. A question representative of the empathy subscale from the EQmentor (Justice, 2010) was: "Nonverbal messages, such as tone of voice, gestures, and facial expressions say a lot about how someone else is feeling." A question representing the social skills subscales from the assessment was "When interacting with someone, I pause to think how he or she may be feeling." The sum of the empathy and social skills subscales added represents the interpersonal emotional quotient. The total level of emotional quotient was calculated by adding the intrapersonal and interpersonal scores. The complete scale of the EQmentor is located in Appendix C.

The results of the pretest and posttest provided the necessary data for the quantitative analysis to answer research question one. The EQmentor assessment contributes to the participants by increasing awareness of one's traits, strengths, and weaknesses (Justice, 2010). The EQmentor is particularly useful to participants in that it provides a feedback report outlining the "next steps" and "what you can do now that you know this" for the participants to review (Justice, 2010).

Reliability and Subscales. An assessment's reliability refers to the degree to which the measurement error is absent from the scores yielded by the assessment. Cronbach's Alpha Reliability analyses show the EQmentor (Justice, 2010) subscale and overall measure to be internally consistent. The reliability scores are self-awareness (α =.74), self-regulation (α=.79), motivation (α=.77), empathy (α=.76), social skills (α=.82), intrapersonal EQ (α=.89), interpersonal EQ (α=.87). The EQmentor (Justice, 2010) has an

Alpha coefficient of .93. The minimally-acceptable level of reliability is .70 for most

research purposes (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). All subscales and totals meet the minimally

acceptable level. Reliability findings for the EQmentor (Justice, 2010) were similar

compared to the reliability scores of other EI assessments (Justice, 2010), including the

EQi which has a reliability coefficient of .97 for the overall EQ (Hemmati, Mills, &

Kroner, 2004). The instrument for measurement of EI was deemed acceptably reliable for

this study.

Data Collection

Participants were sent an invitation to participate in the study via electronic mail

with a link to the survey on the TTI website after being enrolled in the training program

and before the training began. They were asked to complete it prior to the first class.

They did not receive the results of the pretest until they had completed the posttest at the

conclusion of the training. Participants who had taken the pretest were invited to

complete the posttest after their last class in the training program. Participants then

received the results of both assessments. The data were initially sent from Target

Training International (TTI) to the program administrator who subsequently made

available the data to the researcher.

Data Analysis

The statistical analyses used the Statistic Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to

determine the quantitative results. A comparison was made from the pretest and the

posttest resulting in the participants' gain score. Descriptive statistics included measures

of the mean, standard deviation, and pretest and posttest for components of self-

awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, social skills, intrapersonal EI,

interpersonal EI, and total EI. T-tests were used to determine whether there were statistically significant changes in the EI of the participants. Data were also grouped for a comparison of the pretest and posttest of nonvolunteers and volunteers.

Questions 2 and 3 (Qualitative Phase)

Research questions two and three addressed the participants' perception of the impact of the training intervention as it pertained to their role as instructional leaders. The questions used during the interviews focused on the participants' perceived impact of their level of empathy affecting their performance as an instructional coach and their how they perceived the influence of the training using the Evocative Coaching model on their practice as instructional leaders. A qualitative approach was selected because it contained common characteristics such as taking place in the natural world, focusing on context, and it was emerging rather than tightly prefigured (Rossman & Rallis, 2003). Through the questions proposed by the researcher, data were gathered in the form of information building the basic units for the study.

Participants

The participants in this phase of the study consisted of K-12 educators, administrators, and instructional coaches. The sampling technique used to interview participants was purposive sampling, one of the most common sampling strategies. Purposive selection is *information rich* as related to the purpose of the study (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2007). The original research design for this study was for the researcher to interview eight participants, four who increased with their total emotional quotient (EQ) and four who decreased. The program administrator sent invitations to participate in an interview to 10 participants, five who had increased and five who had decreased. The

researcher was not informed prior to the interviews which of the respondents had

increased scores and which had decreased. After the researcher had conducted eight

interviews, the researcher contacted the program administrator to confirm that there had

been a balance of participants who had increased and those who had decreased. It

emerged that the researcher had interviewed only three who had increased and five who

had decreased. The researcher was directed to another participant whose score had

increased and that person agreed to be interviewed. Thus, a total of nine interviews were

completed.

Of the nine participants interviewed, all were female. One was African-American

and the rest were Caucasian. Participants were residents of the states of California,

Florida, Virginia, and Washington. The professions of the participants consisted of Title I

Reading, Title I Math Specialists, Instructional Coach, Professional Learning Specialist,

and Head of School. The pseudonyms were assigned as follows:

Table 1

Pseudonym Names of Participants and Job Title

Letter Code	Pseudonym	Job Title	Direction of Change in EQmentor Score
A	Savannah	Head of School	Increased
B	Holly	Professional Learning Specialist	Increased
C	Michelle	Title I Math Specialist	Decreased
D	Shannon	Instructional Coach	Decreased
E	JP	Project Specialist	Increased
F	Frances	Academic Coach	Increased
G	Zhanna	Title I Math Specialist	Decreased
H	Autumn	Project Manager	Decreased
I	Eleanor	Title I Reading	Decreased

Data Sources

The interview questions were designed to elicit participants' thoughts and perceptions relating to their perceptions of their emotional intelligence (EI) gain score (See Appendix C). The participants knew whether their gain score increased or decreased prior to the interview. The researcher did not know whether the participants gain score increased or decreased except for the ninth interview which needed to result in a minimum of four increases and four decreases. The interviews took place following the 20-hour intervention. The interview questions were used to collect the qualitative data for the study. The interview protocol is presented in Appendix C. All interview questions were open-ended questions enabling the participant to provide to the researcher thick descriptive perceptions of the intervention, the Evocative Coaching training. For example, one question asked, "What do you perceive to have been the impact of the training using the Evocative Coaching Model on your practice as an instructional leader? Tell me about how this has been evident."

Data Collection

The nine selected participants were contacted by telephone or email to schedule the interview. In addition, the participants were informed that the interview would be digitally recorded for transcription to ensure accuracy (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). The researcher conducted the interviews and questions were designed to answer questions pertaining to the research study. Participants were notified that the letter of informed consent would be sent to them via email prior to the interview and could be emailed back to the researcher prior to the scheduled date of the interview, or if they desired, it could be returned at the time of the interview (Rossman & Rallis, 2003). Participants were

assured of the confidentiality of the results and that pseudonyms would be used when

reporting the data.

Data Analysis

Qualitative data were interpreted by reviewing individual responses to each

question to determine themes, which were then categorized and coded. Responses from

each participant were coded representing indigenous categories as those expressed by the

participants. Each response to each interview question was transcribed and given emic

categories as distinct phrases from the participants. These phrases from the interviews

generated themes, which were then organized, following repeated reviewing, reflecting,

and exploring of similarities (Creswell, 2003). Once these phrases were reviewed and

explored, coding categories were defined and refined. This process evolved and required

reflection on the researcher's part of the participants' responses to the questions

(Rossman & Rallis, 2003). Categories and codes for each of the qualitative questions

were prioritized by the number of occurrences from each of the participants interviewed

and interpreted within the results section of the research study (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2007).

Addressing each of the research questions regarding their level of empathy as a result of

the training, their perception of empathy affecting their performance as an instructional

leader, and their perception of training influencing the training had on their practice as

instructional leaders was obtained through interviews.

Initial analysis of the interview data was conducted using open coding, when

segmentation and labeling of generated data occurred (Patton, 2002). In particular, the

researcher performed analysis of the participants expressed ideas and identified unique

patterns, themes and categories as they emerged from the selected participants. As the

responses and sentences from the interviews were reviewed, categories were determined

either too broad or too narrow, coding categories were redefined and reviewed.

Trustworthiness. Judgment as to whether or not qualitative research results in

quality research is dependent upon a study's trustworthiness. Rossman and Rallis (2003)

described trustworthiness as conforming to standards associated for acceptable and

competent practice. They also wrote trustworthiness as meeting standards for ethical

practice relating to the sensitivity of the politics of the setting and focus. Schwandt

(2001) described trustworthiness as being built on four dimensions of credibility,

transferability, dependability, and conformability. Each of these must be met in a study

for the findings to be deemed trustworthy. The four dimensions were addressed in this

study through member checks, extensive reflective notes and journaling, a documentation

trail, and triangulation of data to ensure that each participant's perceptions were reflected

and recorded correctly.

Credibility, identified as a first dimension, refers directly to how well the findings

of the study match the participants' perceptions (Schwandt, 2001). This research study

employed member checks during the interviews through clarification of statements or

questions followed by a transcription of the interview. The transcription of the interview

was sent through an email to the participant for input to insure accuracy of the

transcription or the researcher's perceptions of the participant's views (Creswell, 2003).

To maintain and ensure credibility of the findings for this study, the researcher engaged

in several activities associated with increased credibility. Member checking was

employed to elicit the most accurate and complete statements from the participants. In

addition to these two strategies, the researcher also maintained a reflexive journal of the

researchers' thoughts and reflections. Responses from interview participants was digitally

recorded and transcribed by the researcher. Through the journal and extensive familiarity

of the transcriptions, the researcher ensures the true value of the study's findings.

Transferability, the second dimension for establishing trustworthiness, references

the extent that a study's findings may be applied in other contexts or with other

informants (Schwandt, 2001). The researcher's responsibility to maximize transferability

is to provide thick and rich description of each participant's perspectives. This was

accomplished through purposive sampling of the selected participants of those who had

extreme gain score on the EQmentor (Justice, 2010). Also, data triangulation and the

reflexive journal maintained a mechanism for insuring transferability so that the

researcher can consistently search for ways to provide meaningful descriptions of the

findings.

Dependability, the third dimension for establishing trustworthiness, refers to the

logical process of the inquiry and the traceable path communicated through the

documentation trail (Schwandt, 2001). This relates to the consistency of the study's

findings. In particular, dependability is concerned with whether or not any variance in the

results exists if the study were to be repeated. Using extensive notes and the reflexive

journal, a detailed communication trail provided information so that future studies may

benefit from the process and subsequent findings.

Conformability, the fourth and final dimension for establishing trustworthiness,

refers to the extent data can be determined to link back primarily to the source of the

inquiry rather than the researcher's perceptions or expectations (Schwandt, 2001). In

particular, conformability relates to the extent to which the study's findings report the

participant's perspectives and are based on generated data, not the researcher's

perspectives. Again, the reflective journal provided a means for documenting the

researcher's process and connected the participant's perspective of their development of

empathy and the teaching of emotional intelligence (EI). Finally, member checking and

reflective journaling aided in insuring the findings of the study and not personal bias

(Patton, 2002).

Dimock (2001) asserted that trustworthiness alone is not sufficient for judging the

quality of qualitative research. Authenticity aims to generate authentic understanding of

others' lived experiences (Schwandt, 2001). Authenticity is considered to have five

dimensions consisting of fairness, ontological, educative, tactical, and catalytic

authenticity. Fairness relates to the equal treatment of participants and the accuracy of

their perceptions as reflected in the study's findings. Member checking, informed

consent, reflexive journals, and transcriptions of the interviews are each mechanism by

which fairness was maintained and documented in the study. Ontological authenticity

occurs when the participant's experience personal growth (Dimock, 2001). The

researcher did not have direct control over this aspect of authenticity; the researcher

hopes that the participants noticed their growth during the interview after the Evocative

Coaching training. The researcher hopes that by constantly engaging with the participants

during the interview that they individually experience educative authenticity. Finally,

tactical and catalytic authenticity refers respectively to the action participants take as a

result of participating in the study and how empowered each participant may feel and

make individual changes that lead to improved EI.

Quantitative and Qualitative Data

The data sources and data analyses for each research question are displayed in

Table 2.

Table 2. *Quantitative and Qualitative Data Analysis Summary Table*

Research Questions	Data Sources	Data Analysis
1. To what extent are scores on a measure of emotional intelligence changed as a result of participation in a 20- hour coach training program?	EQmentor Pretest EQmentor Posttest	Repeated Measures T-test and Descriptive Statistics
a. To what extent is there a measurable difference in the participants' total emotional quotient (combining the interpersonal and intrapersonal scores) of emotional intelligence before and after participation in a coach training program?		
b. To what extent is there a measurable difference in the participants' intrapersonal scale (combining the self-regulation, self-awareness, and motivation subscales) of emotional intelligence before and after participation in a coach training program?		
c. To what extent is there a measurable difference in the participants' interpersonal scale (combining empathy and social skills subscales) of emotional intelligence before and after participation in the coach training program?		
2. What changes do participants perceive to their level of empathy as a result of the training and how do they perceive that emotional intelligence affects their performance as instructional coaches?	Transcripts of the interview data	Constant Comparative Coding and Analysis
3. What do selected participants perceive to have the influence of the training in the Evocative Coaching model on their practice as instructional leaders after the completion of the training?	Transcripts of the interview data	Constant Comparative Coding and Analysis

Ethical Safeguards and Considerations

Permission from William and Mary's Committee for the Protection of Human

Subjects was secured prior to the beginning of the study. Participants were informed that

they are allowed to opt out of the study at any time or to skip any items they feel

uncomfortable answering. The results of this study were reported collectively from

several cohorts. Informed consent was obtained through a cover letter describing the

purpose of the study, procedures, and methods to protect the confidentiality of

participants via email. If participants preferred, a hard copy was mailed to them. Results

of the EQmentor (Justice, 2010) were made available and shared with the participants

after completion of the posttest. The results of the EQmentor (Justice, 2010) was stored

and distributed by Mr. Bob Tschannen-Moran, the program administrator, as he was

granted permission to administer the assessment.

Limitations of the Study

The focus of this study was limited to the emotional intelligence (EI) of

administrators, teachers, and other school personnel. It was the focus of this research to

be directed towards individuals in an instructional coaching position. Participants were

educators willing to give freely of their time and to participation in a 20- hour training

titled Evocative Coaching. Most participants were volunteers; however some were

directed by their school system to participate in the Evocative Coaching training and their

fee was paid for by their individual school system. Among the 90 participants, half of the

participants volunteered at their own initiative (n=44; 49%) while the nonvolunteers

(n=46; 51%) were directed to take the training as part of a district initiative over which

they had no say.

While this study encompassed a period of training in the use of the coaching

model from the book *Evocative Coaching: Transforming Schools One Conversation at a*

Time, the training cannot account for all possible environmental and personal variables

that might influence the statistical relationships examined. The effects of the experiment

were determined by comparing the pretest and posttest scores using the same assessment.

The internal validity sources affected by the administration of the same pretest and

posttests were history, maturation, and testing. The history internal validity reflected the

time frame of a 13-week period of the 20-hour sessions. This allowed the opportunity for

other events to occur, besides the training, being the intervention of the study. The

maturation of the participants contributed to the improved gain score of the participants.

To control for this threat to validity it would be necessary to have a control group which

received no training. The testing internal validity threat represented the prior knowledge

of the participants being familiar with the pretest when they took the posttest, thus

making the participant "test wise".

The external sources of validity affected by the same procedure were the

Hawthorne effect (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007), interaction of history and treatment effects,

and interaction of time of measurement and treatment. The Hawthorne effect came into

play with the participants being aware that they were involved in an experiment and were

aware of the hypothesis. The interaction of history and treatment effects as an external

source of validity came into the outcome stage where the researcher generalized beyond

the time period in which an experiment was finished. The researcher was asking

questions directly after the intervention training. The external validity source of

interaction of time of measurement and treatment implied the taking of the posttest at

different times. The administrator sent the posttest to the participants immediately

following the last session, but the participants had no time limit to complete the posttest.

Quantitative Limitations

The quantitative data of the study compared the results of an assessment,

EQmentor (Justice, 2010), before and after a training intervention. Descriptive statistics

included measures of the mean and standard deviation for components of self-awareness,

self-regulation, motivation, empathy, social skills, intrapersonal emotional intelligence

(EI), interpersonal EI, and the total emotional quotient (EQ). A repeated measures t-test

determined whether there were statistically-significant changes in the EI of the

participants. Quantitative data revealed the following constraints affecting the 20-hour

training intervention for empathy as a crucial skill of instructional coaching. The

constraints consisted of participant's attitude while taking the pretest and posttest

assessment, commitment to weekly valuation surveys, and commitment to participation

in the activities required of the training intervention.

As the purpose of this study was to measure changes in participants' EI,

participants took a pretest and posttest assessment, the EQmentor (Justice, 2010).

Participants were only included in the data if they took the pretest prior to the training

and they completed the posttest after the training. The participant's knowledge of having

viewed the pretest several months prior could be a limitation of the results of the

assessment. The Hawthorne effect came into play since the participant's were aware they

were involved in an experiment. From their awareness of the pretest, they could

anticipate the questions for the posttest.

Another constraint was the participants' completion of the weekly class valuation surveys. As one of the activities for the training intervention, emails requesting responses confirming participants' participation provided data. Participants then responded whether they attended the intervention in person or listened to the session by audio. The weekly valuation surveys of the participants allow the program administrator and faculty to continually adjust and improve the impact of the training on future participants. The questions need to be periodically re-evaluated and perhaps reframed to capture more of the implementation of the concepts from the training as opposed to a review of the weekly chapter readings as discussed in class. The weekly surveys should happen as an exit ticket from the session immediately to provide the best feedback or immediately following the participant listening to the session by audio recording. This researcher checked to see if all participants responded to more than half of the weekly surveys and they did.

The final constraint was the participant's willingness to do the homework and participate in the sessions. The effort devoted to the homework assignments for the upcoming weekly sessions varied by the seriousness taken by the participants. As with many things, you get out of something what you put into it. This training intervention is no different. Assigned readings for upcoming chapters and a variety of activities were required for the training intervention. Participants did not receive a grade for the completion of tasks and thus their own inner discipline played a factor in the constraint of their individual improvement.

Qualitative Limitations

The interview responses revealed the following constraints affecting the 20-hour

training intervention for empathy as a crucial skill of instructional coaching. The

constraints consisted of demographics of participants, limited technology resources, non-

participation in the EQmentor assessment, missed opportunity to collect participants'

perception, the time of year of the training, and participants at varied levels in their

knowledge of empathy.

The first constraint of demographics of the selected participants references the

gender of the interviewed participants as being all female. The study consisted of 90

participants; 77 were female and 12 were male. None of the 12 male participants in the

study were among the most improved or most decrease on the EQmentor (Justice, 2010),

and thus were not included in the qualitative portion of the study. All participants

possessed unique backgrounds, experiences, professions, and interests. The qualitative

participants were from four different states in the United States.

The limited technology constraint originated from a comment during an interview

from one of the participants. She referenced telephone problems, including difficulties

with connections for dyads and triads. She would have preferred technology that would

have allowed her to see other participants. She noted that especially during the session on

Nonviolent Communication, how it would have been beneficial to see the facial

expressions, body language, or other cues from other participants. This participant felt the

intervention would have been better received if all participants could view each other as

well as the instructors.

Another constraint to the study was the exclusion of some training participants from the study because they did not take the EQmentor (Justice, 2010) prior to the first class session and their data could not be used in the qualitative portion of the study. If participants did not take the quantitative pretest and posttest, they were not eligible to participate in the qualitative segments of the study.

The original proposal was to have two interview protocols for eight participants that increased or decreased the most from the EQmentor assessment. The first interview was to occur immediately following completion of the course and the second interview was to occur three months after the first interview. The main purpose of the second interview was to see if participants were still using their new acquired coaching skills three months later and to get their perceptions as to its continued usefulness. Unforeseen at the planning stage of this research study was that the size of the initial cohorts were too small to provide an adequate sample and thus it was necessary to wait until a sample of over 35 was achieved to generate enough data for a valid study. The first cohort finished in May 2011, the second cohort finished in July 2011, and the third finished in December 2011. The third cohort was the largest and generated the needed number of participants. The fourth and fifth cohorts ended in May 2012. The missed opportunity for research was the participants' perception of the model three months later. However, because the interview participants had completed the training at varying time frames prior to the interviews, some as much as seven months prior to their interview, there was an element of using the skills over time reflected in the interview data. Future studies of coach training intervention programs might include two interview protocols to provide the additional aspect of a longitudinal look at participants' experiences.

Still another constraint was the timing of the cohorts. One cohort occurred in the spring, another in the summer, and still yet another in the fall. Given that the participants were educators, the stress level and time available to devote to the program varied at different points in the school year. The program administrator checked the numbers of weekly valuation sheets that were filled out by the participants. It was determined that there had to be six or more filled out to show active participation for the intervention. Variations in the participants' involvement in the homework, valuation surveys, and class time were a potential limitation due to the timing of the cohorts. For example, the summer cohort met two times per week and thus has less time to practice the skills between class sessions. Future coach training intervention programs would benefit from trying to control these variants.

The varying definitions of empathy presented a constraint of the usefulness and application of the research. Empathy is defined in the textbook and by the instructors, but the participants have a perceived definition from their previous experiences. This limitation is intrinsic to the field and is not controllable by the researcher. Future researchers would be advised to focus on one model of EI which aligns with the components of their particular training intervention.

Delimitations of the Study

The present study was confined to participants in the Evocative Coaching training who were educators and who volunteered to participate in a survey and/or agreed to be interviewed. The qualitative phase of the study was limited to participants identified through gain scores from the pretest and posttest, EQmentor (Justice, 2010).

CHAPTER 4 – RESULTS

The purpose of this research study was to assess whether measurable improvement in emotional intelligence (EI) would result from a 20-hour training intervention program, in particular the Evocative Coaching model for instructional coaches in PK-12 schools. The research design was a mixed-methods study combining both quantitative and qualitative methods. The results are presented in two sections: with the first presents the quantitative results for research question one, followed by the qualitative results for research questions two and three.

Research Question One

1. To what extent are scores on a measure of emotional intelligence, as measured by EQmentor, of instructional coaches in PK-12 schools increased as a result of participation in a 20 hour coach training program?

    a) To what extent is there a measurable difference in the participants' total emotional quotient (combining the interpersonal and intrapersonal scores) of emotional intelligence before and after participation in a coach training program?

    b) To what extent is there a measurable difference in the participants' intrapersonal scale (combining the self-regulation, self-awareness, and motivation subscales) of emotional intelligence before and after participation in the coach training program?

    c) To what extent is there a measurable difference in the participants' interpersonal skills (combining and social skills subscales) of emotional

intelligence before and after participation in the coach training

program?

Question one addressed the quantitative part of the research study, comparing

results of an assessment of EI before and after the training. This chapter presents data

from the EQmentor (Justice, 2010) pretest and posttest, data collected from interviews

regarding the impact of the training intervention program, and concludes with a

summary. The quantitative methods used a one-group pretest-posttest design to answer

research question one. Data were collected from the 90 participants during the spring,

summer, and fall sections of 2011 and the spring sections of 2012 for the Evocative

Coaching model training. Each participant took the EQmentor (Justice, 2010) prior to the

training intervention and again upon completion of the training. Question one is divided

into three parts: Part A representing the total emotional quotient combining the

interpersonal and intrapersonal composite scores, Part B representing the intrapersonal

scale combing the self-regulation, self-awareness, and motivation subscales of the

EQmentor (Justice, 2010), and Part C represents the interpersonal skills as measured by

empathy and social skills subscales on the EQmentor (Justice, 2012). Descriptive

statistics included measures of the mean and standard deviation for total emotional

quotient (EQ) and components of intrapersonal EI, interpersonal EI, as well as subscales

of self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. A repeated

measures t-test was used to determine whether there were statistically significant changes

in the EI of the participants.

Table 3

Pre and Post-Test Comparisons of Emotional Intelligence Subscales

EQ	N	Pretest Mean	SD	Posttest Mean	SD	T	Sig.
Self-Awareness	90	7.03	.82	7.18	1.00	-1.92	.059
Self-Regulation	90	6.70	1.09	6.68	1.11	.203	.840
Motivation	90	7.44	1.31	7.63	1.11	**-2.50**	**.014***
Intrapersonal Composite	90	7.06	.83	7.16	.89	-1.70	.092
Empathy	90	7.64	1.05	7.79	.97	**-2.12**	**.037***
Social Skills	90	7.01	1.19	7.22	.92	**-2.99**	**.004***
Interpersonal Composite	90	7.34	1.00	7.52	.92	**-3.10**	**.003***
Total EQ Score	90	7.17	.80	7.30	.81	**-2.52**	**.013***

Statistically significant changes are indicated in bold. * p< .05.

Research question 1a focused on whether significant differences existed in the

total EQ score for participants before the training and after the training. Table 1 shows

that there was a significant difference between the pretest and posttest score (t =-2.52, p

<.013). Of the five subscales of self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy,

and social skills, three showed a statistically significant value meaning that there is a less

than 5% probability that the changes happened by chance. In answer to research question

1b, results from the EQmentor (Justice, 2010) showed that the intrapersonal composite

difference between the pretest and posttest score did not show significant changes.

Participants, however, did demonstrate a significant difference between the pretest and

posttest motivation subscale score resulting in a significant increase (t =-2.50, p <.014).

In answer to research question 1c, results showed that participants showed statistically

significant improvements from the pretest and posttest on the interpersonal composite

score(t= -3.10, p< .003), and that both the empathy (t = -2.12, p< .037), and social skills

(t=-2.99, p< .004) subscales showed a statistically significantly difference between the

pretest and posttest scores.

Auxiliary Findings

The purpose of this research study was to assess whether measurable

improvement in emotional intelligence (EI) could result from a 20-hour training

intervention program, in particular the Evocative Coaching model for instructional

coaches in PK-12 schools. It became apparent from the interviews that some of the

participants were volunteers and some were directed to participate in the training program

as part of their job. Further exploration of the study results separated the volunteers from

those who had been directed to take the training as part of a district initiative revealed

differences in the strengths of the gains made in EI. The results demonstrated that there

were statistically significant improvements in overall EQ, both the interpersonal and

intrapersonal composite measures, and all five subscales among those who were

volunteers, while among nonvolunteers the only subscale to a show statistically

significant difference was for self-regulation and that was in a negative direction (See

Table 4). In addition, of the 53 people who improved their gain score, 56.6% of them

were volunteers and of the 32 people whose scores declined, only 37.5% of them were

volunteers.

Another auxiliary finding dealt with gender of the participants. There were a total

of 90 participants consisting of 13 males and 77 female participants. For the 13 males,

none of the EQ subscale or composite pretest and posttest score comparisons was

statistically significant. For the 77 female participants, the Motivation ($t = -2.436$, $p <$ .017) and Social Skills ($t = -3.006$, $p < .004$) subscales produced significantly significant improvement, as did the interpersonal composite ($t = -2.826$, $p < .006$) and the overall EQ score ($t = -2.212$, $p < .030$).

Table 4

Pre and Post-Test Comparisons of Emotional Intelligence Subscales for Nonvolunteers and Volunteers

EQ	N	Pretest Mean	SD	Posttest Mean	SD	T	Sig.
Nonvolunteers							
Self-Awareness	46	7.06	.72	7.10	.92	-.36	.717
Self-Regulation	46	6.83	1.14	6.55	1.17	**2.82**	**.007***
Motivation	46	7.38	1.05	7.48	1.17	-.99	.329
Intrapersonal Composite	46	7.10	.82	7.03	.92	.892	.377
Empathy	46	7.56	1.16	7.66	1.04	-.973	.336
Social Skills	46	7.00	1.28	7.19	1.00	-1.94	.058
Interpersonal Composite	46	7.29	1.12	7.43	.93	-1.63	.110
Total EQ Score	46	7.17	.83	7.19	.81	-.272	.786
Volunteers							
Self-Awareness	44	7.00	.93	7.26	1.07	**-2.41**	**.021***
Self-Regulation	44	6.55	1.03	6.81	1.03	**-2.28**	**.028***
Motivation	44	7.50	1.32	7.79	1.04	**-2.48**	**.017***
Intrapersonal Composite	44	7.01	.85	7.30	.85	**-3.25**	**.002***
Empathy	44	7.73	.92	7.92	.88	**-2.11**	**.041***
Social Skills	44	7.03	1.12	7.26	1.13	**-2.26**	**.029***
Interpersonal Composite	44	7.38	.87	7.61	.91	**-2.78**	**.008***
Total EQ Score	44	7.16	.78	7.42	.81	**-3.39**	**.002***

*p< .05

Research Questions Two and Three

Qualitative methods were used to answer research questions two and three. The qualitative research questions were:

2) What changes do selected participants perceive to the level of empathy as a result of the training, and how do they perceive that their emotional intelligence affects their performance as instructional coaches?

3) What do selected participants perceive to have been the influence of the training in the Evocative Coaching model on their practices as instructional leaders after the completion of the training?

The coded responses and the emergent themes for each research question are presented and supporting quotes are used to provide rich description and in-depth information contributing to the credibility of this research study. Seven themes emerged from the interview data. Four of the seven themes that emerged from the participants' responses pertain to research question two while the remaining three are pertinent to research question three. These themes are provided in Table 5. Table 5 also provides each participant labeled A through I with a (+) or (-) beside their respective letter representing whether they showed an increase (+) in their overall emotional quotient (EQ) or decrease (-).Participants A,B, E, and F showed increases(+) on their total EQ score on the EQmentor (Justice, 2010) and participants C,D, G, H, and I experienced a decrease in their EQ score (-). Each participant's response will be labeled PA (+) _Savannah meaning Participant A increased on her overall EQ and her pseudonym name is Savannah.

The "X" in Table 5 represents the participants' mention of these themes, be it a positive or negative comment, during their interview. The themes of increased awareness,

improved listening, expressing empathy, and Nonviolent Communication are discussed in more depth relating to research question two. Research question three is addressed with the themes of emotional intelligence, observation tools, and instructional leadership.

Table 5
Themes from Interviews

Participants' Themes	A(+)	B(+)	C(-)	D(-)	E(+)	F(+)	G(-)	H(-)	I(-)	Total
Increased Awareness	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	8
Improved Listening	X	X		X	X	X			X	6
Expressing Empathy	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	9
Nonviolent Communication	X	X		X	X	X				5
Emotional Intelligence	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	9
Observation Tools	X	X	X	X				X	X	6
Instructional Leadership	X	X		X	X	X		X	X	7

Research Question Two

Research question two asked, "What changes do selected participants perceive to their level of emotional intelligence as a result of the training, and how do they perceive that their emotional intelligence affects their performance as an administrator and/or teacher leader?" All of the participants referenced emotional intelligence (EI) as having a positive change to their performance as an administrator and/or teacher leader, regardless of whether they had been identified as improving or decreasing their scores in the EQmentor. One stated that it is "the most important thing" and she shared that strategy and technique are not at the heart of what moves a team or organization, it is the EI that lets people know you value and respect the part they play in the overall organization.

Still, another participant felt EI provided her with the ability to be calm and understand

her own presence in the current coaching situation. The most common referenced

statements regarding their EI were how they have increased awareness in their

interactions with others and their improved listening skills.

Increased Awareness

Eight out of the nine participants interviewed referenced increased awareness as a

result of the Evocative Coaching model. The Mobius model of Evocative Coaching

consists of Story- Empathy- Inquiry- Design (SEID), resulting in the no-fault turn and

strength-building turn which are referred to as the dynamic dance. The Evocative

Coaching model uses empathy and inquiry to appreciate story and create design. A

person's awareness provides them with the ability to recognize their own personality with

a particular focus on their character strengths. This awareness was mentioned by one

participant as the addition of a new tool in her tool box of tricks for instruction. She noted

that her awareness was not something to be arbitrarily turned on or off, but more of a

gradual slow building up of a change to how she viewed her surroundings and people

within it. This awareness noted by the participants enabled them to notice when they

were under pressure or stressed, ultimately enabling them to provide more effective

communication, better interpersonal relations, and the development of empathy. The

participants expressed awareness as processing and understanding what is happening in

the present. It was this awareness that created a new framework expanding their ability

for observing and focusing on the current conversation. Frances (+) indicated the

Evocative Coaching class enabled her to become more aware of the impact of her

coaching behaviors and how her behavior impacted the person she was coaching:

> This "Awareness factor" of how I was coaching, of how I was buying into the coaching experience.... I wanted to fix things, we want to get in and make it happen and [to] realize that is not my responsibility. My responsibility is to help the teacher get there. It really gave me a different perspective, the teacher talk vs. coach talk. It really gave me a different perspective. [PH (+)_Frances]

Autumn (-) spoke of the relationship between awareness of emotions and management of emotions. Goleman's ability model focuses on emotional intelligence (EI) divided into four categories: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (Goleman, 2001). Recognizing one's emotions and their effects further helps individuals know which emotions they are feeling and why. It also helps them recognize how their feelings affect their performance thus enabling them with a guiding awareness of their goals and values. Autumn (-) echoed Frances (+) with her awareness comments:

> It brought to a higher degree of awareness, of where my emotions were playing out; I was trying to drive the agendas opposed to being concerned, doing the listening that is so critical, the great question. ... It raises the awareness for me and allows that awareness for the other person, which results in more self control. [PH(-)_Autumn]

There is a strong emphasis in the Evocative Coaching training on "coaching presence" and of being fully present to the person being coached. An important part of assuming the proper coaching presence is the preparation immediately before a coaching session. Savannah (+) shared that the awareness of the importance of coaching presence regarding checking in, clearing her own mind, and preparing herself for the upcoming coaching session. She shared:

> This has been a very positive effect because I am very aware of checking in with myself, clearing my own mind, setting aside what is going on for me, to really be present for the other person. [PA(+)_Savannah]

Shannon (-) indicated that the awareness for her was a useful method of controlling

herself when she spoke, how she spoke, what she said, and how often she spoke. She

also described her own individual self-management of her emotions to control her verbal

and facial expressions during the conversation. She was reminded constantly to focus on

her coaching skills. Holly (+) compared the Evocative Coaching model of working with

adults to help them with their continued life-long learning to teachers working with

students in the classroom resulting in the same kind of excitement. She went on to say

that it is a satisfying way to engage with adults in their learning journey, to move into a

space where you have provided them with a safe and secure environment and from there

to chart a design where they accomplish something important to them. Holly (+)

summarized, saying:

> It has really helped me to step back. The questioning techniques that are taught
> through Evocative Coaching are very powerful, and what I have come to see is that
> if I can listen in this manner, and I can ask the questions to lead people in their
> own truths and their own ah – ha's, so to speak, that is what is really fulfilling to
> me. [PB(+)_Holly]

The awareness process was essential for helping the participants to discover new

perceptions and emotions. Through these new skills, the participants found this new

acquired coaching skill invaluable.

In contrast, Zhanna (-) did not feel that the Evocative Coaching model had

impacted her level of awareness because of her background as a school counselor of five

years. She noted that she had always had a frame of mind that change comes from within

and that you can't force teachers to do things, indicating that she learned this from her

counseling background. Zhanna (-) felt she was good at recognizing and managing her

own emotions before she took the class.

Improved Listening

There is a strong emphasis in the Evocative Coaching training on learning to listen well. This is taught explicitly in three chapters: Chapter 2 Coaching Presence, Chapter 3 Story Listening, and Chapter 4 Expressing Empathy (Tschannen-Moran & Tschannen-Moran, 2010). The listening skills covered included quiet, mindful, and reflective listening, as well as listening for story lines and listening for feelings and needs. The art and skill of listening was mentioned by all nine participants. Six of the participants referenced giving or granting themselves permission to just listen, to pause, to reflect, and to take the time to slow down the conversation. They found this skill to be both very powerful and very effective at getting the person being coached to engage more deeply in the coaching process. This contributed to the coaching goals of raising awareness and generating responsibility on the part of the coachee. JP (+) shared:

> I learned a lot about listening. I would say that that was one of the highlights is that I could be able to allow myself to commit 100% to what the other person really needed support in, to put my agenda aside, and be able to really listen full, to what they had to say, so that I was more of a partner than an expert when I was working with them. So, listening without talking was huge. [PE(+)_JP]

Eleanor (-) echoed JP's (+) remarks by focusing on the needs of the other person. She felt the use of being attentive, quiet, and mindful helped her coaching.

> I feel the training helped me to listen, listen for feelings, listen for emotions, also to be aware of the different cues for body language, and that type of thing. Before, I really didn't know how to be observant in that way. [Not] thinking of my next question, [not] thinking of my next statement -- really being in the moment and listening to the teacher [PI(-)_Eleanor].

Holly (+) went on to reference the art of reflective listening. She shared that reflective listening helped her to be purposeful. Holly (+) describes her purpose as daily listening where people are and what support they need. With their needs in mind, she uses her

listening skills to help people grow individually to obtain the answer they are seeking.

Shannon (-) focused on the new skill of listening, in particular mindful listening, enabling

her to concentrate more on her direct and surrounding environment. She also used the

calmer, more purposeful starting point as that tool that she has used most often.

> I think, I am a much better listener and, by that, I mean, that I really learned how
> to come into a situation and , take more of a pause, kinda [a]360 assessment of the
> environment that the person I am going to be talking to is in, where the terms of
> body language, the environment, physical environment whether it is cluttered or
> not whether in their classroom, or the end of the day, just really learning how to
> pause to take that in, to lead as we start conversations. [PD(-)_Shannon].

Frances (+) explained how listening through the Evocative Coaching model changed the

whole coaching process for her. She saw herself falling into some of the "traps"

described in the training program. Frances (+) shared her experience as a coach:

> I think it changed, completely changed the way that I did coaching. In
> understanding coaching prior to this, this has only been a year and a half that I
> have been coaching. I was falling into what Bob called, the pit holes, of helping
> teachers figure out just what to do, not helping them figure out what they needed
> to do, I was doing the majority of the talking. I was giving a lot of examples. I
> was being more I think a supervising, kind of role, or a master teacher kind of
> role, instead of a coach role. [PH(+)_Frances]

Frances (+) also shared an experience with a fifth-year English teacher who was having

problems organizing groups of her students. Through brainstorming, this teacher was able

to solve her problem on her own. As she considered a variety of options, the teacher was

able to develop a strategy to organize her groups differently. She commented to Frances

(+), "Oh my gosh, that was so easy!". [PH(+)_Frances]. Frances (+) was able, through

her listening skills, to create a context in which the teacher came up with solutions for her

grouping problem on her own, not by someone else telling her what to do.

One of the three participants that did not describe improved listening as a theme,

Autumn (-), did share about her increased awareness and she referenced knowing how to

listen. She described her listening as becoming more astute in her conversations with others, but she did not attribute this improved listening as a result of the training intervention. The other two participants did not mention improved listening as impacting them from the training intervention program.

Expressing Empathy

The use of empathy is another important element of the Evocative Coaching model and is practiced in the training program. Empathy draws on both cognitive and emotional awareness to connect with what individuals are feeling and needing. The acknowledgement of the development of empathy skills was noted by all nine participants who were interviewed. Many shared stories and examples of teachers they supervised. One story shared by Zhanna (-) referenced a 2nd grade teacher frustrated by how her students were performing in math. Zhanna (-) wanted to tell the teacher exactly what to do; she wanted to say, "you do x, y, and z". Instead Zhanna (-), paused, waited, and listened for the teacher to come up with her own solutions. She then offered her a reflection acknowledging the frustration she had been feeling, and the teachers' needs for competence and contribution. Zhanna (-) was able to provide empathy as a coach who accepted the teacher right where she was, the way she was at that particular time. Zhanna (-) listened and invited the teacher to brainstorm solutions. The teacher was able to come up with her own suggestions for future math lessons. With respect, appreciation, and understanding, Zhanna (-) used empathy to bolster the teacher's sense of competence in planning for future math lessons. Likewise, Frances (+) shared an example where expressing empathy proved to be a powerful intervention that shifted the teacher's energy in a productive way.

A teacher came in saying how one period did well and another period did very poorly. It's okay to feel bad about that, it is okay to recognize the fact that one group did well. She went from being angry to being hurt at herself. I understood and repeated some things back to her the way that we were taught. We really just talked about the emotions around those grades. She came to me later and said, "I just have to tell you that I feel so much better. I have clarity now with what I need to do and where I need to go". That was really powerful to me. It was very positive and very constructive. We really got her to think why she thought they should do better. I was really asking her specific questions... She was able to process and let go -- no emotional attachment. [PH(+)_Frances]

JP (+) provided another example of expressing empathy from a teacher who was struggling with her own beliefs being different than what was expected of her. This teacher believed that if she asked her evaluator for help regarding discipline issues that this demonstrated she lacked classroom management skills. She was trying to figure out the best way to deal with discipline, should she send the students out of the classroom or deal with the discipline herself. She believed that asking for help showed her lack control of her classroom. Through listening, JP (+) was able to find out the needs and desires of the teacher and why she was feeling the way she was. JP (+) tried to listen differently and empathetically to understand the teachers' needs and her fear about being able to meet the students' needs as well as demonstrate to her evaluator that she could do her job.

Another example from Shannon (-) regarded a teacher's frustrations about two students who were not getting their work done during the regular school hours. She was giving up her lunch time to work with these students as well as working with them during their recess time for them to do their unfinished work. Through expressing empathy, Shannon (-) was able to assist the teacher to work through some of her frustrations. Shannon (-) encouraged the teacher to deescalate the issue and for the teacher to give herself permission to take her lunch and to do what she needed to do.

Savannah (+) shared her story of empathy by letting the other person re-phrase

and repeat back the story to hear her own needs and what she wanted to do. Savannah (+)

shared:

> A teacher was feeling very frustrated with her supervisor about which project she
> should focus on. She hadn't felt like she had gotten clear feedback from her
> supervisor....I focused on what she was expressing and saying back to her what I
> was perceiving as her feeling, as to what I was hearing her say, saying that back to
> her. Allowing her to acknowledge for herself also taught her to hear her own
> priorities. So it became less a matter of what the feedback from her supervisor
> was, but she was able to focus more on what she wanted to do and what she knew
> would be acceptable to the supervisor and what was really going to meet her
> needs. [PA(+)_Savannah]

Nonviolent Communication

The model for empathy taught in Evocative Coaching is a process called

Nonviolent Communication (NVC) or Compassionate Communication. It should be

noted that the NVC or compassionate communication are terms that are used

interchangeably for the method of empathy taught in the Evocative Coaching model. The

four distinguish components of NVC are: observations, feelings, needs, and requests. One

of the four participants that remembered the four steps of NVC shared:

> *I think that I am still probably actually internalizing those steps; I can't say that
> they are at an automatic level for me. I know that it informs how I move into
> groups. I do a lot of professional development, and although this is a coaching
> model, I would say that these steps have also become part of my thinking when I
> design the training, I believe very much in active participation, hands on
> learning, not the lecture approaches of old. The steps can be used when I work
> with small cohorts and professional learning communities for coaches; I am
> starting to see some applications with even large group instruction that is kind of
> exciting.* [PB(+)_Holly]

Holly (+) also shared that the focus on needs had really resonated with her:

> I think the wheel of needs really helped me to have a framework inside myself, to
> listen to people words was very powerful. And focusing on the patterns that
> people use in their words, and also being introduced to the compassionate
> communication section where you move from evaluation to observation, and to

feelings rather than thinking what people need, listening to the needs differently, hearing what they are asking help for -- those structures helped me ramp up what people were feeling. And it gave me permission, probably the biggest thing, unlike any other coaching model. I am able to genuinely open up and be vulnerable and helping them set the stage, help them to feel safe. It is pretty phenomenal to have people open up right back to you. [PB(+)_Holly]

JP (+) noted that she is using the steps of NVC both personally and professionally. Because learning a new communication skill can feel awkward at first, she was trying to use NVC at home where the stakes are low and then as she feels more comfortable to use them in a professional setting where the stakes become higher. Finally, Zhanna (-) shared that NVC is not something you actually say, "okay, here is what you do for step one" and so forth, it just happens with practice. For her, it happens with reflecting other peoples' feelings when they are talking to you and noticing their individual body language. Zhanna (-) observed that she does use NVC daily; she just doesn't reference the names of the steps.

Four of the five participants that remembered the steps of NVC were participants whose EI increased on the EQmentor (Justice, 2010). All four of these individuals volunteered for the training intervention. Shannon (+), instructional coach by profession, decreased in her EI score although she remembered the NVC process. Four of the nine participants could not remember what the steps of NVC were and they felt it was not something they have used since the intervention training program, although all of the participants talked about the importance of empathy and bringing a greater awareness of the feelings and needs of the people they were coaching. This may reflect that there is less emphasis on the first and last steps in the NVC model, observations and requests, in the Evocative Coaching training, and greater emphasis on the middle two steps of feelings and needs.

Research Question Three

Research question three asked "What do selected participants perceive to have been the influence of the training in the Evocative Coaching model on their practice as instructional leaders?" The three themes related to this question were observation tools, instructional leadership, and emotional intelligence (EI).

Emotional Intelligence

All nine participants shared positive comments regarding their own personal emotional intelligence (EI). Participants were asked to share how they perceived their EI affects their performance as an administrator and/or teacher leader. Eleanor (-) asserted that it is key to know your abilities and strength as well as to also know your weaknesses. She provided an example referencing a teacher and how her relationship related to students and their success:

> As a Title I teacher we pull kids to work with the kids as well as staff...She had very poor relationships with staff and it directly affected the scores in our building, the reading scores were always much lower than the math scores, in part it was due to her lack of emotional connection with the staff,... I have a connection with the staff and the math scores have been much better. I was able to get into their classrooms as the reading instructor never did, and if you don't have that initial trust and relationship, you won't even get a teacher asking you for a resource. [PI(-)_Eleanor]

Holly (+) described emotional intelligence as the most important thing regarding instructional leadership. She shared that she couldn't work without EI being a part of who she is within her job. Regarding EI, Holly (+) stated:

> I think that what I have learned is that strategy and technique are not at the heart of what moves a person or a team or an organization, it is the emotional intelligence that lets people know that you value and respect their part to play. I couldn't work without that being a part of who I am. [PB(+)_Holly]

Frances (-) echoed a similar comment on the importance of EI on her ability to do a

good job. She stressed that EI helps to build rapport with people. With establishing that

rapport, Frances placed the emphasis of EI as being empathic and not sympathetic. She

went on to say that people do not need your sympathy; they want you to understand

where they are in their own personal growth. Michelle (-) took the EI assessment and

looked at her results and did some personal reflecting on how others perceive her. .

Michelle (-) shared:

> As I looked at the details of the emotional test, I found that I am not perceived
> well by others. My intent may be well, but it is not always perceived in that intent.
> … If I do not connect with them emotionally, show them empathy, they are not
> going to connect with me, I will not be able to lead them. If I don't build that
> relationship of empathy and trust, I am aware of it and how I represent myself to
> others, and how they perceive me. [PC(-)_Michelle]

Autumn (-) concluded that it is all relational, your emotional understanding of self and of

others. She believes it is critical to moving forward with developing empathy, trust, and

listening. Holly (+) provided a summary of the training intervention:

> Everything about this course was deeply validating to me. They confirmed that I
> was becoming more and more the person I have intention to be, and it is very
> inspiring for me seeing the growth in myself, absolutely has convinced me that
> everybody can do this kind of growth, that it is very personal and very individual,
> I do a lot of research on brain research, and I know the brain research on brain
> classcity, all of us can grow every day of our lives .That is really my purpose, for
> adults to discover and decide who they are going to be, and to be on the journey
> with them and help them to grow and get the validation, this course definitely did
> for me, my goals were reachable, and the aspect that are naturally strong in me, I
> can depend on those as I grow in these other areas as I become aware of them.
> [PB(+)_Holly]

Michelle (-) shared a personal note:

> My own personality has changed as far as showing empathy. When I approach
> people, I think about them first, in every situation. their emotions. I have a co-
> worker in the Title 1 group with me. She's older; she has been doing this for a
> long time. I have such an aggressive personality; [but] I see the walls coming

down. I have learned how to have real empathy with her to the point that she is hugging me and it has changed the relationship that I have had with my co-worker. I see the change happening in my personal life, my friends, and people at church. [PC(-)_Michelle]

Observation Tools

One of the most useful aspects of the training program in relationship to the practice of instructional leaders was the observation tools. The participants found them useful in providing data to the teachers through the cycle of pre-observation, observation, and post-observation. The instructional leaders liked that the tools provided a non-judgmental view of what was actually happening in the classroom. The information collected on the observation tool was just a tally of the events as they occurred in the classroom. The conversations following the observations were growth for the instructional leaders as well as the teachers.

The observations tools in the Evocative Coaching model are presented in the chapter on Appreciative Inquiry (Tschannen-Moran & Tschannen-Moran, 2010). The observation tools are used in a coaching system revolving around a pre-observation conference, observation, and post-observation conference. These three meetings are essential because the conversations surrounding the tool make or break a coaching relationship. For example, one of the tools titled Teacher Verbal Behaviors Observation Tool has columns consisting of three minute time frames, information giving, questioning, answering, encouraging/praising, direction giving, correcting, redirecting, and actions. The observer tallies the various verbal behaviors observed in each three minute time frames throughout the lesson. With the raw data of the tallies, the teacher during the post-observation notes her own strengths and weaknesses. These observation tools help the teachers to work towards improving their own performance. Other

observation tools include Student Engagement and the Level of Questioning by the

teacher ranging from knowledge to creation. Six of the nine participants mentioned using

the observation tools provided in the textbook and how they liked the collection of data

being a non-evaluative tool. Eleanor (-) shared:

> I worked with a particular teacher this year who expressed a concern with her
> pacing of her instruction, so I offered to do an observation, and to document the
> time of each part of her lesson, I met with her, and we reviewed the data that I had
> gathered, and so through that conversation, in the class like you have the golden
> sign, the kind of ahah moment, and we were able to accomplish that by looking at
> the data together,.... I felt the course of meeting together, planning the
> observation, doing the observation, and follow up of the observation, going over
> the observation, it was a positive experience for the both of us, written out on
> paper, a building experience for her to be able to see, to actually see it, solid there.
> [PI(-)_Eleanor]

Autumn (-) referenced the observation tools which consist of the collection of raw

data either pertaining to student engagement, teacher verbal behaviors, or the level of

questioning techniques. She saw the observation tools as an opportunity for coaches to

shape and influence the teachers. Autumn (-) compared the conversation between the

coach and the teacher as leverage points between two people. She went on to assert that if

the coach is just coming in to observe and check off what is happening or what is not

happening, then this will not make a difference to the teacher. The true difference is the

quality of the conversation and the Evocative Coaching model is a starting point for

shaping and influencing the thinking for the coach and the teacher.

Three of the nine participants did not reference the use of the observation tools.

The professions of these three participants could reflect their unfamiliarity with providing

observation data to teachers. One of the participants was a project specialist and one was

a Title I math specialist. These professions generally do not require observations of

teachers. The participants expressing the use of the observation tools reflected their

professional responsibilities, such as head of school and learning specialist.

Instructional Leadership

Seven of the nine participants asserted that the Evocative Coaching model

impacted their instructional leadership in a positive way. JP (+) noted that one of the

biggest impacts from the intervention was the fact that she now looks for strengths in

people. She starts with what is going well and builds from that point. JP (+) believes that

due to this change in her practice, the people she works with are more positive, they get

more excited about what they really want to happen, and they reconnect with their own

good intention for why they are doing what they are doing. JP (+) stated, "it seems to me

that it inspires change instead of requiring change" [PE(+)_JP]. Likewise, Holly (+)

shared how she has changed as an instructional leader professionally:

> Wow, I think that it has helped me deepen relationships with my colleagues. It has
> helped me move into new relationships with new teachers to the district or
> younger teachers to the profession that I don't already have relationships with. I
> have fearlessness about being open and present that is very strong in me since this
> course. [PB(+)_Holly]

JP (+) shared how her instructional leadership style changed. She talked about her

coaching presence and how she prepared herself to listen respectfully and carefully to the

conversation. She described how she takes time before she meets with people to center

and ground herself. This helps her prepare to figure out the teachers' needs, which she

feels is the hardest in her coaching experience. Holly (+) referenced her previous

instructional leadership style and how the Evocative Coaching model changed her

leadership practice.

> I think it had a vast impact on my practice. I think that there were some very
> intuitive practices that I have used in my career. The Evocative Coaching gave me

more explanations of a framework, so that I could talk about it, more nuts and bolts. I also got validation for the process for specific areas. I like the process that we use in the actual steps that we go through, I find I am using those as I am talking to people and reflect on the. I definitely use the energy check that has probably become very automatic for me. I was really drawn to this with the vocabulary... no fault turn, strength building. This was a model that spoke to how I felt about working with colleagues, how I wanted to live my life, to do that in a more purposeful, for me, I see it as part of a spiritual practice. [PB(+)_Holly]

Zhanna (-) shared how the Evocative Coaching model has changed her instructional leadership by improving on interactions with individuals professionally and its success. She discussed how she has been able to slow down, to think, to give herself more time to think, and to think through her next move with the teacher. Zhanna (-) stated, "it has improved my game plan" [PG(-) _Zhanna]. JP (+) referenced the process for motivating change by focusing on the strengths and vitalities to rise above and outgrown their problems. She stated:

> One thing is that I am definitely interested in appreciate inquiry. ...I led my organization on an appreciate inquiry summit. So, it changed our entire organizational structure, and how we evaluate people. Not evaluation, but really valuation; we are talking about how we valuate people. We added celebration and appreciative inquiry stories to every agenda. , ... We are constantly talking to each other about what went well. [PE (+)_JP]

Michelle (-) was one of the two participants that did not reference instructional leadership as a theme resulting from the Evocative Coaching training intervention. When asked how the training affects her performance as an administrator and/or teacher leader, Michelle (-) described how others perceive her and she described showing the other person empathy and working on building the relationship of empathy and trust. She did not reference instructional leadership.

Summary of Findings

This study presented several noteworthy quantitatively and qualitatively findings. Quantitatively, results from question one indicated statistically significant differences for

the overall emotional quotient (EQ), the interpersonal composite score, and the subscales

of motivation, empathy, and social skills. Qualitatively, the interview data produced

emerging themes of increased awareness, improved listening, expressing empathy, and

Nonviolent Communication for research question two. The results of research question

three, regarding what selected participants perceived to have been the influence of the

Evocative Coaching model on their practice as instructional leaders, demonstrated

qualitative results influencing their value of emotional intelligence (EI), use of the

observation tools, and reflection of current instructional leadership styles. Both

quantitative and qualitative results were favorable for the development of empathy for

instructional coaches.

CHAPTER 5 – IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study was to evaluate if there would be a statistically significant increase in scores on a measure of emotional intelligence (EI) at the conclusion of 20 hours of coach training in a program that includes explicit training in empathy. Also, it was hypothesized that participants would note improved performance as instructional leaders as a result of increased awareness of their own and others' feelings and needs. This chapter includes a summary of the results to the research questions, implications, recommendations for practice and future research, and conclusions of the research.

Summary of Results

Research Question One

Research question one addressed to what extent is emotional intelligence (EI) of instructional coaches in PK-12 schools, as measured by EQmentor (Justice, 2010), increased as a result of participation in a 20-hour coach training intervention program. The EQmentor (Justice, 2010) assessment was administered prior to and immediately following a 20-hour training from a sample of 90 participants. The quantitative results of the study showed that the total emotional quotient (EQ) score and the interpersonal composite score also showed statistically significant increases. Three of the five subscales motivation, empathy, and social skills, showed statistically significant increases as well, meaning that there is less than 5% probability that the changes from the participants occurred by chance. All of this quantitative data implies that overall EQ as well as motivation, empathy, social skills, and interpersonal skills, can be developed through a training intervention. The two subscales of self-awareness and self-regulation

did not show statistically significantly improvement nor did the intrapersonal composite

score. The participants who volunteered for the training intervention showed a greater

increase in EI when compared to the participants who were compelled by their district to

take the training for professional development. The participants who were told they had

to take the training as part of their job, on the whole, did not seem to value or learn as

much from it as those who willingly volunteered to participate on their own accord.

For the past decade, educators throughout the United States are increasingly using

the strategy of instructional coaches to improve instruction (Knight, 2007). Schools are

increasingly using coaches for their professional development requirements, and

educators are recognizing the need of continuous assistance for all teachers. Knight

(2009) references this changing trend for the field of coaching, particularly in schools,

creating more of a need for instructional coaches. This quantitative data from this study

supports empathy as a crucial skill for use by instructional coaches

Research Question Two

Research question two addressed the selected participants' perceptions to changes

in their level of emotional intelligence (EI) as a result of the training. The four major

themes participants valued and learned were: (a) Increased Awareness; (b) Improved

Listening; (c) Expressing Empathy; and (d) Nonviolent Communication. All participants

referenced the themes of expressing empathy and EI in their interviews. All five of the

participants whose overall emotional quotient (EQ) declined after the training

intervention shared positive comments regarding the two themes of empathy and EI. Both

Zhanna (-) and Shannon (-) found the process of expressing empathy to be beneficial in

their teaching experiences.

Increased Awareness. As a primary component of coaching, the International

Coach Federation (ICF) and the International Association of Coaching (IAC) both

identify awareness as an essential coaching competency (Tschannen-Moran &

Tschannen-Moran, 2010). Participants connected awareness to their consciousness by

referencing the process as "joining up with people" meaning they recognized the

importance of coaching presence. They described this as setting the stage and laying the

groundwork for their coaching conversation. By fostering this learning and growth

process, awareness allowed them to take time before their meeting to center and ground

themselves in what was happening in the present moment, creating conscious awareness.

The more instructional coaches' focus on what teachers are doing well through the use of

conscious awareness, the better their coaching becomes.

Improved Listening. The participants shared listening as one of the main facets

impacted from the training as an instructional coach. "The most powerful way to evoke

coachable stories is to ask story questions and then to listen mindfully" (Tschannen-

Moran & Tschannen-Moran, 2010, p. 69). Participants shared mindful listening as the

exercise they remembered as having had the most impact. Participants shared that

mindful listening was difficult because they had to stop whatever else was going on and

just listen. The difficulty of just listening made the exercise memorable. Qualitative

results revealed that learning to listen better allowed them to put aside their own agenda

and focus on the other person completely.

Expressing Empathy. Expressing empathy became the component of the

intervention training model which connected the other themes on improved performance

as instructional coaches. By expressing empathy, participants increased their awareness

and understanding of the feelings and needs of the teachers they were coaching. They would practice authentic empathy, which is a no-fault understanding and appreciation of the other person's experience. Through authentic empathy, the participants were able to appreciate the experience of the other person and foster new possibilities for change. The richest and most moving stories to come from the participants revolved around empathy. When asked about the use of empathy in a coaching experience, the participant's talked longer about this topic than any other theme. By providing empathy through listening, respect, and appreciation, a connection empowered both the coach and the teacher.

Expressing empathy was a theme mentioned by all nine participants. Interestingly, all five participants with a decline in the overall EQ spoke of positive experiences relating to teacher experiences through expressing empathy. The researcher feels this constant theme reflects the training intervention focusing heavily on empathy training. By showing complete attention to the other person, participants shared they learned to see the value of authentic empathy. They shared that by opening up to the feelings and needs of the other person they could visually see the other person relaxing, trusting, growing, and changing.

Nonviolent Communication. The process called Nonviolent Communication (NVC) was revealed in the results as an area that the participants remembered the least. The model of NVC works with four distinctions consisting of observations, feelings, needs, and requests. The four participants that validated NVC as a tool for expressing empathy understood the use of the tool. They remembered NVC as a language used to distinguish and draw out the elements for fostering empathy. Rosenberg (2005) referred to NVC as easy to understand, but noted that people do not stick with it. Participants

shared that it is hard to not fall back into the trap of being judgmental and wanting to

evaluate instead of providing observations. Participants were able to remember

observations, feelings, and needs but were unable to remember the fourth stage of the

model, the requests stage, probably because it was not emphasized as strongly in the

training.

Of the five participants with a decline in overall EQ, only one mentioned NVC in

their interview. This lack of familiarity of the NVC process validates these participants

decline in EI. During the training intervention, the focus on NVC needs to be revisited

and its vocabulary stressed more throughout future sessions. In expressing empathy, it is

important to pause to savor that chance of the two people understanding and connecting

to each other. Finally, it seemed that although participants knew the stages of NVC, its

components, and how to use it, they were unfamiliar with the vocabulary to be able to

fully provide a complete response to the interview question.

Research Question Three

Research question three addressed the participants' perceptions of how the

training of the 20-hour intervention affected their practice as instructional leaders and

how they perceived their emotional intelligence (EI) affected their performance as an

administrator and/or teacher leader. The results indicated that participants welcomed a

framework for instructional coaching. It provided them with words to attach to processes,

procedures, and plans they were already using with their teachers. Several participants

noted that this intervention had changed the way of their approach, their tone, their

questioning techniques, and above all their listening techniques. The three emerging

themes from research question three are: (a) Emotional Intelligence; (b) Observational

Tools; and (c) Instructional Leadership. The results indicated that all of the participants felt EI affected their performance, describing it with such adjectives as tremendously, huge, and critical. Participants viewed EI as being important for their job performance and for their personal and professional growth.

Emotional Intelligence. All of the participants noted their EI in one subscale or another was improved. One participant felt that EI was all relational and your understanding of self and others is critical to all aspects of leading others to move forward. She went on to reference her awareness of how she represents herself and that without this awareness; the people she leads will not connect with her. With this increased awareness, she now has the ability to lead by building relationships containing empathy.

All five participants who declined in their overall emotional quotient (EQ) mentioned EI in their interview. Frances (-) referenced EI as being empathetic and not sympathetic. Michelle (-) also referenced the word empathy when she was talking about EI. Another participant, Autumn (-), talked about EI by commenting of its importance by moving forward by developing empathy. It may be that these participants felt EI and empathy were the same thing. This would not be surprising as the distinction between empathy and EI, even in the research literature, are somewhat obscure.

Observation Tools. The participants found the observation tools to be a valuable resource that instantly connected to their job. As instructional leaders, participants were used to doing evaluations but these templates provided a current research-based tool. Participants liked the observation tools because they provided raw data and the template was not judgmental. With the observation tools, participant's particularly liked focusing

on what is working well, building on that, and celebrating when they notice shining eyes and smiling faces. The participants found these tools to be helpful for transforming the evaluation processes into a process of valuation.

A strategic planning method well-known as SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats) uses a four-quadrant matrix to view internal/external dynamics on one axis and helpful/harmful dynamics on the other. This analysis walks individuals through a detailed choice of their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats. The hope is that through this process they benefit from their strengths, rise above their weaknesses, utilize opportunities, and lessen threats. Using the observation tools, coaches use SOAP (Strengths, Observations, Aspirations, and Possibilities) instead of SWOT. During the pre-observation, instructional coaches take the time to ask what is the best of what there is and to envision the best of what might be. By using the SOAP strategy, the observational tools focus on reframing and creating new realities, validating the entire cycle with awe of growth, joy of their job, and building of deep relationships. If used correctly, the observation tools generate a SOAP environment representing a better way to change. If the observation tools are used incorrectly, SWOT will occur. For example, if an instructional leader selected an observational tool and used it as the evaluator this teacher needed, and presented it to the teacher afterwards in a post-observation meeting, this would appear as a threat instead of a possibility for growth. Observational tools can enable design conversations leading to aspiring possibilities.

Four of the five participants who declined in their overall emotional quotient (EQ) responded with positive comments regarding the observation tools. These tools are a means of providing feedback which is not judgmental to the person receiving the

feedback. Two of the four participants with increases in their EQ referenced the observation tools. These two participants were individuals used to evaluating teachers and found the templates to be helpful for their job.

Instructional Leadership. The results showed the participants believed that their EI awareness resulted in their improved performance as instructional leaders. This increased awareness had not existed previously in their school environments. These critical differences emerged in their interpersonal strategies creating rapport with their fellow colleagues. From the EI pre and post assessment, participants saw in writing their own unique characteristics, observations, and possibilities for individual growth. This feedback provided with the EI assessment created a sometimes startling awareness of how they were perceived by others. This summary revealed to the participants how the basic skills of EI were important in collaboration, in teamwork, and in helping individuals learn how to work together more effectively. In conclusion, for instructional leaders to move forward, educational organizations would benefit from an increased awareness of collective EI.

Three of the five participants who declined in their overall emotional quotient (EQ) mentioned instructional leadership in a positive light. These three also commented on the observation tools in a positive manner. They connected the use of the tools with their own individual leadership needs as supervisors of teachers. It seems evident that instructional leaders are looking for tools to use for data collection which present a non-judgmental means for their teachers to grow. Participants found that this training intervention had provided useful resources for their EI, observational tools, and instructional leadership.

Implications

Implications for Practice

Goleman (1995) defined empathy as the foundation of emotional intelligence

(EI). An implication of this current research study is that attention can now focus on

developing empathy to produce sound leaders (Dosch & Wambsgamss, 2006),

individuals with capable soft skills (Wats & Wats, 2009), and individuals with

recognizable EI (Goleman, 2011;Kirch, Tucker, & Kirch, 2006). Stein and Book (2000)

made the claim that empathy can improve or one can improve EI by working on it. This

study further validates their claim.

Among the many varied definitions of empathy, as discussed in Chapter 2,

Tschannen-Moran and Tschannen-Moran (2010) defined empathy as "a respectful, no-

fault understanding and appreciation of someone's experience" (p. 21). Kohut (1984)

defined empathy as "the capacity to think and feel one-self into the inner life of another"

(p.81). Thwaites and Bennett-Levy (2007) described empathy as the ability to tune into

the emotions experienced and to derive meanings associated with emotion. Still most

definitions of empathy emphasize the cognitive or understanding of someone else's

perspective. Goleman (1995) concluded that people who are attuned to the needs or wants

of others are more empathetic. He also added "This makes them better at callings such as

the caring professions, teaching, sales, and management" (p. 43). Therefore, if an

individual wants to go into a career in education and their empathy level is low, this study

implies an individual's level of empathy can be increased or developed. The

nonvolunteers compared to the volunteers in this research study did not show as

significant of an increase. Furthermore, individuals could increase or develop their

individual empathy if they possessed the desire to actively participate in the training

intervention.

Development of Empathy

This study supports that the contention that empathy can be taught. Empathy did

increase through the training intervention consisting of assigned readings, homework,

interviews, dyads and triads during the sessions, audio and video taping, videos, lectures,

and other aspects of the training. This increased empathy implies that individuals can

identify with and understand other individuals' feelings, situations, and reasoning.

Empathy leads to respect and caring for each other. Empathy can be a means of success

in the workplace. Employers reported soft skills as being hard to teach to new employees;

therefore, educators should place more emphasis on this skill (Employers Value

Communication and Interpersonal Abilities, 2004).

Current credential requirements in education require teachers and administrators

to earn university degrees in content area expertise. Often the missing component from

these traditional requirements is the development of soft skills. With improved empathy,

consisting of the ability to think and feel oneself into the life of another, work

environments can become more effective and productive. The most likely implication of

these results regarding empathy is that leaders bear a primary responsibility for knowing

what they are feeling and hence, managing the influence that they have over others.

Being able to build relationships that inspire and motivate others may be one of the most

powerful techniques one can learn in becoming an effective leader. This process requires

a heightened empathy and EI level.

The Role of Empathy for Instructional Coaching

Knight's (2007) theoretical framework for instructional coaching incorporated seven principles consisting of equality, choice, voice, dialogue, reflection, praxis, and reciprocity. Within the equality principle, the teacher and instructional coach are equal partners; the instructional coach listens to understand, not to tell the teacher what should happen or what they should do. Empathy is a part of facilitating the principle of equality. Both self-empathy and empathy directed towards others ground an understanding of the feelings and underlying universal needs that drive behavior. With these seven principles undergirding the partnership approach, instructional coaches work with individual teachers helping them integrate research-based strategies into their instruction to ultimately improve instruction and student achievement. This study supports empathy as a crucial skill for instructional coaches and a principle needed for the coach and the person being coached distinguishing the equality principle.

The National Staff Development Council (NSDC, 2001) has asserted that professional development is imperative for enhancing teacher quality and improving student achievement. Professional development is a worthy and effective use of school funds (Baker & Showers, 1984; Brown et al.; 2006, Bush, 1984). This study supports the use of professional development funds for the development of empathy. According to the NSDC (2001), instructional coaching is effective professional development because it provides follow-up, incorporates diversity, supports, and encourages the use of collaboration. Instructional coaching is a useful vehicle for professional development (Poglinco & Bach, 2005). By using empathy as a technique for instructional coaching, both the coach and coachee, grow together in building a more productive relationship.

Hence, empathy is a crucial skill for instructional coaches to incorporate into schools professional development.

Since empathy is a crucial skill for instructional coaches and it can be taught, districts should require this skill to be a part of the role of instructional coaches with its employees and/or provide training in how to use the skills. If there are active and open communication defining the desired outcomes between teachers, coaches, and administrators, then the chances of instructional coaches being used inappropriately should be lessened

The Role of Empathy for School Leaders

School leaders often are unaware the effects emotional intelligence (EI) have on the individuals they lead. The educational leadership standards, presented by the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards for School Leaders, Standard Two states, "An educational leaders' promotes the success of every student by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth" (Educational Leadership Policy Standards, 2008, p.14). Learning Forward (2011) Standard Two references the need for schools to have educators equipped by well-prepared school-based professional development coaches, mentors, master teachers, or other teacher leaders. Thus, both the ISLLC standards and the Learning Forward standards emphasize the need for empathy.

Goleman (2011) lists six styles of leadership: affiliative, authoritative, coaching, coercive, democratic, and pacesetting. Of the many styles of leadership, Goleman suggests that coaching is the style practiced the least by leaders. Goleman stated, "Leaders who ignore this style are passing up a powerful tool: its impact on climate and

performance are markedly positive" (p. 670). This study supports that empathy is a crucial skill for instructional coaching and the need for school leaders to bolster their empathy skills through training. This is especially true for school leaders becoming aware that empathy can be developed or increased at its current level. A school leader can influence, through professional development, a more positive direction creating a work environment allowing people to work in teams and collaboratively within the organization. School leaders can increase their effectiveness by noticing the feelings of others, understanding these feelings, and recognizing that something needs to be done to change or affirm these feelings; thus creating a powerful effect on others in the school environment. Being able to build relationships that inspire and motivate others may be one of the most powerful techniques one can learn in becoming an effective leader. This process requires a heightened empathy and EI level.

Recommendations for Practice for School Leaders

The results of this study suggest empathy can be developed or improved through a training intervention. This study also suggests that overall emotional quotient (EQ) score and interpersonal composite score can improve after a training intervention, as well as motivation and social skills. Empathy is important today as a component of leadership, especially school leaders, as the most easily recognized.

Goleman (2011) claimed three reasons why empathy is important for the increasing use of teams, the rapid pace of globalization, and the growing need to retain talent. In schools, the growing need of teams exists in committees, grade-level teachers, teachers of the same content expertise, horizontal alignments, and alignment within organizations. Globalization is important in education for cross-cultural dialogues can easily lead to

misunderstandings. Empathy is beneficial to these situations. Finally, empathy plays a key role in the retention of talent in our school systems. When good teachers leave, they take the organization's knowledge with them. Thus, creating a need in education where the instructional coaching comes into place. The following are recommendations for future practice grow out of the findings of this study:

1. It is recommended that school leaders be attentive to their empathy level. School leaders with empathy are attuned to a wide range of emotional signals allowing them to sense existing emotions in others. Empathy helps leaders get along with people having diverse backgrounds or from a variety of cultures (Goleman, 2011).

2. Based on the positive responses of the participants in this research study, it is recommended that the observation tools be made available in a professional development resource guide for preparation of future administrators. Handled correctly, this method may prove beneficial for administrators, principals, and instructional coaches for encouraging the possibilities of student teachers, teachers with less than three years' experience, and veteran teachers who have conformed to previous methods of instruction. It is suggested that the staff members of the training intervention create a textbook using observation tools.

3. It is particularly important for administrators, principals, instructional coaches, and teachers to understand the significance of the findings of this research study. The finding that emotional intelligence (EI) can be improved through training is important and should be shared. Building a culture of change within any district or state wide organization requires widespread awareness of EI as an effective skill for educators.

4. The findings will aid administrators with utilizing instructional coaches to promote teacher growth. Instructional coaching has been found to increase teachers' willingness to try new practices and strategies (Knight, 2009). It is recommended coaching intervention and practices be considered as a criteria for future school leaders.

5. The single most important recommendation of this research is the consideration of the implementation for educators to place more of an emphasis on interpersonal skills, intrapersonal skills, and, most importantly, empathy. Educators need to understand why building relationships is important and how to go about this work. The analysis presented within this study described statistically significant results for overall total emotional quotient (EQ), the interpersonal composite scale, and three of the five subscales at the completion of a 20-hour training intervention. These findings are important and can be used as a launching point to be implemented for future and current educators.

Recommendations for Future Research

Goleman (2011) claims that leaders high in emotional intelligence (EI) are key to organizational success; leaders must have the capacity to sense the employees' feelings. Organizational awareness is a term shared by Goleman's model of emotional intelligence. Goleman (1998) defined organization awareness as the ability to read the emotions and political realities of groups in order to gain insight into group and organizational hierarchies. The elements of self-control, adaptability, and being aware are competencies described by three of the models of EI mentioned in Chapter 2. Mayer and Salovey (1997) referred to them as emotional understanding and management, Bar-On described them as intrapersonal components, and Goleman (2001) put these components in the self-awareness and self-

management categories. EPowerment model created by Justice (2010), which was used in

this study, also refers to self-regulation, self-awareness, and motivation comprising the

intrapersonal skills. Regardless of the emotional intelligence (EI) model used, it is

recommended more EI research and it's varied models be further examined to establish a

more universal, clear, and concise labeling of the components of EI. All of the above

mentioned researchers define and use varied definition of the terms.

One of the most controversial aspects of emotional intelligence (EI) is whether it

can be taught or developed. This study supports that empathy and EI can be taught.

Supporters of the development of EI, such as Goleman (2001), argue certain training

interventions can change individuals from pessimists to optimists in weeks.

The importance of this research is that the current body of knowledge provides

limited empirical research exploring the development of empathy. The training

intervention in this study supported the development of empathy and the improvement

of a person's overall emotional intelligence (EI). According to Groves, McEnrue, and

Shen (2008), researchers are enthusiastic regarding documenting the possibility of

improving EI and its development, but most of this information is anecdotal. The value

of this study provided statistically significant increases in total EQ, the interpersonal

composite score, motivation, empathy, and social skills subscales on the EQmentor

(Justice, 2010). Future research might explore why the self-awareness or self-regulation

subscales or intrapersonal composite score did not show the same improvement.

Empathy, through all of its definitions, is basically about feelings and needs.

Goleman (1998) described empathy as understanding others' feelings and taking their

perspective and respecting the differences. This includes focusing on relationships,

including the skill of being a good listener and the art of asking good questions. Goleman

(1998) described a list of Self Science curriculum as a model for teaching EI. He referred to this list as being "an almost point-for-point match with the ingredients of emotional intelligence" (Goleman, 1998, p. 268). This list includes self-awareness, personal decision-making, managing feelings, handling stress, empathy, communications, self-disclosure, insight, self-acceptance, personal responsibility, assertiveness, group dynamics, and conflict resolution. It is recommended that future research explore how to further clarify the distinctions between empathy and EI. It would add to the research of EI and coaching to explore the possibility of each component of EI as to their full impact on the total EQ.

The extent to which empathy and EI can be taught exist in this research study using the training intervention stated in the Logic Model. The following recommendations are presented regarding the teaching of empathy and EI:

1. The role of empathy and EI needs to be addressed for the students in the K-12 school system. Although substantial amounts of research exist on the role of EI, there is a lack of research examining EI and its effects on students, both academically and socially. There is a lack of literature surrounding the applicability of EI to the students in the K-12 school system. The examination of this relationship could be beneficial to the future of our students.

2. Although the use the EQmentor (Justice, 2010) was made available free of charge for the purpose of this research study, it would be beneficial to future research to find a comparable and inexpensive assessment to continue assessing the development of empathy and EI through various training intervention. With this comparison, program administrators could work on the length of the training and concentration of certain key aspects.

3. This research study focused on the measurable difference in the participants' EI, the participants' perception of the level of EI, and their perceived impact on their practice as instructional leaders. Future research needs to be applied to a different population of participants, different types of interventions, and different types of leaders.

4. It is recommended for future research to study the impact of Nonviolent Communication (NVC) on empathy and EI. Not all of the study participants remembered NVC, although this coaching model stressed heavily NVC as the model of empathy employed.

5. Responses from the volunteer participants compared to the nonvolunteers were not as strong in their growth in EI. The nonvolunteered participants went down in self-regulation meaning that their sense of control over their lives declined when they were told what to do. The participants who volunteered showed an increase in all subscales, both interpersonal and intrapersonal composite scores, and the overall emotional quotient (EQ) score. The only statistically significant change for the nonvolunteers was a decrease in the self-regulation subscale. It would add to the research of EI and coaching to explore each subscales of EI on participants who volunteer for a training program compared to those who were told to do this training as part of their job requirement.

Empathy for Instructional Coaching

In most school settings, administrators consider themselves the instructional leaders in the school building. A significant obstacle for the success of instructional coaches is the acceptance of their presence from the teachers and administrators. Knight

(2009) claimed that if the principal is considered the instructional leader, then the coaches' role is secondary; however, it could also be the other way around. The following are recommendations for research on empathy as pertaining to instructional coaching:

1. It is recommended that future research regarding the role of the administrator pertaining to the instructional coaches and their impact on the educational environment be further examined.

2. It is recommended that future research consider creating focus groups to generate new qualitative data referencing the impact of the training intervention on their practice as instructional leaders.

3. It is recommended that the researcher assess the status of implementation based upon the follow-up regarding recommended actions. This training intervention promises to help willing participants with their people skills, process skills, planning skills, and prototyping skills. The importance of this training intervention is the implementation of an evidence-based program that will provide a blueprint for how to improve and transform schools one conversation at a time. Assessing the status of implementation will assist for future training intervention for instructional coaches.

4. This study did not address the roles, responsibilities, or the daily routine of instructional coaches within the educational environment. These factors can influence instructional coaching and its impact. Clear roles and responsibilities of instructional coaching need to be developed, clearly defined, and timely documented to contribute to the literature of instructional coaching with these

factors in mind. There needs to be more empirical research on instructional

coaching's impact on the field of education.

5. It is recommended that additional research examine whether instructional

   coaching displays transformational leadership practices. The literature review

   described how transformational leadership and instructional coaching have similar

   positive influences on individuals and organizations (Goleman, 2011).

Conclusion

The findings for this study addressed the overarching research question: To what

extent is emotional intelligence as measured by EQmentor, of instructional coaches in

PK-12 schools increased as a result of participation in a 20-hour coach training program?

The results illustrated that empathy can be developed. It is important to note that in

quantitative results the overall emotional quotient (EQ) score showed a significant

increase. In addition, the interpersonal composite score and three of the subscales showed

statistically significance increase being those of motivation, empathy, and social skills.

This research study broadens the knowledge base on the development of empathy for

instructional coaches, administrators, and principals by providing information helpful to

instructional coaches for enhancing their effectiveness at assisting teachers to improve

instruction. Instructional coaches are emerging, providing improvement initiatives to

develop teacher practice and advance student achievement. Instructional coaches are

becoming an effective avenue for principals to provide professional development and

training for their staff. Instructional coaches that use empathy are more likely to foster

improvement in fostering relationships and improving teaching practice. The results from

this study demonstrate that empathy can be developed. In conclusion, my hope is that

these findings, implications, and recommendations can be helpful to future instructional

coaches who are dedicated to improving instructional coaching in our schools.

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Appendix A – Qualitative Participation Consent Form

Empathy as a Crucial Skill for Instructional Coaches: Can it be Taught?

I, _____agree to participate in an interview regarding my participation in the Evocative Coaching training program. I understand that the interview will follow the 20-hour session Evocative Coaching Model training. I understand that the researcher is conducting the interviews as part of a doctoral dissertation at the College of William and Mary. During the interviews, I will be asked questions regarding my perceptions of the impact of the training on my practice as an instructional leader and changes perceived on my level of emotional literacy as a result of the Evocative Coaching Model training.

I have been informed that any information obtained in this study will be held confidential, and that a pseudonym will be used to conceal my identity. At the conclusion of this study, the key linking me with the pseudonym will be destroyed. I also acknowledge that individual discussions with the interviewer will be audio taped to ensure accuracy of the information presented and audio files will be stored on the interviewer's computer. The computer is password protected, and will be with the researcher or in a locked office at all times. After transcribing the interview, the recording will be erased. All efforts will be made to conceal my identity in the study's report of results.

I will be supplied with summaries of the information generated during the interviews to read and review to check for accuracy. I also understand that as a benefit, I will receive access to a copy of the final product to further my understanding of the topic and to understand others' perspectives. This will also help others understand the impact of emotional literacy as a result of the Evocative Coaching Model training. Because the questions regarding my experiences and perceptions of my personal emotional literacy, there may be some minimal psychological discomfort involved with this research. I understand that I do not have to answer every question asked of me, and I am free to withdraw my consent and discontinue participation in this study at any time.

If I have any questions that arise in connection with my participation in this study, I should contact Dr. Megan Tschannen-Moran, dissertation chair and professor, at 757-221- 2187 or mxtsch@wm.edu. I understand that I may report any problems or dissatisfactions to Thomas Ward, Ph.D., chair of the School of Education Internal Review Committee at (757) 221-2358 or tjward@wm.edu. or Dr. Michael Deschenes, the chair of the Protection of Human Subjects Committee at the College of William and Mary at 757-221-2778 or mrdesc@wm.edu. My signature below signifies that I am at least 18 years of age, that I have received a copy of this consent form, and that I consent to the conditions outlined above.

_____ Participant _____Date

Appendix B- The TTI EQmentor Assessment

Emotional Intelligence Assessment

The following pages include questions designed to assess your level of emotional intelligence.

Instructions: The following pages list phrases describing human behaviors. Please use the rating scale below to determine the most accurate description of yourself. Describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you honestly see yourself, in relation to other people you know of the same gender, and roughly your same age. EQmentor will keep the results of your assessment confidential. Please fill out this assessment in its entirety, since partially completed assessments cannot be saved. Thank you.

First Name

Last Name

E-mail Address

Emotional Intelligence Assessment

Instructions: Please use the rating scale below to determine the most accurate description of yourself. Describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you honestly see yourself, in relation to other people you know of the same gender, and roughly your same age.

	Very Inaccurate	Somewhat Inaccurate	Neither Inaccurate Or Accurate	Somewhat Accurate	Very Accurate
1.I believe anything worth doing is worth doing well					
2.I feel sympathy for those who are worse off than myself					
3.I find it easy to establish common ground with somebody I have just met					
4.I am calm even in tense situations					
5.I know I can find a solution to even the most difficult problem					
6.I am good at reading what other people are feeling					
7.When a crisis arises, I know whom to turn to for help					
8.I am not easily disturbed by events					
9.I am confident in my ability to identify a job that I would enjoy					
10.I seek out innovative ways of getting the job done					
11.Some movies contain more emotional content than others					

Instructions: Please use the rating scale below to determine the most accurate description of yourself. Describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you honestly see yourself, in relations to other people you know of the same gender, and roughly your same age.

	Very Inaccurate	Somewhat Inaccurate	Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate	Somewhat Accurate	Very Accurate
12.I raise my voice when I'm angry					
13. I rarely notice my emotional reactions.					
14. I have difficulty identifying the feelings I experience					
15. I often make impulsive decisions.					
16. It is awkward when someone expresses a lot of emotion					
17. Adverse events impact the remainder of my day					
18. I would not work if I won the lottery					
19.I am unable to control my emotions					
20. It is difficult to focus my attention on a single task.					

Instructions: Please use the rating scale below to determine the most accurate description of yourself. Describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you honestly see yourself, in relation to other people you know of the same gender, and roughly your same age.

	Very Inaccurate	Somewhat Inaccurate	Neither Inaccurate Nor Accurate	Somewhat Accurate	Very Accurate
21. I have a wide circle of acquaintances.					
22. I consider all of the options when making an important decision.					
23. Receiving feedback presents opportunity for personal growth.					
24. I can sense someone's true feelings based on their body language.					
25. When deciding between two equally logical options, I go with my gut.					
26. When I know what I want, I go after it.					
27. Nonverbal messages, such as tone of voice, gestures, and facial expressions say a lot about how someone else is feeling.					
28. The emotional tone of an interaction is easy to decipher.					
29. When in a bad mood, I make a conscious effort to improve it.					
30. I rely on my intuition to assist me in my decision-making.					
31. After a failure, I bounce back with enthusiasm.					
32. People perceive me as charming.					
33. I can name my greatest strengths.					

Instructions: Please use the rating scale below to determine the most accurate description of yourself. Describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you honestly see yourself, in relations to other people you know of the same gender, and roughly your same age.

	Very Inaccurate	Somewhat Inaccurate	Neither Inaccurate Nor Accurate	Somewhat Accurate	Very Accurate
34. I do not let setbacks stand in the way of my dreams.					
35. It is easy to tell when someone is being sarcastic.					
36. Friends come to me for consolation when they are upset.					
37. I can suppress distressing emotions when necessary.					
38. I can tell when I am over committed on my workload.					
39. I view difficult tasks as a challenge.					
40. I sympathize with the homeless.					
41. I am persuasive.					
42. I am willing to forego immediate gratification when on a budget.					
43. I would make a great therapist.					
44. I constantly look for opportunities to build relationships.					
45. I am not one to panic during emergencies.					
46. I am usually aware of the way that I am feeling.					
47. My performance anxiety is motivating rather than debilitating.					
48. I am good with children.					
49. I am good at influencing others.					

Instructions: Please use the rating scale below to determine the most accurate description of yourself. Describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you honestly see yourself, in relation to other people you know of the same gender, and roughly your same age.

	Very Inaccurate	Somewhat Inaccurate	Neither Inaccurate Nor Accurate	Somewhat Accurate	Very Accurate
50. I can anticipate my emotional reactions to events.					
51. I am willing to forego immediate gratification in pursuit of a goal.					
52. I am highly sensitive to the emotional state of others.					
53. People perceive me as a good negotiator					
54. I am willing to forego immediate gratification when on a diet.					
55. I can name my greatest weaknesses.					
56. When interacting with someone, I pause to think how he or she may be feeling.					
57. I excel in a collaborative environment.					

We need your demographic information for research purposes and the continued development and improvement of this measure. All information will be kept confidential. Thank you.

What is your gender?
_____Female
_____Male

What is your age?

_____under 20
_____21-25
_____26-30
_____31-35
_____36-40
_____41-45
_____46-50
_____51-55
_____56-60
_____61-65
_____66-70
_____71-75
_____76-80
_____81+

What is your race?
_____Caucasian
_____African American
_____Hispanic
_____Other (Specify)

Appendix C - Interview Protocol

Interview Protocol
Empathy as a Crucial Skill for Instructional Coaches: Can it be Taught?

1. What do you perceive to have been the impact of the training using the Evocative Coaching Model on your practice as an instructional leader? Tell me about how this has been evident.

2. What do you perceive to have been the impact of the training in the Evocative Coaching Model on your ability to recognize and manage your own emotions?

3. What do you perceive to have been the impact of the training in the Evocative Coaching Model on your ability to recognize and relate to the emotions of others?

4. To what extent are you using the four Nonviolent Communications (NVC) distinctions in your communications and what impact, if any, do you see this as having?

5. What has been your best experience of expressing empathy in a coaching or leadership situation, a time when you noticed that empathy was making a positive and constructive contribution to the quality of connection and the results achieved? Tell the story in detail.

6. How do you perceive that your emotional intelligence affects your performance as an administrator and/or teacher leader?

7. In what ways did your score on the EQmentor for the pre and post assessment align with your perceptions of yourself and in what ways did it differ? How do you feel about your score and what, if anything, would you like to change?

8. How has the Evocative Coaching model changed your relationships professionally? What might be an example?

9. Have you found the Evocative Coaching model impacting other aspects of your life? Personally? What might be an example?