

Lindenwood University

Digital Commons@Lindenwood University

Dissertations

Theses & Dissertations

Spring 5-2009

Personality Traits of Bus Drivers conducive to maintaining good student behavior

S. Brent Depee'
Lindenwood University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.lindenwood.edu/dissertations>



Part of the [Educational Assessment, Evaluation, and Research Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Depee', S. Brent, "Personality Traits of Bus Drivers conducive to maintaining good student behavior" (2009). *Dissertations*. 546.
<https://digitalcommons.lindenwood.edu/dissertations/546>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Theses & Dissertations at Digital Commons@Lindenwood University. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Digital Commons@Lindenwood University. For more information, please contact phuffman@lindenwood.edu.

Running head: PERSONALITY TRAITS OF BUS DRIVERS

Personality Traits of Bus Drivers conducive to maintaining
good student behavior

S. Brent Depee'

May, 2009

A dissertation submitted to the Education Faculty of
Lindenwood University in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the
degree of
Doctor of Education
School of Education

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I do hereby declare and attest to the fact that this is an original study based solely upon my own scholarly work here at Lindenwood University and that I have not submitted it for any other college or university course or degree here or elsewhere.

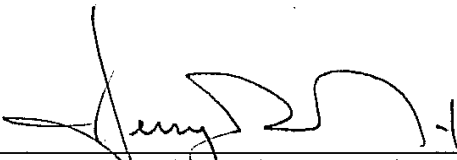
Full Legal Name: S. Brent Depee'

Signature: S. Brent Depee' Date: July 21, 2009

PERSONALITY TRAITS OF BUS DRIVERS CONDUCTIVE TO MAINTAINING
GOOD STUDENT BEHAVIOR

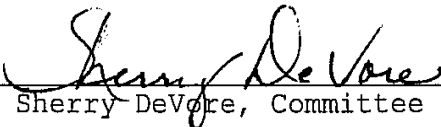
S. Brent Depee'

This dissertation has been approved as partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the
degree of
Doctor of Education
at Lindenwood University by the School of Education




Dr. Terry Reid, Dissertation Chair

July 21, 2009
Date



Dr. Sherry DeVore, Committee Member

July 21, 2009
Date



Dr. Howard Neeley, Committee Member

July 21, 2009
Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Thanks to the following people for their unconditional love and support that they have shown me through this journey in my life. I first want to thank my wife, Whitney, for all the sacrifices she made while I have attempted to further my education. I want to thank my children, Mackenzie, Dalton, and Dayne for understanding why I was gone so much from home. I want to thank my parents, Kent and Donna, for their continued support and for the example they both set for my brother, sister, and me. I am forever grateful to them for being such good role models and emphasizing the importance of God, family, and education. I want to especially thank my mother for paving the way for my life in education and my sister-in-law, Sherry, for her help in this study.

This study is a continuation of my specialist project that was completed at Southwest Baptist University in 2006. I want to give special thanks to Dr. Robert Perry for his help with the statistical aspects of this study.

ABSTRACT

School administrators are faced with the responsibility of disciplining students for misconduct on the school bus. Some bus drivers frequently send discipline referrals to the administration, whereas others seldom do. This study attempts to identify certain personality traits of bus drivers that contribute to good student behaviors. Bus drivers from rural Missouri school districts who drove regular school routes were given the Global 5 Personality Trait Test. Building principals from these rural school districts gathered bus discipline referrals for the first semester of the 2008-2009 school year. The research design is quantitative causal-comparative in nature, while the data was collected and analyzed with the use of multiple t-tests and the Pearson *r*. No significant differences between the personality traits of drivers with numerous discipline referrals were found compared to the drivers with minimal bus discipline referrals.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES.....x

CHAPTER ONE-INTRODUCTION.....1

 Background of the Problem.....1

 Theoretical Underpinnings.....2

 Statement of the Problem.....4

 Rationale for the Study.....5

 Independent Variables.....7

 Dependent Variables.....7

 Statement of Hypothesis.....7

 Null hypothesis.....7

 Alternative hypothesis.....8

 Limitations.....8

 Delimitations.....9

 Summary.....10

CHAPTER TWO - REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....11

 Background of the Study.....11

 Review of Literature.....11

 Historical aspects of Personality Trait Tests...12

 Carl Jung.....12

 Myers-Briggs.....13

 Francis Galton.....14

 Alfred Binet.....16

Raymond Cattell.....	19
Hans Eysenck.....	23
Gordon Allport.....	24
Big Five Personality Trait Test.....	26
Personnel and Discipline.....	32
Personality Traits and Student Behavior.....	37
Personality Traits and Decision Making.....	38
Personality Traits and Job Performances.....	42
Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance.....	47
Personality and Stressful Situations.....	62
Requirements of Bus Drivers.....	65
What are the Experts looking for?.....	67
Summary.....	69
CHAPTER THREE - METHODOLOGY.....	72
Introduction.....	72
Subjects.....	74
Sampling Procedure.....	75
Research Setting.....	76
Research Design.....	85
Instrumentation.....	86
Validity of Instrument.....	87
Reliability of the Instrumentation.....	87
Validity of the Study.....	87

Reliability of the Study.....	88
Statistical Treatment of the Data.....	88
Rationale for Selected Statistical Treatment.....	88
Explanation of Data Treatment for Variables.....	88
Summary.....	89
CHAPTER FOUR - RESULTS.....	90
Introduction.....	90
Results.....	90
Analysis of Data.....	96
Deductive Conclusions.....	96
Null hypothesis.....	96
Alternative hypothesis.....	97
Summary.....	97
CHAPTER FIVE - DISCUSSION.....	98
Introduction.....	98
Implications for Schools.....	99
Recommendations.....	100
Summary.....	101
REFERENCES.....	103
VITA.....	128

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Big Five Theory Dimension.....29

Table 2. *Student Ethnic Composition*.....76

Table 3. *Student Characteristics*.....78

Table 4. *Where Graduates Go*.....79

Table 5. *Expenditures per child and ACT Scores*.....80

Table 6. *Population Basis*.....81

Table 7. *Workforce by Occupation*.....82

Table 8. *Family measures of income*.....82

Table 9. *Poverty*.....83

Table 10. *Descriptive Statistics for driver referrals*.....90

Table 11. *Drivers two or more SD from the mean*.....93

Table 12. *Drivers one SD from mean*.....93

Table 13. *t-test ($p>.05$) for the Global 5*.....94

Table 14. *Crosstabs comparing referrals to traits*.....95

CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION

Background

School administrators are faced with the responsibility of disciplining students for misconduct on the school bus. Many school districts have more student discipline referrals from bus drivers than desired. Good bus drivers, ones who can effectively maintain good student behavior, are difficult to find. This study examined the personality traits of bus drivers that are conducive to maintaining good student behavior. This information may be useful in finding personnel who possess personality traits that enable them to deal with student behavior more effectively.

Personality trait testing research began in the early 1920's, by attempting to identify individuals' unique strengths and weaknesses (Bain, 2004). Personality trait tests help people recognize their inclinations towards making decisions and how they perceive and react to the world around them (Bain). This project attempts to explore

the relationship between bus drivers with certain personality traits and their ability or inability to manage good student behavior.

Conceptual Underpinnings

When choosing a career, career personality tests are used every day. Personality-based employee selection tests have become increasingly popular since the 1960's (Harvey, Murry, & Markham, 1995), and are being used more frequently to screen potential employees (Salter, 2002). Personality assessments have been demonstrated to be useful for explaining and predicting attitudes, behaviors, performance, and outcomes in organizational settings (Ones, Dilchert, Viswesvaran, & Judge, 2007). Companies such as Edward Jones use personality assessments to help identify employees who would fit best with certain job roles and environments (Weinstein, 2008). Many organizations use personality assessments as part of the hiring process to increase employee retention, reduce turnover, reduce recruitment and training costs, to help make fair hiring decisions, and to build productive, competitive workforces (Baute, 2009). The Big Five reflects a common pattern of five independent personality elements found by numerous

personality researchers over the last fifty years when scientifically looking at data from personality self-description and peer descriptions in multiple cultures (Flynn, 2006).

The Big Five trait test is currently the most accepted comprehensive empirical or data-driven inquiry into the personality model in the scientific community (Howard, P., & Howard, J., 2004). The Big Five has been used to determine sales performance (Barrick, Stewart, & Piotrowski, 2002), job satisfaction (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002), deviant behavior in the workplace (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004), absence in the workplace (Judge, Martocchio, & Thoresen, 1997), and traits for personnel selection (Schmidt & Ryan, as cited in Neubert, 2004).

The Big Five is used in this study, because this particular personality trait test is thought by some to be universal across cultures (McCrae & John, 1992; Paunonen, 1998). The Big Five's structure of personality contains five distinct dimensions: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience (Howard, P., & Howard, J., 2001). Each dimension

contains two profiles or opposites. The following are examples given by Flynn (2006). The personality trait of an extravert would be either social or reserved. The person with the agreeableness trait would be either accommodating or egocentric. As for those with the conscientiousness trait, they are either organized or unstructured. Those with the emotional stability trait would be either limbic or calm. Those having an openness to experience trait would be either non-curious or inquisitive (Flynn).

In this study the Global Five test was used because of its brevity as compared to the Big Five Factor test. Like the Big Five, the Global Five is based upon the same five dimensions of personality: extroversion, orderliness, emotional stability, accommodation, and intellectual curiosity.

Statement of the Problem

School administrators are searching to hire school bus drivers with the physical skills and personality to be successful and safe, and with the ability to maintain appropriate student discipline. Screening tools are extremely valuable for identifying potential bus driving candidates that can and will become successful (Baute,

2009). Drivers that are ineffective at managing student behavior create more work for building principals. "When serious student behavior problems persist on the bus, building principals are plagued by discipline reports and parent complaints" (Pupil Transportation Safety Institute, 2006). Administrators with ineffective drivers are forced to spend more time investigating and dealing with inappropriate student behaviors on the bus, instead of focusing on student achievement and teacher pedagogy.

Rationale for the Study

The rationale for this study is to determine if a specific personality trait or combination of traits is more desirable or prevalent in bus drivers who are able to solicit good student behavior. The question becomes one of how bus drivers with certain personality traits maintain good student behavior.

Bus drivers who cannot effectively manage student behavior put the welfare of all student riders at risk. The potential cost of lives is too great for school districts to incur by hiring ineffective drivers; therefore, this study explores the difference between adults who handle student misbehavior effectively and those who do not.

During the forty-four school days in October and November of 2004 there were six thousand and thirty-six school bus accidents in the United States (Freed, 2008). School buses make up only 17% of all registered vehicles and are on the road only one hundred and eighty days a year, but they account for 33% of all traffic fatalities according to the National Coalition for School Bus Safety (Freed). According to the National Traffic Safety Administration (NSTA), an average of one hundred and thirty-five people die annually in school transportation related crashes, including an average of twenty-two school-age children fatalities per year (Carnahan, 2005). On August 15th, 2005, Governor Matt Blunt created the first Missouri School Bus Safety Task Force to develop strategies for improving school bus safety (Carnahan).

Adults working for public education school districts come in contact with students and are faced with student misbehavior. Each adult handles student misbehavior differently. Many teachers handle student misbehavior ineffectively because they are inconsistent (Charles, 2002a). Many bus drivers are ineffective because they lack poor social judgment, work ethic, conscientiousness, and

self confidence (Baute, 2009). This study explores the difference between the adults who could handle student misbehavior effectively and those who could not. Additional components examined are factors that affected a person's ability to effectively handle student misbehavior, the amount of training or education a person has received, age, gender, and the person's personality.

Independent Variables

The independent variable consists of five different personality traits exhibited by school bus drivers of rural Missouri school districts, totaling one hundred and seven bus drivers.

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable is the number of discipline referrals the bus drivers sent to the building administrators.

Statement of Hypothesis

Null Hypothesis

There is no relationship between personality traits of school bus drivers in rural Missouri school districts and the number of student behavior referrals sent to building administration.

Alternative Hypothesis

There is a relationship between personality traits of school bus drivers and the number of student behavior referrals sent to building administration.

Limitations

There are several limitations that may affect the outcome of this study.

1. The variance in bus routes.
2. Differences in the students transported.
3. Some districts transport more at-risk, special education and socioeconomically disadvantaged students.
4. The length of time the students ride the bus.
5. The number of students on each bus.
6. Individual differences in school district policy pertaining to discipline.
7. Individual differences in the administration's tolerance or lack of tolerance towards inappropriate student behavior.
8. Individual differences in bus driver tolerance or lack of tolerance towards inappropriate student behavior.
9. Bus driver inconsistencies in adhering or continually enforcing the same set of safety rules.

10. Some school districts may have more or less stringent bus rules than others.

11. Some districts have one person who handles all of the bus discipline, whereas other schools have different people handling the discipline.

12. Some districts own, operate, and employ all busses and drivers, whereas other districts contract these services with private bus companies.

13. Overall differences of each school, community, and parental expectations of their students' behavior.

Delimitations

There are several delimitations that may affect the outcome of this study.

1. This study used one hundred and seven regular school bus drivers in rural Missouri School Districts.

2. No handicap, vocational, early childhood, or extracurricular route drivers were chosen to take part in this study.

3. Only one personality trait measure was used.

4. Discipline referrals for the fall semester of the 2008-2009 school year were used.

Summary

Bus drivers maintaining good student behavior while driving are able to transport students more safely than drivers who do not. Drivers maintaining good discipline should make students feel safer. Research suggests students who feel safe are more inclined to have academic success (Price, 2002).

Numerous studies have been performed on personality traits (Almeida, 1995; Bozionelos, 2004; Howard, J., & Howard, P., 2004); however, there is a void in the literature pertaining to personality traits and their relationship to managing student behavior.

Chapter Two reviews the personality trait research literature relating to the study of bus drivers maintaining good student behavior. Chapter Three details the methodology utilized in this study and Chapter Four examines the results of the data. The final chapter examines the variables that may have influenced the outcome of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Background of the Study

To understand the complexity of the study of personality traits, the material regarding the history and pioneers of personality trait testing were examined. The three founders that shaped the science of personality traits were Carl Jung, Sir Francis Galton, and Alfred Binet (Flynn, 2006). Their early research sparked interest from others in identifying differences in personality. Isabell Briggs Myers, Raymond Cattell, Hans Eysenck, and Gordon Allport were important scientists who had a profound impact on the study of personality.

There are a multitude of personality trait tests and many different uses for these tests. Many different faces have added to the study of personality. Carl Jung, Isabell Briggs Myers, Sir Francis Galton, Alfred Binet, Raymond Cattell, Hans Eysenck, and Gordon Allport have all made major contributions to the field of personality trait testing. A closer look at the test chosen, definitions of traits, characteristics of good and bad teachers, how

personality traits affect job performance and decision making, the importance of emotional intelligence when dealing with people, and how personality is affected during stressful situations were explored. This study investigates the requirements of Missouri school bus drivers and what employers look for in potential candidates when hiring. Additional studies were examined that helped establish the direction of this research.

Review of Literature

Historical aspects of Personality Trait Testing

In order to understand personality traits, the functions of the brain must be explored. Three individuals laid the foundation for the most current personality trait testing.

Carl Jung

Carl Jung (1875-1961), was a Swiss psychiatrist who was the founder of analytical psychology. He was born a minister's son in Switzerland and studied medicine at the University of Basel from 1895 to 1900. Jung used Freud's psychoanalytical theories early in his career. They met in 1907 and became close friends (Boeree, 2006). Carl Jung was considered Freud's heir apparent before he split with his

mentor in 1914 after disagreements over the nature of the unconscious mind (Morris, 2004). In 1921, Jung published the book *Psychological Types* that categorized people into primary types of psychological function (Boeree). Carl Jung used the terms *introvert* and *extrovert* to classify people. He defined introverts as those who depend mainly on themselves to satisfy their needs, while extroverts seek out the company of others for personal fulfillment (Boeree). Carl Jung also identified sensing, or using one's senses; intuiting, or using one's intuition; thinking or evaluating ideas logically; and feeling, or evaluating ideas by one's emotions (Boeree).

Isabell Briggs Myers

One of the most popular personality tests in use today, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), was developed in the 1940's to measure Jung's functions (Morris). The creators of the MBTI were Isabell Briggs Myers and her mother Katherine Cook Briggs. Both women had been perceptive observers of human behavior, but it was not until they were drawn to Jung's book *Psychological Types* that their interest changed to a passionate devotion to put the theory of psychological type into practical use. When

World War II began, Isabel sought a way to help people by finding a means for them to understand one another, rather than to destroy each other. She noticed many people were taking jobs out of patriotism but hating the tasks that did not utilize their gifts. She decided it was time to put Jung's ideas about personality types to practical use (Center for Applications of Psychological Type, 2008).

After several years of adding her own observations, she began creating a paper-and-pencil questionnaire to assess types. The MBTI instrument was developed over the next three decades as research was collected from thousands of people. According to the Psychologists Press, Inc., the MBTI is the most widely used personality inventory in history, as reported by Carroll (2005).

Francis Galton

Francis Galton lived the majority of his life during the 19th century (Jolly, 2005). Half-cousins of Charles Darwin, the Galtons were famous and highly successful Quaker gun-manufacturers and bankers, while the Darwins were distinguished in medicine and science (Bulmer, 2003). Galton grew up a child prodigy, reading by the age of two. At age five, he knew some Greek, Latin, and long division.

At age six, he was reading adult books, including Shakespeare for pleasure, and poetry, which he quoted at length (Bulmer).

After attending numerous schools, having a severe nervous breakdown and experiencing the death of his father in 1844, Galton spent the next several years traveling through Eastern Europe, Egypt, and Africa (Bulmer). His experience while traveling and his reading of Darwin's *The Origin of the Species* prompted his study of heredity, from which the field of gifted education developed (O'Donnell, 1985). After the publication of *The Origin of the Species* in 1859 by his cousin Charles Darwin, he devoted much of the rest of his life to exploring variation in human populations and its implications (Gillham, 2001).

In 1865, Galton began to gather evidence regarding adults recognized as having notably contributed to the fields of art, science, politics, and scholarship (Jolly, 2005). He studied these facts with a view to determine degrees of eminence, the frequency of persons in various degrees, and why some persons become eminent while others do not (Hollingsworth, 1926). His conclusion pertained to degrees of eminence, frequency of notable contributions,

family demographics, and the general laws of distribution that pertained to notable achievements (Jolly).

Francis Galton was the first to place the study of genius on the basis of a quantitative statement, so that comparisons might be made and verifications are effected (Jolly 2005, p. 2). Galton applied for the first time in human thought the mathematical concepts of probability to the definition of genius (Hollingworth 1942, p. 5). In the late 1860's, he "conceived the standard deviation and invented the use of the regression line" (Bulmer 2003, p. 184). With the use of these statistical methods, he was the first to introduce and use questionnaires and surveys for the collection of data on human communities which he used for genealogical and biographical works and for his anthropometric studies (Bulmer).

Alfred Binet

Forty years after Galton's book *Heredity of Genius*, Alfred Binet became the first to operationalize a series of tests for the purpose of classifying children according to intelligence (Hollingsworth, 1926). Born in Nice, France, Binet's lived from 1857 to 1911. He was a French psychologist and the inventor of the first usable

intelligence test, the basis of today's IQ test. Binet's father was a physician and his mother was an artist. He attended law school and earned his degree in 1878. He had planned to go to medical school, but after reading books by Charles Darwin decided psychology was more important (Foschi & Cicciola, 2006).

Binet began working as a researcher in a neurological hospital in Paris in 1883 and by 1894 was the director of the Laboratory of Experimental Psychology at The Sorbonne in Paris, France. In 1904, the French government appointed a commission on the education of retarded children. The commission was asked to create a mechanism for identifying students in need of alternative education. With the help of Theodore Simon, the two devised the first intelligence test (Plucker, 2003). The test was originally intended for students from ages three to fifteen. They studied normal and mentally challenged children to identify levels of tasks that were considered achievable by certain age groups. For the practical use of determining educational placement, the score on the Binet-Simon scale would reveal the child's mental age. For example, a six year-old child who passed all the tasks usually passed by six year-olds -

but nothing beyond - would have a mental age that exactly matched his chronological age, 6.0 (Fancher, 1985).

Although Binet's tests were originally intended to identify those children deemed feebleminded, Hollingsworth and other psychologists understood the merit such tests had for the selection of gifted children (Jolly, 2005). Over the years Binet's Intelligence Scale has been revised and adapted for different uses. More than once Binet stated that he considered his Intelligence Scale not as a finished product but as only a point of departure for something better (Terman, 1917).

The revision of the Binet-Simon by Terman from 1911 to 1916 was markedly different from the original version (Jolly). The revision was not just a translation but a collection of comprehensive norming data that extended to both the lower and upper age ranges, established uniform procedures for administration and scoring, and provided newly developed test items (Jolly). The Stanford-Binet, the most widely used measurement of intelligence in children, published in 1916, would not be revised for another 20 years (Chapman, 1988; Minton, 1988).

Raymond Cattell

Raymond Cattell was born in England in 1905. The son of a mechanical engineer, he distinguished himself in high school and earned a scholarship to London University. Originally drawn to the field of chemistry, he decided to pursue the study of psychology after viewing all of the political and economic problems created by World War I (Berg, Child, & Dreger, 2007). While working towards his doctorate in psychology with Charles Spearman, Cattell became involved in creating the new method of factor analysis of intelligence (Berg et al. 2007). In 1937, he accepted an invitation to join E.L. Thorndike's research staff at Columbia University. It was at this point in his career that he worked with supporters of the multiple-factor theory of intelligence and developed his own theory of intelligence (Cattell & Horn, 2008). In 1941, he was invited by Gordon Allport to join the Harvard faculty. During this time, he developed the idea of the new factor-analytic method that was so productive in studying abilities that it also proved beneficial in understanding the complex areas of personality.

Cattell worked in the Adjutant General's office, where he devised psychological tests for the military, in addition to his teaching duties at Harvard, (Berg et al. 2007). These tests were used in the selection process of military officers.

In 1945 he accepted a research professorship with the University of Illinois. With the help of the world's first electronic computer, the Illiac 1, Cattell was able to produce large-scale analysis of personality traits (Cattell & Horn, 2008).

Cattell retired from the University of Illinois in 1973 and after five years in Colorado moved to Hawaii. There he accepted a part-time position at the University of Hawaii, where he continued to teach, conduct research, and write.

Cattell is best known for the creation of the Sixteen Personality Factor questionnaire (16PF), which was first published in 1949 (Cattell & Schuerger, 2003). With the help of many colleagues, he was able to develop tests and questionnaires focusing on personality characteristics. During this time, he was able to apply new statistical techniques that could analyze data ranging from student

report cards to evaluations from employees. From his research, he was able to determine that all people to some degree fall under a 16 trait continuum. The key to assessment of personality is to determine where on the continuum an individual falls. Following are Cattell's 16 personality factors as cited by Heffner (2002, p. 2):

Abstractedness	imaginative versus practical
Apprehension	insecure versus complacent
Dominance	aggressive versus passive
Emotional Stability	calm and stable versus passive
Liveliness	enthusiastic versus serious
Openness to Change	liberal versus traditional
Perfectionism	compulsive and controlled versus indifferent
Privateness	pretentious versus unpretentious
Reasoning	abstract versus concrete
Rule consciousness	moralistic versus free-thinking
Self-Reliance	leader versus follower
Sensitivity	sensitive versus tough-minded
Social Boldness	uninhibited versus timid
Tension	driven and tense versus relaxed and easy going

Vigilance	suspicious versus accepting
Warmth	open and warmhearted versus aloof and critical

After discovering these 16 primary factors, Cattell deduced that there might be additional higher level factors within a personality that would provide structure for many primary traits. Then he analyzed the primary 16 traits themselves. He found five "second-order" or global factors, now commonly known as the Big Five (Cattell, R. B., & Catta, H. E., 1995). Research on the basic 16 traits is useful in understanding and predicting a wide range of real life behaviors (Cattell, H. B., 1989). Cattell's work on personality traits has been used in educational settings to study and predict such things as achievement motivation, learning style or cognitive style, creativity, and compatible career choices (Cattell R.B., & Cattell H. E., 1995). In the realm of work or employment settings, his work has helped predict such things as leadership style, interpersonal skills, conscientiousness, stress-management, and accident-proneness (Cattell R.B. & Cattell H.E.). In medical settings, his work has helped predict one's proneness to heart attacks, pain management, likely

compliance with medical instructions, or recovery patterns from burns or organ transplants (Cattell, H. B., 1989). In clinical and research settings, it has been a determining factor when predicting self-esteem, interpersonal needs, frustration tolerance, and openness to change, aggression, conformity, and authoritarianism (Cattell, Eber, & Tatsuoka, 1970).

Hans Eysenck

Hans Eysenck was born 1916 in Berlin, Germany. His parents were German film and stage celebrities. According to Eysenck in *Rebel with a Cause* (1997), he was able to escape the Nazi party and move to England in 1930. In 1940, he completed his doctorate in psychology, and from 1942 to 1945 he was a research psychologist at Mills Hill Emergency Hospital, in London England. In 1945 he moved to Maudsley Hospital's Institute of Psychiatry to serve as a psychologist. By 1950 he became a leader in psychology and the director of the psychology department of the Institute of Psychiatry, University of London. In 1955 he was named Professor of Psychology, a position he held until his retirement (Eysenck).

Eysenck was one of the major contributors, but a non-conformist to the modern scientific theory of personality (Wiggins, 1996). He played a crucial role in the establishment of behavioral treatments of mental disorders. Eysenck was one of the first psychologists to study personality with the method of factor analysis, a statistical technique introduced by Charles Spearman (Wiggins). Eysenck's results suggested two main personality factors. The first factor was the tendency to experience negative emotions, and Eysenck referred to it as neuroticism. The second factor was the tendency to enjoy positive events, especially social events, and Eysenck named it extroversion (Eysenck).

Eysenck made major contributions to the study of personality by providing details and using scientific methodology to support his findings. His work led to what is often called the Big Five model (Costa & McCrae, 2003).

Gordon Allport

Gordon Allport was born in 1897, in Montezuma, Indiana. Born to a doctor and a school teacher, he spent his early years helping his father take care of patients (Boeree, 2006). In 1915 he graduated from high school and

received a scholarship to Harvard. In 1919 he earned a degree in philosophy and economics. After teaching philosophy and economics for a year, he returned to Harvard and completed his doctorate in philosophy in psychology in 1922. Allport then spent one year studying in Germany before returning to Harvard to be an instructor in psychology from 1924 to 1926 (Boeree). He began teaching what is believed to be the first course in personality ever taught in the United States, "Personality: It is Psychological and Social Aspects" (Nicholson, 2006, p. 733). He remained on the Harvard staff until his death in 1967.

Allport was known as a trait psychologist. One of his early projects was to identify and locate every term that he thought could describe a person. From this, he developed a list of 4500 trait-like descriptors. He organized these into three level traits.

1. *Cardinal trait*: this is the trait that dominates and shapes a person's behavior. These are rare, as most people lack a single theme that shapes their lives.
2. *Central trait*: this is a general characteristic found in some degree in every person. These are the

basic building blocks that shape most of our behavior, although they are not as overwhelming as cardinal traits. An example of a central trait would be honesty.

3. *Secondary trait*: these are characteristics seen only in certain circumstances (such as particular likes or dislikes that only a very close friend may know).

They must be included to provide a complete picture of human complexity (Endler & Speer, 1998 p. 505).

Big Five Personality Trait Test

The Big Five trait test is currently the most accepted comprehensive empirical or data-driven enquiry into the personality model in the scientific community (Howard P., Howard J., 2004). Early trait research began with Sir Francis Galton, as he was the first scientist to identify what is known as the Lexical Hypothesis, which refers to the socially relevant and salient personality characteristics that are encoded in the natural language (John & Srivastava, 1999). Allport and Odbert (1936) put Galton's hypothesis into practice by extracting 17,953 personality describing words from the English language. Cattell (1957) reduced the list down to 171 synonyms by the 1940's; Tupes and Christal (1961) analyzed Cattell's

personality data and found five recurring factors in their research of Air Force officers. This work was then replicated by Norman (1963), Borgatta, Digman and Takemoto-Chock (as cited by John & Srivastava, 1999), in lists derived from Cattell's 35 variables. Norman (1963) found that five major factors were sufficient to account for a large set of personality data and initially labeled them (as cited by John & Srivastava, 1999, p.6):

- (I) Extraversion or Surgency (talkative, assertive, energetic)
- (II) Agreeableness (good-natured, cooperative, trustful)
- (III) Conscientiousness (orderly, responsible, dependable)
- (IV) Emotional Stability versus Neuroticism (calm, not neurotic, not easily upset)
- (V) Culture (intellectual, polished, independent-minded)

These factors eventually became known as the "Big Five" (Goldberg, 1981), a title chosen not to reflect their intrinsic greatness but to emphasize that each of these factors is extremely broad. The Big Five structure does not

imply that personality differences can be reduced to only five traits. Rather, these five dimensions represent personality at the broadest level of abstraction, and each dimension summarizes a large number of distinct, more specific personality characteristics (John & Srivastava, 1999).

In a symposium in Honolulu in 1981, Goldberg, Takemoto-Chock, and Digman reviewed the available personality tests of the day. They insisted that the tests that seemed the most accurate were the ones measured by a subset of five common factors, just as Norman had discovered in 1963. This event was followed by widespread acceptance of the five factor model among personality scientists during the 1980's, as well as the publication of the NEO PI-R five factor personality inventory by Costa and McCrae (1985).

The Big Five factors of personality are most generally now labeled extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience (Paunonen, Ashton, 2001). They are presumed to represent the topmost level of a personality hierarchy in which narrower traits and even narrower behaviors represent the lower levels (e.g., see

McCrae & John, 1992; Paunonen, 1998). The Big Five are thought by some to be universal across cultures (McCrae, Costa, del Pilar, Rolland, & Parker, 1998).

According to the Big Five taxonomy, the primary dimensions of personality are extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience. The following table was taken from R. J. Harvey's, public presentation at the Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, May 1995.

Table 1

"Big Five" Theory Dimension and Illustrative Adjectives

<i>Dimension</i>	<i>Prototypical Characteristics</i>	<i>Illustrative Adjectives</i>
Conscientiousness	responsible, dependable, able to plan, organized, persistent, need for achievement, persistence, scrupulousness	organized, systematic, thorough, hardworking, planful, neat, dependable, (careless), (inefficient),

		(sloppy), (impulsive), (irresponsible)
Extraversion,	sociable,	extroverted,
Surgency,	talkative,	talkative,
Sociability	assertive,	assertive,
	ambitious, active,	gregarious,
	dominance, tendency	energetic, self-
	to experience	dramatizing,
	positive emotions	(reserved), (introverted), (quiet), (shy), (unassertive), (withdrawn)
Agreeableness	good-natured,	sympathetic,
	cooperative,	cooperative, warm,
	trusting, sympathy,	tactful,
	altruism,	considerate,
	(hostility),	trustful, (cold),
	(unsociability)	(rude), (unkind), (independent)
Emotional	calm, secure, not	unenvious, relaxed,

Stability,	nervous,	calm, stable,
Adjustment,	(predisposition to	confident,
(Neuroticism)	experience anxiety,	effective, (moody),
	anger, depression,	(touchy), (nervous),
	emotional	(moody), (self-
	instability)	doubting)

Openness to	imaginative,	intellectual,
Experiences,	artistically	creative, artistic,
Intelligence,	sensitive,	imaginative,
Culture	aesthetically	curious, original,
	sensitive,	(unimaginative),
	intellectual, depth	conventional),
	of feeling,	(simple), (dull),
	curiosity, need for	(literal-minded)
	variety	

Note. From "A "Big Five" Scoring System for the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator". By R. J. Harvey, 1995. Retrieved from <http://harvey.psyc.vt.edu/Documents/BIGFIVE.pdf>, p. 2 Reprinted with permission. Items in parentheses define the opposite pole of each dimension.

Studies of personality structure by Paunonen and Ashton (2001) have contributed to a voluminous archive of

evidence pointing to the conclusion that most of the personality-based consistencies in behavior can be adequately explained in terms of the so-called five-factor model. The Big Five personality trait test has been used in the following numerous studies: the likelihood of sexual harassment (Lee, Gizzarone, Ashton, 2003), the relationship between job and life satisfaction (Heller, Judge, Watson, 2002) personality and work involvement (Bozionelos, 2004) and personality traits of Air Force officers candidates (Wiggins, 1996) and personality in the workplace (Neubert, 2004). The Big Five personality trait test was used in this study because of the amount of research that has been previously done.

Personnel and Discipline

Various research, including studies by Gadzella (1999), Morin and Battalio (2004), and Tomich, McWhirter, and Darcy (2003), have linked personality traits to specific behaviors and abilities. The goal of this study is to establish a relationship between personality traits and the ability to deal with student behavior.

One researcher (Almeida, 1995) suggests there are five steps teachers should use to help students learn appropriate behaviors:

1. *Be Clear*: all children must have a clear understanding of what constitutes acceptable and unacceptable behavior in the classroom.
2. *Provide Consequences*: behavior management is a delicate balance of rewards for acceptable behavior and consequences for unacceptable behavior.
3. *Be Consistent*: one must be consistent in handling out rewards and consequences. When children act in an acceptable manner, make sure you acknowledge the fact publicly, whenever possible.
4. *Be Caring*: teachers must care about their students as children. Children act the way they do because they are children. To get angry at them because they are acting the way children act makes little sense.
5. *Be willing to change*: teachers who are looking to create an environment where learning occurs and where behavior problems are kept at a minimum need to be willing to make changes for the sake of their students. (Almeida, 1995, p. 1-2)

Research by Foote, Vermette, Wisniewski, Angnello, and Pagano (2000) tried to identify the characteristics of bad teachers. Through personal interviews, the study compared perceptions of administrators, teachers, parents, and students, toward bad teachers. The following are six of the nine characteristics found to be congruent with bad teachers:

1. Bad teachers take student misbehavior too personally, resulting in an extreme discipline style that is either "too easy" or "too hard."
2. Bad teachers often do not interact with their students during class, and when they do interact they appear uncaring.
3. Bad teachers do not interact with students outside of class, or are not available to students, parents, teachers, or administrators.
4. Bad teachers are typically out of touch with accepted mainstream styles of personal care or professional demeanor. They are viewed as having poor communication skills and have a negative outlook on life.

5. Bad teachers do not seek to develop themselves and do not actively seek to improve their teaching skills. They are not empathetic in the developing and nurturing of children, nor are they compatible with other teachers, and are disorganized.
6. Bad teachers often seem aloof from others, non-collegial in their professional practice and negative in tone when required to interact (Foote et al., 2000, p.129-131).

How to manage student misbehavior is a perennial topic. It is a paramount concern for all educators, both new and experienced. To achieve a successful career, every teacher must master the fine art of classroom management. The behaviorist and the diagnostic approaches are two of the most popular approaches in dealing effectively with student misbehavior (Palardy, 1995).

The purpose of behavior modification is to reshape behavior and change the pupils' behavior from undesirable to desirable. According to Palardy, there are four steps to follow:

The first step is the identification of the behavior problem itself. Teachers must identify the behavior

they find undesirable. The second step is the identification of the appropriate behavior. Teachers must identify the specific way(s) they want the pupil to act. The third step is the use of reward. When the pupil behaves in the way that was identified in the second step, teachers must reward him/her. The fourth and final step is the use of extinction procedures to help eliminate the inappropriate behavior identified in the first step (Palardy, 1995, p. 135).

The diagnostic approach is the most comprehensive and legitimate approach to discipline. Contrary to behavior modification, this approach assumes that there can be lasting effects on certain behavior problems only after their causes have been determined and treated. Palardy believes that there are nine strategies that will help prevent most behavior problems in the educational setting.

1. Feeling comfortable with themselves, their students, and their subject matter.
2. Believing in their pupils' capacity and propensity for appropriate classroom conduct.
3. Ensuring that their instructional activities are interesting and relevant.

4. Matching their instructional activities and requirements with their pupils' capabilities.
5. Involving their pupils in setting up "the rules."
6. Making certain that their pupils know and understand "the routine."
7. Identifying their problem times.
8. Remembering that pupils are not adults.
9. Giving evidence that they genuinely respect their pupils (Palardy, 1995, p.136-137).

Personality Traits and Student Behavior

Since the traits of good/bad teachers have been identified, the personality traits of bus drivers can also be identified as well. The following research studies will help support this hypothesis.

Bernadette Gadzella (1999) used the 16 PF questionnaire to investigate leadership traits (a personality characteristic) in students who were enrolled in a honors college curriculum. The findings of Gadzella's (1999) study showed that the left hemispheric group had better self control and leadership skills than the right hemispheric group and better self-control than the integrated group. In addition, the right hemispheric group

showed more extraversion and independence than the left hemispheric group and higher anxiety than the integrated group. The integrated group was more socially outgoing and independent and showed better leadership skills than the left hemispheric group. The integrated group indicated having better self-control, adjustment and leadership skills than the right hemispheric group. This would make it appear that the integrated group had some personality traits that were found in both the left and right hemispheric groups (Gadzella).

Another study by Morin and Battalio (2004) researched teachers' ability or characteristics needed to respond to student misbehavior in a positive manner. The researchers believe that a teacher's level of personal efficacy helps determine how the teacher will react and ultimately handle students who misbehave. Teachers who believe that their efforts will be unlikely to change the behavior of their students (low personal teaching efficacy) tend to avoid certain activities and are less likely to complete tasks that could produce adversity, and affects the way they think of others and their environment (Evers, Brouwers, & Tomic, 2000). On the other hand, teachers who believe in

their capabilities (highly efficacious) tend to choose activities that are more likely to have a positive outcome on their students and their behaviors (Jordan, Lindsay, & Stanovich, 1997).

Personality Traits and Decision Making

This study is an effort to determine how and if one or more personality traits of a bus driver are better suited in the handling of student misbehavior. Anyone who has dealt with student misbehavior would have to agree that the decisions on how to handle or react to the students' misbehavior can be very stressful and influential in the outcome of the situation. Numerous studies have been done on personality factors in interpersonal conflict situations (Antonioni, 1998; Chanin & Schneer, 1984; De Dreu, Koole, & Oldersma, 1999; Friedman & Barry, 1998; Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, & Hair, 1996; Higgins, 2000; Mills, Robey, & Smith, 1985; Mintu-Wimsatt & Lozada, 1999; Moberg, 2001; Rahim, 1983; Sandy & Boardman, 2001; Sandy, Boardman, & Deutsch, 2000). Researchers have addressed various types of conflict processes; however, individual differences in coping behaviors have not received as much attention. When

making a decision, Janis and Mann (1977) identified four patterns of behavior associated with coping with conflicts:

1. Engage in vigilant information searching and solve the problem immediately.
2. Become hyper vigilant and search in panic for a solution.
3. Pass the responsibility to others.
4. Escape the conflict by procrastinating about making a decision.

The initial choice of a particular direction of decision-making will depend greatly upon the cognitive load of the decision task itself and the amount of cognitive effort the decision maker is willing to make (Bouckenooghe, Vanderheyden, Mestdagh, & Van Leathem, 2007). According to Levin, Huneke, and Jasper (2000), studying individual differences can add to the understanding of how decisions are made.

Bouckenooghe, Vanderheyden, Mestdagh, and Van Leathem (2007) found that individual differences largely emphasized two focal constructs: "need for cognition (NFC) and need for closure (NFCL)" (p. 606). Their study examined the influence of these traits on solving decisional conflict

with the aim of contributing to a wider understanding of how people with distinct information-processing styles make decisions in the working environment. The study (Bouckennooghe et al., 2007) gathered survey data from 1,119 Belgian human resource professionals who assessed conflict decision-making styles. They found that:

Individuals who enjoy thinking, processing, and searching for new information take sufficient time to make good and vigilant decisions. Moreover, individuals with the high need for cognition (NFC) do not take more time than necessary to make decisions; that is, they do not tend to procrastinate when making decisions, they jump to conclusions and decisions quickly. Individuals with high NFC tend to retain responsibility over the decision making process instead of passing it to others. (p. 622)

When coping with decisional conflict, one may hypothesize from Bouckenhooghe's (2007) study that those individuals that are high in the Big Five Factor model (FFM) of conscientiousness (high order) tend to make good decisions and do not jump to conclusions or make quick decisions. Additionally, individuals with a high

conscientiousness scored lower on hypervigilance, buck passing, and procrastination, which also would lend itself to making better decisions than someone who was low in this personality trait. From these findings, one could conclude that bus drivers who portray high conscientiousness would tend to make better decisions. Consequently people who make better decisions would choose alternatives better suited to handling student misbehavior.

Personality Traits and Job Performances

No research was found regarding personality traits related to how adults other than teachers deal with students' misbehaviors in a school setting. However, there are related studies comparing personality traits and job performances that shed light on this matter.

As cited by Van Den Berg and Feij (1993, p. 338), personality questionnaires continue to fulfill their important roles as assessment devices in personnel selection (Altink, Greuter, & Roe, 1990; Robertson & Makin, 1986). Besides cognitive, motor and social capacities, and skills, personality or temperament traits are still thought to be important determinants of functioning in the area of

work as well as adequate predictors of future work behavior (Van Den Berg, Feij, 1993, p. 338).

Personality variables have always predicted important behaviors and outcomes and in the past two decades, large-scale meta-analyses have documented the pervasive influence of personality constructs in virtually all aspects of organizational behavior (Ones, Viswesvaran, & Dilchert, 2005, p.390). Ones et.al (2005) also insist that even though cognitive ability is the stronger predictor of overall job performance, personality also plays an important role in explaining behavior.

Borman and Motowidlo (1997) argued that personality predicts contextual performance better than cognitive ability. Additionally, the resurgence of personality assessment as a valid predictor of job performance can be attributed in large part to several factors:

1. Personality has been shown to be a valid predictor of work-related outcomes;
2. Personality measures do not generally display adverse impact on demographic subgroups (e.g., racial, gender, ethnic, etc.);

3. The validity of personality measures is not affected by intentional faking; and
4. The construct of personality has become more structured with acceptance of the "Big Five" personality traits (e.g., conscientiousness and extraversion) and the consistency with which they are measured (Love & DeArmond, 2007, p. 22)

Sean Neubert (2004) performed a study that investigated the correlation and validity of the five factor model with job performance and other related activities. In his findings, he noted that certain personality traits predicted certain job performances such as job satisfaction, deviation in the workplace, performance in the workplace motivation, and teamwork (Neubert).

Initial research indicated that neuroticism is negatively correlated with job satisfaction, whereas conscientiousness, extroversion, and agreeableness are positively correlated with job satisfaction (Neubert). In another similar study, there was a correlation among the factors of neuroticism and extraversion, with extraversion being positively correlated, with job satisfaction and

neuroticism being negatively correlated (Judge, Heller, and Mount, 2002).

Workplace deviations occur when employees voluntarily pursue actions that threaten the well-being of the individual or organization. Examples of such behaviors would include stealing, being hostile towards coworkers, or withholding effort. Employees with high levels of deviance in the workplace have low levels of agreeableness, they have low levels of conscientiousness, and they have high levels of neuroticism. This implies that individuals who are emotionally stable and conscientious are less likely to withhold effort or steal, and those who are agreeable are less likely to be hostile to their coworkers (Neubert).

Another entirely different factor to consider is the perception of the workplace. Employees who had a positive perception of their workplace were less likely to pursue deviant behavior. Research indicates that the personality acts as a moderating factor: workplace deviance was more likely to be endorsed with respect to an individual when both the perception of the workplace was negative and emotional stability, conscientiousness, and agreeableness were low (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, and Barrick, 2004).

Of the five factors, the single factor of conscientiousness is the most predictive of job performance. Another strong predictor of job performance is job absences. Introverted, conscientious employees are much less likely to be absent from work, as opposed to extraverted employees who exhibit low levels of conscientiousness (Hurtz and Donovan, 2000).

In the workplace the ability to be a team player is valued and is critical to job performance. Recent research has suggested that conscientiousness, extraversion, and agreeableness are all related to cooperative behavior, but that they are not related to task performance (Neubert). When working with a team, leadership is needed to guide the team. In another study of Asian military units, it was found that there was a positive correlation between extraversion and leadership abilities (Lim and Ployhart, 2004). This evidence is consistent with the long-standing idea that in teams there are leaders and there are followers; the leaders make decisions and the followers abide by them.

The overall conclusion gathered from the multitude of research in this study is that personality variables have

substantial validity and utility for prediction and explanation of behavior in organizational settings. Bad judgment calls can be avoided by providing researchers with a proper taxonomy of personality variables that will provide insight into the differences between Big Five factors, facets, compound traits, and even profiles (Ones et.al 2005).

Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance

In order to understand why some people handle student misbehavior better than others, the study of numerous personality trait tests relating to job performance led to an investigation of the different types of intelligence. The research into the different types of intelligence ultimately directed the study to emotional intelligence. To explain the relatively new term emotional intelligence, this study will attempt to give a brief history of and rationale for this term.

The term social intelligence was first coined by Edward Thorndike (1920). He was an educational psychologist at Columbia University who developed the Armed Service Vocational Aptitude Battery [ASVAB] test. The purpose of this test was to better determine qualifications for

enlistment in the United States armed forces. The term social intelligence refers to "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls, to act wisely in human relations" (Thorndike, 1920, p. 228).

Another educational psychologist, Howard Gardner, in his 1983 book titled *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligence*, coined the phrase "multiple intelligence." He insisted that there exist many different types of intelligence ascribed to human beings. He suggested that each individual manifests varying levels of different intelligence, and thus each person has a unique cognitive profile. According to Gardner (1983, 2003), there are at least eight core intelligences: linguistic (verbal), logical mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic (movement), musical, interpersonal (understanding others), intrapersonal (understanding self), and naturalist (observing and understanding natural and human-made patterns and systems) (Woolfolk, 2007, p. 113). Gardner (1983, 2003) proposed that "intrapersonal" and "interpersonal" intelligences are as important as the type of intelligence typically measured by IQ and related tests. A closer look into Gardner's thinking on intrapersonal and

interpersonal intelligence is revealed in Goleman's (1995) book, *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*:

Interpersonal intelligence is the ability to understand other people: what motivates them, how they work, how to work cooperatively with them. Successful sales people, politicians, teachers, clinicians, and religious leaders are all likely to be individuals with high degrees of interpersonal intelligence (Goleman, 1995, p 39).

Gardner and Hatch (1989), as quoted by Goleman (1995) adds that intrapersonal intelligence is

the correlative ability, turned inward. It is a capacity to form an accurate, veritcal model on oneself and to be able to use that model to operate effectively in life. People with intrapersonal intelligence possess the key to self-knowledge and can access their own feelings and the ability to discriminate among them and draw upon them to guide behavior (Goleman, 1995, p 39).

In Gardner's view, traditional types of intelligence, such as IQ, failed to fully explain cognitive ability

(Smith, 2002). He assessed that people are able to reach different potentials due to the varying degrees of these seven intelligences. Although the description identifying this phenomenon was different, there began a common belief that there was another type of intelligence that made some people successful in their work and relationships with people as compared to others who seemed ineffective. This led to the popular term of "emotional intelligence" (Salovey and Mayer, 1990).

In 1990, Salovey and Mayer initiated a research program intended to develop valid measures of emotional intelligence and explore its significance. In one of their studies, they found that when a group of people saw an upsetting film, those who scored high on emotional clarity recovered more quickly. In this same study, individuals who scored higher in the ability to perceive accurately, understand, and appraise others' emotions were better able to respond flexibly to changes in their social environments and build supportive social networks (Salovey & Mayer).

Their work eventually led to a comprehensive theory of emotional intelligence. They defined emotional intelligence in terms of being able to monitor and regulate one's own

and others' feelings, and to use feelings to guide thought and action. From this study, Daniel Goleman was able to adapt Salovey's and Mayer's list of emotional intelligence to five basic emotional and social competencies that matter most in work life:

Self-awareness: Knowing what we are feeling in the moment, and using those preferences to guide our decision making; having a realistic assessment of our own abilities and a well-grounded sense of self-confidence.

Self-regulation: Handling our emotions so that they facilitate rather than interfere with the task at hand; being conscientious and delaying gratification to pursue goals; recovering well from emotional distress.

Motivation: Using our deepest preferences to move and guide us toward our goals, to help us take initiative and strive to improve, and to persevere in the face of setbacks and frustrations

Empathy: Sensing what people are feeling, being able to take in their understanding, and cultivating

rapport and attunement with a broad diversity of people.

Social skills: Handling emotions in relationships well and accurately reading social situations and networks; interacting smoothly; using these skills to persuade and lead, negotiate and settle disputes, for cooperation and teamwork (Goleman 1998, p. 318).

Goleman characterizes "emotional intelligence" as "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships" (p. 317). In order to deal effectively with people regardless of their age, one must have some emotional intelligence. The more emotional intelligence a person has, the better equipped that person is when dealing with problems.

Emotional competence, as defined by Howard Gardner (1983), is a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work. Emotional intelligence determines our potential for learning the practical skills that are based on its five elements: self-awareness, motivation, self-regulation, empathy, and adeptness in relationships (Goleman, 1998).

Our emotional competence shows how much of that potential we have translated into on-the-job capabilities. "Simply being high in emotional intelligence does not guarantee a person will have learned the emotional competencies that matter for work: it means only that the person may have excellent potential to learn them" (Goleman, 1998 p. 25).

Emotional competencies cluster into groups, each based on a common underlying emotional intelligence capacity. The underlying emotional intelligence capacities are vital if people are to successfully learn the competencies necessary to succeed in the workplace. Below are the twenty-five emotional competencies that determine how we manage ourselves, derived from the five core emotional intelligences as described by (Goleman, 1998 p. 26-27).

Self-Awareness

1. Emotional awareness: recognizing one's emotions and their effects.
2. Accurate self-assessment: knowing one's strengths and limits.
3. Self-confidence: a strong sense of one's self-worth and capabilities.

Self-Regulation

1. Self-control: keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check.
2. Trustworthiness: maintaining standards of honesty and integrity.
3. Conscientiousness: taking responsibility for personal performance.
4. Adaptability: flexibility in handling change.
5. Innovation: being comfortable with novel ideas, approaches, and new information.

Motivation

1. Achievement drive: striving to improve or meet a standard of excellence.
2. Commitment: aligning with the goals of the group or organization.
3. Initiative: readiness to act on opportunities.
4. Optimism: persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks.

Empathy

1. Understanding others: sensing others' feelings and perspectives, and taking an active interest in their concerns.

2. Developing others: sensing others' developmental needs and bolstering their abilities.
3. Service orientation: anticipating, recognizing, and meeting customers' needs.
4. Leveraging diversity: cultivating opportunities through different kinds of people.
5. Political awareness: reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships.

Social Skills

1. Influence: wielding effective tactics for persuasion.
2. Communication: listening openly and sending convincing messages.
3. Conflict management: negotiating and resolving disagreements.
4. Leadership: inspiring and guiding individuals and groups.
5. Change catalyst: initiating or managing change.
6. Building bonds: nurturing instrumental relationships.
7. Collaboration and cooperation: working with others toward shared goals.

8. Team capabilities: creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals (p. 26-27).

According to Goleman (1998) it is impossible for one to be proficient in all twenty-five of these competencies. Different jobs require different emotional intelligence traits to excel. Likewise, different children and their age differences also require different skills to manage their behavior effectively. In a massive survey conducted by Achenbach and Howell (1989), parents and teachers were given these surveys in the mid 1970's and the late 1980's. They found that as time went on, the present generation of children became more emotionally troubled. According to these researchers, children were becoming more lonely and depressed, more angry and unruly, more nervous and prone to worry, more impulsive and aggressive.

It is apparent that effectively dealing with student behavior is more of a challenge than ever before. In order to better understand what makes school bus drivers successful, further background research on emotional intelligence is needed. Common misconceptions need to be discussed and specific emotional traits that make certain

professions successful as opposed to unsuccessful need to be identified.

One misconception about being emotionally intelligent is that one has to be "nice." Goleman contends that, "At strategic moments it may demand not being nice," but rather, for example, bluntly confronting someone with an uncomfortable but consequential truth that the person has been avoiding" (Goleman, 1998 p. 6). Having this type of intelligence also does not mean letting everybody know what your feelings are. Sometimes, "it means managing feelings so that they are expressed appropriately and effectively, enabling people to work together smoothly toward their common goal" (Goleman, 1998 p.7).

Another misconception is that women and men have different emotional intelligences. According to Bar-On (1997), "Women, on average are more aware of their emotions, show more empathy, and are more adept interpersonally. Men, on the other hand, are more self-confident and optimistic, adapt more easily, and handle stress better" (Goleman, 1998 p.7). However, Bar-On (1997) concludes that although there are some distinct differences between men and women, on average looking at the overall

ratings, their strengths and weaknesses even out. In terms of total emotional intelligence, there are no gender differences (Bar-On).

The last misconception is that our emotional intelligence is fixed genetically or that it is developed only during early childhood. In Goleman's words,

Unlike IQ, which changes little after our teen years, emotional intelligence seems to be largely learned, and it continues to develop as we go through life and learn from our experiences - our competence in it can keep growing. In fact, studies that have tracked people's level of emotional intelligence through the years show that people get better and better in these capabilities as they grow more adept at handling their own emotions and impulses, at motivating themselves, and at honing their empathy and social adroitness. There is an old-fashioned word for this growth in emotional intelligence: *maturity* (1998 p. 7).

Trying to identifying one specific emotional trait that will make one person more successful than another is virtually impossible. However, certain jobs do require different skills. For example, successful retail store

managers need to have self-control, conscientiousness, empathy, and service orientation (Clarke, 1996). In most large organizations, senior executives need a greater degree of political awareness than middle managers (Howard and Bray, 1988). Goleman (1998) also identified competencies crucial to the success of other professions as well.

For the best nurses, it's a sense of humor; for bankers, respecting customers' confidentiality; for outstanding school principals, seeking out ways to get feedback from teachers and parents. At the Internal Revenue Service, the best tax collectors are strong not just in accounting, but also in social skills. Among law enforcement officers using the least amount of force necessary is, understandably, a valued ability (p. 28-29).

Dealing with student behavior, in a sense, is a lot like managing a group of people in a business. It is the author's contention that the emotional intelligences required to effectively manage a group of people in a business is the same as that required to manage student behavior on a bus. In Goleman's (1998) book, he looked at a

study by Leslie and Van Velsor (1996) that identified the strengths and weaknesses of successful and unsuccessful managers. Following are the differences between successful and unsuccessful managers:

Self-control: Those who derailed handled pressure poorly and were prone to moodiness and angry outbursts. The successful stayed composed under stress, remaining calm and confident- and dependable- in the heat of crisis.

Conscientiousness: The derailed group reacted to failure and criticism defensively- denying, covering up, or passing on the blame. The successful took responsibility by admitting their mistakes and failures, taking action to fix the problems, and moving on without ruminating about their lapse ().

Social skills: The failures lacked empathy and sensitivity, and so were often abrasive, arrogant, or given to intimidation of subordinates. While some were charming on occasion, even seemingly concerned about others, their charm was purely manipulative. The successes were empathic and sensitive, showing tact

and consideration in their dealings with everyone, superiors and subordinates alike.

Building bonds and leveraging diversity: The insensitivity and manipulative manner of the failed group meant that they failed to build a strong network of cooperative, mutually beneficial relationships. The successes were more appreciative of diversity, and were able to get along with people of all kinds.

(Goleman, 1998 p.40-41).

For bus drivers to effectively deal with behavior problems, one should have emotional intelligence as defined by Daniel Goleman. Regardless of personality and intellect, one should utilize parts of all five basic emotional competencies.

Self-aware: one must be aware of oneself and what kind of signals one is sending out to one's passengers.

Self-regulation: one should be able to handle one's own emotions before one can expect to handle a child's emotional behavior. A bus driver must also be able to recover emotionally when student behaviors do not go as planned (ex. Friday afternoons, after attending parties, etc.).

Motivation: drivers must desire to have a safe and well-behaved riders on the bus.

Empathy: drivers should be able to develop healthy relationships with their students (rapport), and they should be able to see different perspectives.

Social skills: drivers should be cognizant of students' emotions and be able to read social situations (ex. not belittling students in front of their peers). They need to be able to persuade, settle frequent disputes, and encourage cooperation.

Personality and Stressful Situations

Driving a bus full of rowdy, misbehaving kids is most assuredly a stressful situation. Some people are more adept in handling these situations than others. Certain personality traits appear to enable people to perform certain jobs more effectively than others. Richard Lazarus (1991) argues that emotional reactions to stressful situations are dependent upon whether an individual is inclined to appraise the situation as challenging or threatening (Van der Zee, Van Oudenhoven, & de Grijs, 2004). If a driver views the misbehavior of students as threatening to the driver's authority, the driver tends to

exhibit behavior that promotes misbehavior by the students. Personality has an impact on the subjective appraisals of stressful situations and subsequent affective reactions (Lazarus, 1993). Several traits have been related to the appraisal of stressful situations in this review of literature, such as neuroticism, optimism, perceived control, and sensation seeking (Van der Zee, Buunk, Sanderman et al., 1999). This study revealed that individuals who are low in neuroticism and individuals high in optimism, perceived control, and sensation seeking tend to perceive stressful situations more positively and to react more positively to those situations (Van der Zee, Van Oudenhoven and de Grijs, 2004, p. 1071).

Each trait of the Big Five personality dimension (neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) has its own way of dealing with conflict or stressful situations. Individuals high in neuroticism are thought to be less able either to control their impulses or cope effectively with stress (Costa & McCrae, 1985). They also tend to prefer to avoid conflict (Moberg, 2001). Individuals with extraverted tendencies may learn to exhibit enthusiastic, energetic, and positive behaviors in

settings where social approval or positive outcomes are likely to follow. On the other hand, introverts would prefer strategies that would avoid social interaction (Moberg, 2001). Individuals with the propensity to be open find conflict to be a concern, and they would be more likely to prefer an adaptive, flexible approach to its resolution (Costa & McCrae, 1985). Closed-minded individuals would tend to emphasize rules, order, conformity, and be less flexible and have difficulty understanding others' views (Pincus & Gurtman, 1995).

In regards to the agreeableness trait, less agreeable persons would be expected to adopt a conflict strategy in which they would attempt to dominate in order to achieve their own goals or a control strategy (Putman & Wilson, 1982). On the other hand, people with a high agreeableness trait would express their concern for another's outcome and reflect in preferring for a compromise strategy (Moberg, 2001). If a person who scored high on conscientiousness would be expected to prefer dealing with disputes directly by promptly addressing the conflict situations, focusing on finding solutions, and resolving the disputes in an

efficient, thorough, and organized manner (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Of the five personality dimensions of the Big Five; extroversion, orderliness, emotional stability, accommodation, and inquisitiveness, emotional stability is the most desired trait when dealing with misbehavior. Based on the research in this study, the perfect bus driver would be more of an extrovert than introvert and he or she would be moderately high in orderliness. Drivers should be high in emotional stability and above average regarding the inclination to accommodate others and being inquisitive.

Requirements of Bus Drivers

Becoming a school bus driver is not an easy thing. State laws require that public and private school employees who operate school busses that transport students to and from school, and to and from school-sponsored events, are required to have a school bus endorsement on their license. In accordance to the Missouri Department of Revenue (Missouri Department of Revenue, 2009), any school bus driver who has not obtained an S endorsement may be charged with a violation for driving a commercial motor vehicle without the required endorsement. The current Missouri

school bus permit alone will not meet this requirement. To become a certified school bus driver, one must successfully pass a written and skills test for obtaining a Commercial Drivers' License (CDL), with a passengers' vehicle endorsement (MoDOR, 2009).

The written portion of the tests requires that bus drivers be knowledgeable about three main topics. They must be well versed in loading and unloading children, including the safe operation of stop signal devices, external mirror systems, flashing lights, and other warning and passenger safety devices. They must have knowledge of emergency exits and procedures for safely evacuating passengers in an emergency. They must also have a good understanding of State and Federal laws and regulations related to safely traversing highway rail grade crossings (MoDOR, 2009).

After completing the written examination, the driver must pass a driving skills test and a pre-trip inspection in a school bus of the same vehicle group as the applicant will drive. Once a driver has completed this step, he or she must also pass a physical examination. Drivers transporting pupils for a public school district must have a statement on file from a medical examiner that indicates

he or she is physically qualified to operate a school bus. This medical statement must be completed annually (MoDOR, 2009).

Additionally, state laws require all drivers transporting pupils for a public school district to complete at least eight hours of training by a certified school bus instructor, and this training must be completed annually. Drivers over the age of 70 are also required to submit proof of passing a school bus skills test to retain their permit. This must be done each time they go to renew their driver's licenses (MoDOR, 2009).

There are certain requirements that the school district also has for its drivers. The district is responsible for providing and maintaining records of the drivers' annual eight-hour training. They are also responsible for obtaining fingerprints and a background check on each driver. Periodically, each driver is required to be tested for the use of drugs or alcohol (MoDOR, 2009).

What are the experts looking for?

Donna Collins owns and operates her own bussing company and has been in the business since 1983. Her company provides bussing services for several public

schools in southwest Missouri. In a personal interview conducted on September 23rd, 2008, Collins was asked what makes a driver successful as apposed to unsuccessful. She replied:

“The first thing I want to know about a potential candidate is, why do they want to drive? If they begin the conversation by telling me all of the different kinds of vehicles and machinery that they have driven over the years, then I’m probably not going to hire them. I’m looking for drivers that like to be around kids and identify that their families are important to them.” She went on to say that, “if they are just looking for a paycheck, they will not be successful drivers (Collins, personal interview Sept. 08).

Collins went on to identify other factors that distinguished successful drivers from unsuccessful drivers. Drivers’ attitudes towards life influence their success. If they have a positive attitude, they are much more likely to get along well with their students. She also stated that how they interacted with fellow drivers was a strong determinant of their success. Their ability to bond and connect with a veteran driver seemed to significantly

increase their chances of becoming effective school bus drivers. Teamwork with school administration was also identified as being important. If drivers could communicate and work cooperatively with the administration, the drivers' bus discipline referrals usually tended to be low. Another factor that seemed very important to her was training. Collins stated, "New drivers need help. They need to have education or previous training. If not, they typically fail" (Sept. 2008). She also confirmed that teachers generally make very good drivers because of the classroom training that they have already received.

When asked what type of personality is not conducive in maintaining effective behavior on the bus, she stated, "A person who is very quiet and timid. They typically do not make it because they do not have a lot of confidence or have a low self-esteem" (Sept. 2008).

Collins went on to say that drivers must make sure that they adhere to the rules and procedures that have been established by the school and stay consistent with the application of those rules and procedures. She finished by saying that drivers do not have to be loud and boisterous, but they do need to be assertive and consistent.

Summary

Bus drivers are the first people some students see on their way to school, and the last people they see on their way home. "Bus drivers are responsible both for the safe handling of the bus and the behavior of students on board", says Charles Gauthier executive director of the National Association of State Directors of Pupil Transportation Services (Groom 2005, p.B6). It is critical that a bus driver is first and foremost able to safely drive and deliver students to and from their destination. "To be an operator, you have to be able to deal with customers - and be able to do 15 different things at one time," said Jim Girden, executive vice-president of the local branch of the Amalgamated Transit Union (Romaniuk 2005, p. 12). From an administrative standpoint, a bus driver should be able to maintain good student management while driving the bus. By lessening the number of distractions and amount of misbehavior of the students, drivers are able to focus more on maneuvering the bus rather than focusing on the behavior of the students.

Through the pioneer work of Carl Jung, Sir Francis Galton, and Alfred Binet, personality trait tests were

created. Much work has been done to measure a person's cognitive characteristics statistically. Studies have shown that job performance and personality are related. Cognitive ability may allow an employee to complete a specific task, but the abilities to work with others and to stay motivated are also important aspects of personality in task completion.

It is the goal of this study to identify certain personality traits in bus drivers that are conducive to managing good student behavior. The Global Five personality trait test was used on all regular bus route drivers. The number of bus discipline referrals from each bus driver was compared to their personality types. Chapter Three detailed the methodology utilized in this study and Chapter Four examined the results of the data. The final chapter examines the variables that may have influenced the outcome of the study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Administrators are faced with the responsibility of disciplining students for misconduct on the school bus. It has been observed that certain bus drivers send discipline referrals more frequently to the administration, whereas others seldom do. This observation sparked an attempt to determine if a relationship exists between personality traits of school bus drivers and the number of discipline referrals they send to the administration.

Several superintendents from southwest Missouri agreed that their building principals have to deal with too much bus discipline. J. Hyatt (personal communication, December 19, 2008), Superintendent of the Sparta School District, stated that the more his building principals deal with bus discipline, the less time they have to devote to student achievement. B. Blevins (personal communication, January 16, 2009), Superintendent of the Forsyth School District, added that good bus drivers who can handle student behavior are "worth their weight in gold". Building principals

already have a lot of responsibilities and do not need more problems added to their list. C. Allen (personal communication, November 3, 2008), Superintendent of the Galena School District, indicated that just like a bad teacher, one bad bus driver can cost a school district a lot of time and energy in dealing with his or her inability to handle student misbehavior.

To ascertain if a relationship exists between personality traits and the amount of discipline referrals bus drivers send to school administrators, a personality trait test and self-assessment survey were conducted on all regular route school bus drivers. The personality trait test given was the Global Five, which is a shortened version of the Big Five test. The test was administered starting in October 2008 and was concluded in February of 2009. The discipline referrals data were collected at the end of the fall semester in December of 2008.

All building principal of the rural school districts who participated, were asked to total the number of bus discipline referrals each regular route bus driver had sent to the school administration. The data were disaggregated and put into tables. The personality traits were compared

to the number of discipline referrals the school bus drivers sent to the administration for the fall semester of the 2008-2009 school year.

The presentation of the subjects of the study and the sampling procedure used in their selection and research setting are provided. The research design instrumentation, the validity/reliability of the instrument, the reliability of the study, and the statistical treatment of the data are also presented.

Subjects

The scope of the research included one hundred and seven regular public school bus drivers in rural Missouri. The one hundred and seven bus drivers are referred to in this paper by a designated number. Of the participating drivers, there were seventy-one males and thirty-six females, ranging from twenty-six to seventy-six years of age, with a mean age of fifty-four. The mean years of experience driving a school bus for the rural school districts in Missouri is just over nine years, and the mean years of total school bus driving experience total over eleven years. The driver with the least amount of driving experience has a half year and the most experienced driver

has thirty-nine years. The education level of the rural Missouri bus drivers disaggregates as follows: six did not graduate from high school, five did not graduate from high school but completed the requirements for their general education diploma, seventy-one graduated from high school, eleven completed some sort of an associate's degree, twelve have earned a Bachelor's of Science, one has earned a Master's of Science, and one has a Education Specialist degree.

Sampling Procedure

Special bus routes such as those requiring pre-school, handicap, substitute or extracurricular drivers were not included in this study. The study was limited to all regular route bus drivers of the sample school districts in rural Missouri. A cluster sample for convenience was done for this study. Permission from the superintendents from the selected rural school districts from across Missouri was obtained in order to have access to the drivers. All drivers in the selected districts were asked to take part in the study but were not forced to if they did not want to participate. The researcher informed the subjects of the risks and benefits of the research.

Research Setting

The total sample of the student population for this study of kindergarten through twelfth grade pupils was ten thousand seven hundred and ninety-five. Between seven thousand five hundred and nine thousand five hundred of the total number of students are transported in the morning and in the afternoon via the regular school bus routes. The sampled districts are located in Barry, Benton, Caldwell, Cedar, Chariton, Christian, Dade, Davies, Douglas, Greene, Henry, Howell, Lawrence, Linn, Livingston, St. Clair, Stone, Taney, Texas, and Vernon Counties.

The following data were obtained from the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education's 2008 School District Report Card. The demographic data were used to give a better understanding of the rural districts used in this study. Table one shows the ethnic diversity of the sample rural districts of Missouri.

Table 2

Student Ethnic Composition

ETHNICITY	AVERAGE	MAXIMUM	MINIMUM
ASIAN	0.329	1.4	0
BLACK	0.771	2.1	0.1
HISPANIC	1.85	7.8	0.6
INDIAN	0.6571	2	0.1
WHITE	96.38	98.1	89.9

Note. From Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education 2007-08 School Accountability Report Card.

Table two includes additional student characteristics of the sample rural school districts as reported by the Missouri Department of School Education (MODESE, 2008) school accountability report card. The attendance rate is determined by the average daily attendance for the regular school term divided by the January membership, or the total hours of student attendance divided by the sum of the total hours of student attendance and total hours of absence for the regular school term. The free or reduced-price lunch refers to the percentage of resident pupils who are reported by the district as eligible for free or reduced-price meals on the last Wednesday in January. The

graduation rate is the quotient of the number of graduates in the current year, as of June 30, divided by the following sum of the number of graduates in the current year as of June 30, plus the number of twelfth-graders who dropped out in the current year, plus the number of eleventh-graders who dropped out in the preceding year, plus the number of tenth-graders who dropped out in the second preceding year, plus the number of ninth-graders who dropped out in the third preceding year. The dropout rate includes grades nine through twelve and is calculated by taking the number of dropouts divided by the total of September enrollment, plus transfers in, minus transfers out, minus dropouts, added to September enrollment, then divided by two. Suspensions greater than ten days are derived from the number of students who are suspended for ten or more consecutive days. "Expulsions" refers to those students who are expelled for disciplinary reasons.

Table 3

Student Characteristics of Sample School Districts

CHARACTERISTICS	AVERAGE	MAXIMUM	MINIMUM
ATTENDANCE	94.97	97.2	92.6
FREE/REDUCED	50.9	63.2	30.8
GRADUATION	88.74	100	74.8
DROPOUT RATE	2.39	47.4	0
SUSPENSIONS	7.86	41	0
>10 DAYS			
EXPULSIONS	0.1	1	0

Note. From Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education 2007-08 School Accountability Report Card.

Table 4 represents the percentage of the previous year's graduates who are reported as attending a community college, a four-year institution, or a technical school one hundred and eighty days after graduation. Placement rates for career-technical education students refer to the percentage of graduates who complete a career-technical education program and are placed in a related occupational or training program one hundred and eighty days after graduation. The data from table 4 provide another example of the identifying characteristics of the sample rural population related to what the graduates do after high

school and where they do it, as noted by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary report card of the 2008-2009 school year:

Table 4

Where Graduates Go

	AVERAGE	MAXIMUM	MINIMUM
4YR COLL/UNIV	28.45	45.5	7.7
2YR COLL/UNIV	28.7	46.9	15.6
CAREER-TECH.	84	100	66.7

Note. From Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education 2007-08 School Accountability Report Card.

The average current expenditures per average daily attendance (ADA) represent the average current expenditure per pupil and the average daily attendance for the district. The number of students taking the American College Test (ACT) the percentage of graduates taking the ACT, and the composite ACT score and the percentage of graduates taking the ACT, along with the average composite ACT score, are represented in table 5. These statistics are provided to DESE by ACT. Knowledge of the current expenditures per child per average daily attendance in relationship to their American College Test (ACT) scores

sheds light on the demographics of the school district sample population.

Table 5

Expenditures per child and ACT scores

	AVERAGE	MAXIMUM	MINIMUM
AV. CURRENT	\$7986	\$12715	\$6726
Expenditures			
Per ADA			
# of students	29.1	57	4
taking ACT			
% of graduates	60	100	37
Taking ACT			
Composite	20.13	21.7	17.8
ACT Score			

Note. From Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education 2007-08 School Accountability Report Card.

The following tables represent the Missouri Census Data Center's attempt to distill the most frequently accessed data items from the 2000 decennial census. The reports are based entirely on data published by the U.S. Census Bureau (2000). Tables 5 through 8 are a collection of data that

gives a demographic overview of the 2000 census as reported by DESE, 2008.

Table 6

Population Basis

	AVERAGE	MAXIMUM	MINIMUM
% of Persons on	7.17	19.9	1.8
Farms			
Persons per	38.22	61.8	11.8
Square Mile			

Note. From Missouri Census Data Center, 2000. Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education Summary Report Card 2008-2009.

The percentage of people living on farms sheds light into the rural type of setting in which the school districts are located. Another indication of how the bus routes might be distributed is reflected in the number of people living per square mile.

Table 7

Workforce by Occupation

	AVERAGE	MAXIMUM	MINIMUM
MANAGEMENT	22.8	33.6	7.2
SERVICE	15.72	21.7	10.2
SALES & OFFICE	22.65	28.6	8.1
FARMING,	2.6	12.5	0
FISHING &			
FORRESTRY			
CONSTRUCTION	14.92	18.6	10.8
PRODUCTION &	23.27	61.2	13.4
TRANSPORTATION			

Note. From Missouri Census Data Center, 2000. Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education Summary Report 2008-2009.

The types of jobs that these district stakeholders occupy shed light on the type of students who are transported on the school busses. The majority of the workforce in rural Missouri is composed of blue collar workers.

Table 8

Family Measures of Income

	AVERAGE	MAXIMUM	MINIMUM
Median Family	\$35,070	\$42,674	\$27,382
Income			
Average Family	\$42,091	\$47,574	\$34,014
Income			
Per Capita	\$14,716	\$17,454	\$11,883
Income			

Note. From Missouri Census Data Center, 2000. Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education Summary Report 2008-2009.

Compared to other areas in the United States, rural Missouri is one of the poorest areas in the nation. This is reflected in Tables 8, where family incomes are measured and in Table 9, indicating the percentage of families living below poverty line as determined by their poverty status.

Table 9

Poverty

	AVERAGE	MAXIMUM	MINIMUM
Persons below	5.47	7.4	1.8
50% poverty			
Persons below	36.1	42.8	23.2
185% poverty			
Persons between	22.7	33.8	19.6
100 & 200% poverty			

Note. From Missouri Census Data Center, 2000. Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education Summary Report 2008-2009.

Some bus routes contain more at-risk students than other bus routes. Geographically, bus routes vary from twenty minutes up to one hour and thirty minutes in duration. This also translates to some routes transporting from fifteen students up to sixty-five students per bus route. A typical bus route in rural Missouri will carry roughly forty students and it will take approximately forty-five minutes to an hour to complete.

Research Design

The research design is quantitative causal-comparative research. Descriptive statistics were utilized. The data

were collected and descriptive statistics calculated. A scatter plot was made, crosstabs run and a boxplot tabulated. Multiple t-test were performed and calculated a Pearson *r*. The variables consisted of five dichotomous variables. The design was chosen to allow the data to be analyzed to determine if the drivers' personality types affect the quantity of discipline referrals received by the administration of the rural Missouri School Districts. The time span for research collected was the first semester of the 2008-2009 school year.

Instrumentation

The bus drivers of the selected rural Missouri school districts were given the Global Five personality trait test. The Global Five personality system is based on the five proven independent personality elements. The Global Five adaptation of the Big Five consists of extroversion, emotional stability, orderliness, accommodation, and intellect. These elements make up the primary colors of personality; the interaction of the elements in each person yields his or her overall personality profile.

Each element has two oppositional type extremes. The oppositional types for extroversion are social and

reserved. The oppositional types for emotional stability are limbic and calm. The oppositional types for orderliness are organized and unstructured. The oppositional types for accommodation are accommodating and egocentric. The oppositional types for intellect are non-curious and inquisitive.

Validity of the Instrument

The Global Five personality trait test is currently the most accepted personality model in the scientific community. The results from each driver's test are dependent upon the truthfulness of his or her responses.

Reliability of the Instrumentation

The Global Five personality trait test is currently the most accepted personality model in the scientific community. The results from each driver's test are dependent upon the accuracy of his or her responses.

Validity of the Study

The review of literature, instrumentation, and the occurrences of data were assessed with the exact number of instances the students displayed inappropriate acts while riding the bus.

Reliability of the Study

The review of literature, instrumentation, and the occurrences of data were assessed with the exact number of instances the students displayed inappropriate acts while riding the bus.

Statistical Treatment of the Data

Quantitative descriptive data were compared with quantitative data; the researcher's knowledge of personality tests and analytical abilities were also used.

Rationale for Selected Statistical Treatment

The researcher collected the data and calculated descriptive statistics, made a scatter plot, ran crosstabs and a boxplot, performed multiple t-tests, and calculated a Pearson r. The variables consisted of five dichotomous variables.

Explanation of Data Treatment for Variables

This research study is based upon independent variables in search of a comparison between such variables; personality traits of bus drivers and the number of bus discipline referrals were utilized.

Summary

Bus discipline referrals are at a high rate in rural Missouri school districts. Identification of certain personality traits that are more conducive in managing student misbehavior could be useful in the hiring of personnel.

Chapter four informs the reader of the results of this study. The chapter also presents data studied to determine if a relationship exists between the personality traits of bus drivers and the number of discipline referrals sent to the administration of the selected rural Missouri school districts. The final chapter of the study examines the variables that may have influenced the outcome of this study. Conclusions and implications for schools are offered in chapter five.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

The Global Five personality trait test was given to all one hundred seven regular bus route drivers of the rural Missouri school districts selected for the sample. The researcher collected the data and calculated descriptive statistics, made a scatter plot, ran crosstabs and a box plot, performed multiple *t*-tests and calculated a Pearson *r*. The variables consisted of five dichotomous variables.

Data analysis was placed in tables. Application of descriptive statistics yielded the following tables.

Results

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics for all driver referrals.

<i>n</i>	Min.	Max.	Median	Sum	Mean	SD
107	0	56	3	718	6.71	8.51

The median score is three, with 46 drivers having three or fewer discipline referrals. The mode was zero.

Twenty drivers had zero discipline referrals. The mean was 6.71, with a standard deviation of 8.51.

Eighty-seven drivers had more than three discipline referrals and accounted for 661 of the 718 discipline referrals or 92 percent of the discipline referrals. Three drivers totaled 112 of the 718 discipline referrals for 15.6 percent of the total. One of the three drivers had 56 of the 718 discipline referrals or eight percent.

The data was skewed away from the mean with a range of scores from zero to 56. The large standard deviation reflected this spread of scores.

In the table 11 and table 12 the symbols in columns two, three, four, five and six represent the Global Five personality trait test categories. Extraversion, in column four, has two oppositional type extremes: Social (S) indicates that this person feels at ease interacting with others; Reserved (R) indicates that this person feels uncomfortable and/or uninterested in social interaction. Emotional stability, in Column Three, has two oppositional type extremes: Limbic (L) and Calm (C). Limbic people are prone to moodiness. Calm people are able to maintain level emotions. With regard to orderliness, two oppositional type

extremes are in column three: Organized (O) and Unstructured (U). Organized people are more focused. Unstructured people are more scattered. Column Five has the two oppositional type extremes for Accommodation: Accommodating (A) and egocentric (E). Accommodating People tend to live for others. People that are egocentric tend to live for themselves. Intellect, in column six, has two oppositional type extremes: Non-curious (N) and Inquisitive (I). People that are non-curious are less intellectually driven. Inquisitive people are insatiable in their quest to know more.

Column One is a driver identifier. Column Seven with the heading DR reports the number of discipline referrals (DR) for the fall 2008 school semester. Column Eight refers to the standard deviations from the mean the discipline referrals represent.

Table 11

Drivers two or more SD from mean.

Driver	S/R	L/C	O/U	A/E	N/I	DR	SD
1	R	L	U	E	N	56	5
2	R	C	O	E	I	35	3
3	R	L	O	A	N	33	3
4	R	C	O	A	N	30	2
5	S	C	U	A	N	25	2

The researcher notes there is no pattern to the five personality traits in the five drivers with the most discipline. Most are reserved and non-curious.

Table 12

Drivers one SD from mean

Driver	S/R	L/C	O/U	A/E	N/I	DR	SD
1	R	C	O	A	N	23	1
2	R	L	O	A	N	21	1
3	S	L	O	E	N	19	1
4	R	C	O	E	N	16	1
5	S	C	O	A	I	16	1

Drivers with the number of discipline referrals one standard deviation from the mean are similar in personality traits to drivers with greater standard deviations. The small number based on the sample size does limit the validity of the observation.

Table 13

t-test ($p > .05$) for the Global Five Personality Test

N		Means		t-test	Significance
S=38	R=49	S=5.09	N=8.63	2.87	YES
L=31	C=76	L=8.55	C=5.96	1.435	NO
U=20	O=87	U=8.40	O=6.32	.985	NO
E=38	A=69	E=8.37	A=5.80	1.505	NO
I=28	N=79	I=6.89	N=6.65	.132	NO

Note. Score over 1.99 is significant

The t-test indicated that a significant difference in the mean discipline referrals within groups was present only for the social and reserved personality. The other four dichotomous variables t-test produced no significant difference.

Table 14

Crosstabs comparing referrals to traits

Under 7 Discipline		Over 7 Discipline		Observable
Referrals		Referrals		Significance
S=44/76%	R=31/63%	S=14/24%	R=18/37%	YES
C=60/79%	L=20/64%	C=16/21%	L=11/38%	YES
O=62/71%	U=13/65%	O=25/29%	U=7/35%	NO
A=50/72%	E=25/66%	A=19/28%	E=13/34%	NO
N=56/71%	I=19/68%	N=23/29%	I=9/32%	NO

Crosstabs indicate possible observable differences in the social and reserved personality and the limbic/calm personality.

A Pearson *r* was calculated for all variables and no correlations were deemed significant. The social and reserved personality had a correlation coefficient of .122. No other variables had higher correlation coefficients. The limbic and calm personality trait had a correlation coefficient of .113; none were significant, but the social and reserved personality may be the closest to an evolving pattern.

Analysis of Data

Examination of the data reveals that drivers with no discipline referrals appear to be social, calm, organized, accommodating and non-curious. The data of drivers with the most discipline referrals reveals they are reserved, limbic, organized, accommodating and non-curious. The data may indicate that being social and calm is important. Continued examination of the data reveals that drivers with the next most discipline referrals one standard deviation from the mean are social, calm, organized, accommodating and inquisitive. The researcher could theorize that if they had not been social and calm they might have had more discipline referrals.

*Deductive Conclusions**Null hypothesis*

There is no relationship between personality traits of school bus drivers in rural Missouri school districts and the number of student behavior referrals sent to the building administration. Based on the data presented thus far, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Alternative hypothesis

The alternate hypothesis posits that there is a relationship between personality traits of school bus drivers and the number of student behavior referrals sent to the building administration. Given the data presented, the researcher rejects the null hypothesis.

Summary

The data was presented in tables comparing the drivers with the most discipline referrals and the drivers with the fewest discipline referrals. The comparisons did reveal conclusive data leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis. Chapter Five contains the researcher's conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Introduction

The researcher found no studies suggesting that there was a relationship between personality traits of bus drivers and the number of discipline referrals that they would send to administration. The median score is three, with 46 drivers having three or fewer discipline referrals. The mode was zero. Twenty drivers had zero discipline referrals. The mean was 6.71 with a standard deviation of 8.51. The results of this study show only slight differences between personality traits of bus drivers with high and low discipline referrals. Data show that there is no pattern to the five personality traits in the five drivers with the most discipline. However, upon closer investigation, four of the five drivers with high discipline referrals are reserved and four of the five are non-curious. On the other hand, drivers with low referrals have a tendency to be more social and calm. Although the researcher fails to reject the null hypothesis, results of

this test should be looked at with some interest. School administration should consider some of these personality traits when hiring bus drivers.

Implication for Schools

No studies were found to support the notion that there are personality traits that allow some adults to handle student behavior more positively than others. There have been studies, which have shown a relationship between personality traits and job performance (Neubert, 2004). Another study showed that emotional intelligence can be considered an excellent predictor of how people are able to perform in the workplace (Goleman, 1998).

Results from this study show a slight difference in traits when analyzing the personality trait elements of extroversion and intellect. Although the differences were not significant, drivers with a high number of discipline referrals seemed to be more reserved and non-curious. The drivers with low referrals seemed to be more sociable and calm.

Administrators should examine the extroversion and intellectual elements of personality more closely. Research does suggest that there are five steps that adults should

take to ensure that students behave appropriately: be clear, provide consequences, be consistent, be caring and be willing to change (Almeida, 1995). The author contends that bus drivers who are able to perform these skills consistently are more inclined to have the personality traits of being social and are very calm in nature.

Regarding the process of hiring new bus drivers, it is the author's belief that if the administration looked for drivers who were social and calm in nature, the building principals would have far fewer bus discipline referrals with which to contend. Administrators would then spend less time dealing with bus discipline issues and more time dealing with academic issues.

Recommendations

The researcher recommends that school districts should investigate the testing of personality traits of their bus drivers. It is the author's opinion that drivers who are social and have the ability to remain calm during stressful situations will write fewer discipline referrals for the administration to handle. The researcher also recommends that districts refrain from hiring drivers who portray reserved and non-curious personalities. It is believed that

drivers with these traits will produce many more discipline referrals for administration.

Summary

No significant differences were determined between the personality traits of drivers with high discipline referrals and drivers with low discipline referrals. The personality trait elements of orderliness, accommodation, and emotional stability indicated almost no differences between the drivers with the most and those with the fewest discipline referrals. There was, however, a slightly significant difference between the personality trait elements of extroversion and intellect. Drivers with high discipline referrals had higher levels of the reserved and non-curious traits. Consequently, drivers with low discipline referrals had higher levels of sociability and calmness.

After reviewing the literature and data, the researcher concludes that district administrators should examine more closely the personality traits of their bus drivers. Although data were not conclusive, school districts that test the personality traits of their drivers should look to hire drivers who are social and calm in

nature. These personality characteristics will allow drivers to handle student discipline in more productive ways than writing discipline referrals and letting the building principal handle the disciplining of the students.

REFERENCES

- Achenbach, T., and Howell, C. (1989, November). The decline in children's emotional intelligence: Are America's children's problems getting worse? A 13-year comparison," *Journal of the American Academy of Child Adolescent Psychiatry*, November 1989.
- Allport, G.W., Odbert, H.S.(1936). Trait names: A psycholexical study. *Psychological Monographs*, 47,211.
- Almeidia, D.A. (1995, September). Behavior management and "the five c's". *Teaching PreK-8*, 26(1),88. Retrieved August 04, 2005 from <http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/delivery?vid=8&hid=112&sid=ee11f4b6-f52f-4cd3-be39-4>
- Altink, W.M.M., Greuter, M.A.M. and Roe, R.A. (1990). How do Dutch companies recruit and select? *Gids voor Personeels-management*, 69; 22-27.
- Antonioni, D. (1998). Relationship between the big five personality factor and conflict management styles. *International Journal of Conflicts Management*. 9, 336-335.
- Aspinwall, L. G., & Brunhart, S. M. (2000). What I don't

know won't hurt me: Optimism, attention to negative information, coping and health. *The science of optimism and hope: Research essays in honor of Martin E. P. Seligman. Laws of life symposium series* (pp.163-200). Philadelphia: Templeton Foundation Press.

Bain, C. (2004, May). Today's student teachers: prepared to teach versus suited to teach? *Art Education*, 57, 3. Retrieved Aug 04, 2005, from http://vnweb.hwwilsonweb.com/hww/results/results_single_ftPES.jhtml

Bar-On, R. (1997). Emotional intelligence in men and women. *Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Technical Manual* (Toronto: Multi-Health Systems, 1997).

Barrick, M. R., Stewart, G. L., & Piotrowski, M. (2002, February). Personality and job performance: Test of the mediating effects of motivation among sales representatives. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(1), 43-51.

Baute, P. (2009). *Using psychological screening to select top performers for firefighting*. Retrieved April 18, 2009 from

<http://www.paschalbaute.com/index.cfm?fuseaction=article.firefighting>

Berg, I. A., Child, D. & Dreger, R. M. (2007). Biography of Raymond Bernard Cattell: A view of his life with reflections. Retrieved February 19, 2009 from

<http://www.stthomasu.ca/~jgillis/bio.htm>

Bouckenooghe, D., Vanderheyden, K., Mestdagh, S., & Van Laethem, S., (2007). Cognitive motivation correlates of coping style in decisional conflicts. *The Journal of Psychology*, 141(6), 605-625.

Boeree, G. C. (2006). Gordon Allport 1897-1967. Personality Theories. Psychology Department, Shippensburg University. Retrieved March 17, 2009 from

<http://webpace.ship.edu/cgboer/allport.html>

Boeree, G. C. (2006). Carl jung 1875-1961. *Personality Theories*. Psychology Department, Shippensburg University. Retrieved February 14, 2009 from

<http://webpace.ship.edu/cgboer/jung.html>

Borgatta, E.F. (1964). The structure of personality characteristics. *Behavioral Science* 9, 8-17.

Borman, W. C., and Motowidlo, S. J. (1997). Task performance and contextual performance: The meaning

for personnel selection research. *Human Performance*, 10, 99-109.

Bozionelos, N. (2004, February). The big five of personality and work involvement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 19, 1. Retrieved March 04, 2009 from

<http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/detail?vid=3&hid=117&sid=0cf576d7-7c55-4525-91bf-c2f5e7499d0a%40sessionmgr102&bdata=JkF1dGhUeXB1PWlwLHVybCxjb29raWUsdWlkJmxvZ2lucGFnZT1Mb2dpbi5hc3Amc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3B1PjNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=13140250>

Bulmer, M. (2003). Francis Galton: Pioneer of Heredity and Biometry. John Hopkins University Press. Retrieved February 25, 2009 from

<http://galton.org/biography/bulmer.htm>

Carnahan, R. (2005). School bus safety task force. Missouri Secretary of State. Governor's Executive Order 05-14-05. Retrieved February 14, 2009 from [http://](http://www.sos.mo.gov/Library/reference/orders/2005/eo05_014.asp)

www.sos.mo.gov/Library/reference/orders/2005/eo05_014.asp

Carroll, R.T. (2005). Meyers-briggs type indicator.

retrieved 07 07, 2005, from the *Skeptic's Dictionary*

Website: SkepDic.com.

Cattell, E. P., & Horn, J. (2008). A short biography:

Raymond Bernard Cattell. *Cattell Family Trust*.

Retrieved October 12, 2008 from

<http://www.cattell.net/devon/rbcbio.htm>

Cattell, H. B. (1989). *The 16(PF): Personality in depth*.

Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, Inc.

Champaign, IL.

Cattell, H. E. P., & Schuerger, J. M. (2003). *Essentials of*

16(PF) assessment. Hoboken, N.J.: John Wiley & Sons

Cattell, R.B., & Cattell, H.E. (1995, December).

Personality structure and the new fifth edition of the

16pf. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 55,

926-937. Retrieved March 05, 2009 from

http://vnweb.hwwilsonweb.com/hww/results/results_single_fulltext.jhtml;hwwilsonid=3QCEJUHQB0FIDQA3DIMCFGADUNG

[II V0](#)

Cattell, R. B., Eber, H. W., & Tatsuoka, M. N. (1970).

Handbook for the 16PF. Champaign, IL.: Institute for

Personality and Ability Testing.

Center for Applications of Psychological Type, (2008). The

story of Isabel Briggs Myers. Gainesville Florida.

Retrieved February 14, 2009 from <http://www.capt.org/mbti-assessment/Isabel-myers.htm>

- Chanin, M.N., & Schneer, J.A. (1984). A study of the relationship between Jungian personality dimensions and conflict-handling behavior. *Human Relations*. 37, 863-879.
- Chapman, P.D. (1988). *Schools as sorter: Lewis m. Terman, Applied psychology, and the intelligence testing movement, 1890 1930*. New York: New York University Press. Retrieved July 07, 2008, http://eagle.sbuniv.edu:2080/Citation.asp?tb+1&_ug=sid+A39AF7D0%2D893C%2D4AA2...
- Charles, C. M. (2002a). *Essential elements of effective discipline*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Cherniss, C. (2000, April). Emotional intelligence: What it And why it matters. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, New Orleans, LA.
- Clarke, W. V., (1996, June). The specific competencies for Blue Cross reps, shoe store managers, brokers, and life insurance sales. *Activity Vector Analysis: Some Applications to the Concepts of Emotional Intelligence* June 1996.

Colbert, A. E., Mount, M. K., Harter, J. K., Witt, L., & Barrick, M. R. (2004, August). Interactive effects of personality and perceptions of the work situation on workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89,4, 599-609. Retrieved March 05, 2009 from

<http://ovidsp.tx.ovid.com/spa/ovidweb.cgi>

Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1985). The neo personality inventory manual. Odessa, FL: *Psychological Assessment Resources*.

Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (2003). *Personality in adulthood: A five-factor theory perspective*. New York: Guilford Press.

De Dreu, C.K.W., Koole, S.L., & Oldersma, F.L.(1999). On the seizing and freezing of negotiator inferences: Need for cognitive closure moderates the use of Heuristics in negotiation. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*. 25, 348-362.

Digman, J. M., & Takemoto-Chock, N.K. (1981). Factors in the natural language of personality: Reanalysis and comparison of six major studies. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 16(2), 149. Retrieved March 6, 2009 from

<http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdf?vid=6&hid=22&sid=711a6b57-c8f1-4041-b083-61ad4b8ca3fc%40sessionmgr7>

Endler, N. S., & Speer, R. L., (1998). Personality psychology. Research trends for 1993-1995. *Journal of Personality*, 66, 621-669.

Evers, W. J. G., Brouwers, W. A., & Tomic, W. (2000). Burnout and self-efficacy: A study on teachers' beliefs when implementing an innovative educational system in the Netherlands. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72(2), 227. Retrieved February 28, 2009 from

[http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/resultsadvanced?vid=22&hid=113&sid=e72800ea-48ba-48db-9d99-d90e50728be7%40sessionmgr104&bquery=\(Evers\)+and+\(Brouwers\)+and+\(Tomic\)&bdata=JkF1dGhUeXB1PWlwLHVybCxjb29raWU sdWlkJmRiPWFmaCZsb2dpbnBhZ2U9TG9naW4uYXNwJnR5cGU9MSZzaXRlPWVob3N0LWxpdmUmc2NvcGU9c2l0ZQ%3d%3d](http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/resultsadvanced?vid=22&hid=113&sid=e72800ea-48ba-48db-9d99-d90e50728be7%40sessionmgr104&bquery=(Evers)+and+(Brouwers)+and+(Tomic)&bdata=JkF1dGhUeXB1PWlwLHVybCxjb29raWU sdWlkJmRiPWFmaCZsb2dpbnBhZ2U9TG9naW4uYXNwJnR5cGU9MSZzaXRlPWVob3N0LWxpdmUmc2NvcGU9c2l0ZQ%3d%3d)

Eysenck, H. J. (1997). *Rebel with a cause: The autobiography of Hans Eysenck*. New Brunswick: Transaction Publishers.

Fancher, R.E. (1985). *The intelligence men: Makers of the IQ controversy*. New York: W.W. Norton & Company.

Flynn, T. (2006). Similar Minds. Retrieved March 3rd, 2008
from <http://www.SimilarMinds.com>

Fontaine, K. R., Manstead, A. S., & Wagner, H. (1993).
Optimism, perceived control over stress, and coping.
European Journal of Personality, 7 (4), 267-281.

Foote, C., Vermette, P., Wisniewski, S., Agnello, A., &
Pagano, C. (2000 Fall). The characteristics of bad
high school teachers reveal avoidable behaviors for
new teachers. *Education*, 121, 1. 128-135. Retrieved
August 04, 2005 from
[http://vnweb.hwwilsonweb.com/hww/results_single_ftPES.
jhtml](http://vnweb.hwwilsonweb.com/hww/results_single_ftPES.jhtml)

Foschi, R., & Cicciola, E., (2006). Politics and natural-
ism in the 20th century psychology of alfred binet.
History of Psychology 9(4):267-89, 2006 Nov, PMID:
17333631, Retrieved February 15, 2009 from [http://
www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17333631](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17333631)

Freed, J. (2008). Why school buses need safety belts.
National Coalition for School Bus Safety. Retrieved
February 14, 2009 from [http://www.ncsbs.org/index.
html](http://www.ncsbs.org/index.html)

Friedman, R., & Barry, B. (1998) What it takes to negotiate. *Psychology Today*. 31, 14-17.

Gable, R. A., & Van Acker, R. (2004). Sometimes, practice makes imperfect: Overcoming the automaticity of challenging behavior by linking of intervention to thoughts, feelings, and actions. *Education and Treatment of Children*. Vol. 27, No. 4, November 2004

Gadzella, B. M. (1999, September). Differences among cognitive-processing styles groups on personality traits. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 26, 3.
Retrieved Aug 09, 2005 from http://eagle.sbunive.edu:2056/hww/results/results_sinfulltext.jhtml?DARGS=/hww/res...

Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligence*. New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (2003, April 21). *Multiple intelligence after twenty years*. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Illinois.

Gardner, H., & Hatch, T. (1989). Multiple intelligence goes to school. *Educational Researcher*, 18(8), 4-10.

Gillham, M,W. (2001). *A Life of Sir Francis Galton: From*

Africa Exploration to the Birth of Eugenics. Oxford University Press.

- Goldberg, L. R. (1981). Language and individual differences: The search for universals in personality lexicons. In L. Wheeler (ed.), *Review of personality and social Psychology*, 2, 141-165. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York, New York: Bantam Book
- Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. 1st ed. New York: Bantam Book.
- Graziano, W. G., Jensen-Campbell, L., & Hair, E. C. (1996). Perceiving interpersonal conflict and reacting to it: The case of agreeableness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 70, 820-835.
- Groom, D. J. (2005). Steering pupils to good behavior; drivers learn how to handle bus, as well as conduct of passengers. *The Post-Standard*, . Retrieved Aug 04, 2005, from LexisNexis
- Harvey R. J., Murry, W. D., & Markham, S. E. (1995). A "big five" scoring system for the Myers-Briggs type indicator. *Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. May 1995

Retrieved March 19, 2006 from http://directory.google.com/Top/Science/Social_Sciences/Psychology/Personality/Five-Factor.

Heffner, C. (2002). Trait Theory in Personality Synopsis at ALLPSYCH Online. Retrieved October 12th, 2008, from <http://allpsych.com/personalitysynopsis/index.html>

Heller, D., Judge, T. A., & Watson D. (2002, June 7). The confounding role of personality and trait affectivity in the relationship between job and life satisfaction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23, 7. Retrieved Aug 04, 2005, from InterScience

Higgins, E. T. (2000). Does personality provide unique explanations for behavior? Personality as cross-person variability in general principles. *European Journal of Personality*. 14, 391-406.

Hollingsworth, L. S. (1926). *Gifted children: Their nature and nurture*. New York: Macmillan.

Hollingsworth, L. S. (1942). *Children above 180 IQ*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, NY: World Book.

Howard, A., & Bray, D. W. (1988). *Managerial lives in transition*. New York: Guilford Press.

Howard, P. J., & Howard, J. M. (2001a). Professional manual

for the workplace big five profile. *Center for the Applied Cognitive Studies*. Retrieved February 15, 2009 from <http://www.centacs.com/quickstart.htm>

Howard, P. J. & Howard, J. M. (2004) The big five quickstart: An introduction to the five-factor model of personality for human resource profession. Charlotte, NC: *Center for Applied Cognitive Studies*. Retrieved July 12, 2005, from <http://www.centacs.com/quickstart.htm>

Hurtz, G.M., & Donovan, J.J. (2000). Personality and job performance: The Big Five revisited. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 869-879.

Janis, J. L., & Mann L. (1977). *Decision making: A psychological analysis of conflict, choice, and commitment*. The Free Press, New York, N.Y.

John, O.P., & Srivastava, S. (1999). The big-five trait Taxonomy: History, measurement, and theoretical perspectives. In L.A. Pervin & O.P. John(Eds), [Electronic version]. *Handbook Of personality: Theory and research*, 2, 102-138. New York: Guilford Press.

Jolly, J.L. (2005, Spring). Foundations of the field of gifted education. *Gifted Child Today Magazine*, 28, 2.

Retrieved Aug 04, 2008, from EBSOhost.

Jordan, A., Lindsay, L., & Stanovich, P. J. (1997).

Classroom teachers' instructional interactions with students who are exceptional, at risk, and typically achieving. *Remedial and Special Education*, 18, 82-93
Mr/Ap '97. Retrieved January 18, 2009, from
http://vnweb.hwwilsonweb.com/hww/results/results_single_ftPES.jhtml

Jorgensen, R. S., & Johnson, J. H. (1990). Contributors to the appraisal of major life changes: Gender, perceived controllability, sensation seeking, strain, and social support. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 20, 1123-1138.

Judge, T. A., Heller, D., & Mount, M.K. (2002). Five-factor model of personality and job satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 530-341.

Judge, T. A., Martocchio, J. J., & Thoresen, C. J. (1997). Five-factor model of personality and employee absence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82, 745-755.

Lazarus, R. S. (1991). *Emotion and adaptation*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Lazarus, R. S. (1993). *From psychological distress to the*

emotions: A history of changing outlooks. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 44, 1-21.

Lee, K., Grizzarone, M., & Ashton, M. C. (2003).

Personality and the likelihood to sexually harass. *Sex Roles*, 49(1). 59-69 Retrieved September 14, 2008 from

<http://www.lrz-muenchen.de/~schmolck/smk>

Levin, I. P., Huneke, M. E., & Jasper, J. D. (2000).

Information processing at successive stages of decision making: Need for cognition and inclusion-exclusion effects. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 82, 171-193.

Lim, B., & Ployhart, R.E. (2004). Transformational

leadership: Relations to the five-factor model and team performance in typical and maximum contexts.

Journal of Applied Psychology, 89, 610-621.

Lin-Agler, L. M., Moore, D., & Zabrucky K. M. (2004,

September). Effects of personality on metacognitive self-assessments. *College Student Journal*, 38, 3.

Retrieved Aug 04, 2005, from Wilson Web, Web site:

http://vneb.hwwilsonweb.com/hww/results/results_single_fulltext.jhtml?_DARGS=/hww/

Love, K. G., DeArmond, S. (2007). The validity of assess-

- ment center ratings and 16pf personality trait scores in police sergeant promotions: A case of incremental validity. *Public Personnel Management*, 36, 1, 21-32.
- McCrae, R. R., Costa, P. T. Jr., del Pilar, G. H., Rolland, J. P., & Parker, W. D. (1998). Cross-cultural assessment of the five-factor model: The revised neo personality inventory. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 29, 171-188.
- McCrae, R. R., & John, O. P. (1992) An introduction to the five-factor model and its applications. *Journal of Personality*, 60, 175-215.
- Mills, J., Robey, D., & Smith, L. (1985). Conflict handling and personality dimensions of project management personnel. *Psychological Reports*. 57, 1135-1143.
- Minton, H.L. (1988). Lewis terman: Pioneer in psychological Testing. New York: New York Press. Retrieved July 07, 2008 from, http://eagle.sbuniv.edu:2080/Citation.asp?t b+1&_ug=sid+A39AF7D0%2D893C%2D4AA2...
- Mintu-Wimsatt, A., & Lozada, H. R. (1999). Personality and negotiations revisited. *Psychological Reports*. 84, 1159-1170.

Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2008). *School accountability report card*. Retrieved January 14, 2009 from

<http://dese.mo.gov/planning/profile/rc022094.html>

Missouri Department of Revenue (2009). Frequently asked questions - School bus endorsement/permit. Retrieved January 10, 2009 from

<http://dor.mo.gov/mvdl/drivers/faq/schoolbus.htm>

Moberg, P. J. (2001). Linking conflict strategy to the five-factor model: Theoretical and empirical

foundations. *International Journal of Conflict*

Management (1997-2002), 12, 1, 110-125. Retrieved

November 11th, 2008 from EBSCOhost

http://www.web110.epnet.com/citation.asp?tb=1&_ug=sid+F3DD88CA%2D91C1%2D4CAA...

Morin, J., & Battalio, R. (2004, Fall). Construing misbehavior: the efficacy connection in responding to misbehavior. *Journal of Positive Behavior*

Interventions, 6, 4. Retrieved Jan. 14, 2008, from

<http://proquest.umi.com/pqdweb>.

Morris, H. J. (2004). From Freud, many followers. *U.S. News & World Report*, Retrieved Aug 04, 2008, from

EBSCOhost.

Neubert, S.P. (2004). The five-factor model of personality in the workplace. Rochester Institute of Technology, Retrieved September 12, 2008 from <http://www.personalityresearch.org/papers/neubert.html>

Nicholson, I. A. M., (2006). To "correlate psychology and social ethics": Gordon Allport and the first course in American personality psychology [Electronic version]. *Journal of Personality*. 65, 3, 733-742. Retrieved February 3, 2009, from <http://www3.interscience.wiley.com/journal>

Norman, W.T. (1963). Toward an adequate taxonomy of personality attributes: Replicated factor structure in peer nomination personality ratings. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 66, 574-583.

O'Donnell, J. M. (1985). The origins of behaviorism: *American Psychology 1870-1920*. New York: New York Press.

O'Neil, D. (2006). Personality Development. Behavioral Science Department. Palomar College, San Marcos, California. Retrieved February 14, 2009 from http://anthro.palomar.edu/social/soc_3.htm

- Ones, D. S., Viswesvaran, C., and Dilchert, S. (2005). Personality at work: Raising awareness and correcting misconceptions. *Human Performance*, 18(4), 389-404.
- Ones, D. S., Dilchert, S., Viswesvaran, C., & Judge, T. A., (2007). In support of personality assessment in Organizational settings. *Personality Psychology*, 60(4), 995-1027. Retrieved March 9th, 2009, from <http://web10.epnet.com/citation.asp?tbl ug=sid+897A4896%2D4DD5%2DB>
- Oliver, J.P., Srivastave, S.(1999). The big-five trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and theoretical perspectives. University of California at Berkeley.
- Paunonen, S. V., & Ashton, M. C. (2001). Big five factor and facets and the prediction of behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 81, 524-539.
- Paunonen, S. V. (1998). Hierarchical organization of personality and prediction of behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74, 538-556.
- Palardy, J.M. (1995). Dealing with misbehaviors: Two approaches. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, June, Vol. 22 Issue 2, p. 135-141.

- Pincus, A. L., & Gurtman, M. B. (1995). The three faces of interpersonal dependency: Structural Analyses of self-report dependency measures. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 69(4), 744-758.
- Plucker, J.A.(Ed.).(2003). Human intelligence: Historical influences, current controversies, teaching resources. Retrieved October 6th, 2008, from <http://www.indiana.edu/~intell>
- Putnam, L. L., and Wilson, C. E. (1982). Communicative strategies in organizational conflicts: Reliability and validity of a measurement scale. In M. Burgoon, ed., *Communication Yearbook*. 6, 629-652. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage
- Price, J. H. (2002, May). Urban elementary school students' perceptions of fighting behaviors and concerns for personal safety. *Journal of School Health*, Vol. 72, Issue 5. Retrieved March 19, 2008, from EBSCOhost.
- Pupil Transportation Safety Institute (2006). *Principals, superintendents, school business officials, & school board members*. Retrieved April 9, 2009 from http://www.ptsi.org/school_officials.htm

- Rahim, M. A. (1983). A measure of styles of handling conflict. *Academy of Management Journal*. 26, 368-376.
- Robertson, I.T. and Makin, P.J. (1986). Management selection in Britian: A survey and critique. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 59, 45-57.
- Romaniuk, R. (2005). Rigorous road training; bus drivers could use more in dealing with rowdies: union. *Winnipeg Sun (Manitoba)*,. Retrieved Aug 04, 2008, from LexisNexis
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence, imagination, cognition, and personality. 9, 185-211. Retrieved January 31, 2009, from http://www.unh.edu/emotional_intelligence/EI%20Assets/Reprints...EI%20Proper/EI1990%20Emotional%20Intelligence.pdf
- Salter, L. (2002). Putting your personality to the test. California Job Journal. Retrieved April 9, 2009, from http://www.jobjournal.com/article_full_text.asp?artid=435
- Sandy, S. V., & Boardman, S. K. (2001, June). The influence of personality on conflict resolution styles and choices. Paper presented at the annual conference of

The International Association for Conflict Management,
Paris.

- Sandy, S. V., Boardman, S. K., & Deutsch, M. (2000).
Personality and conflict. In M. Deutsch & Coleman
(Eds.), *The handbook of conflict resolution: Theory
and practice* (pp. 289-315). San Francisco: Jossey-
Bass.
- Smith, M.K., (2002). Howard Gardner and multiple intel-
ligences. The encyclopedia of informal education.
Retrieved December 12, 2008 from [http://www.infed.
org/thinkers/gardner.htm](http://www.infed.org/thinkers/gardner.htm).
- Suplee, C. (1991, September 25). Performance-enhancement
techniques found flawed or ineffective in study. *The
Washington Post*, p. A3
- Terman, L. M. (1917). The intelligence quotient of Francis
Galton in childhood. *American Journal of Psychology*,
28, 2009-215.
- Thorndike, E. L. (1920). Intelligence and its uses.
Harpers Magazine, 140, 227-235.
- Tomich, P. C., McWhirter, J. J., & Darcy M. U. (2003).
Personality and international students' adaptation
experience. *International Education*, 33, 1. Retrieved

Aug 04, 2008 from WilsonWeb.

Tupes, E.C., & Christal, R.E. (1961). Recurrent personality factors based on trait ratings. USAF ASD Tech. Rep. No. 61-97, Lackland Airforce Base, TX: U.S. Air Force.

U. S. Census Bureau (2000). *Summary File 3*. Retrieved January 14, 2009 from <http://www.census.gov/Press-Release/www/2002/sumfile3.html>

Van Den Berg, P. T., and Feij, J. A. (1993). Personality traits and job characteristics as predictors of job experiences. *European Journal of Personality*, 7, 337-357.

Van der Zee, K. I., Buunk, B. P., & Sanderman, R. (1998). Neuroticism and reactions to social comparison information among cancer patients. *Journal of Personality*, 66, 176-194.

Van der Zee, K. I., Buunk, B.P., Sanderman, R., Botke, G., & Van den Bergh, F. (1999). The big five and identification-contrast process in social comparison in adjustment to cancer treatment. *European Journal of Personality*, 13, 307-326.

Van der Zee, K., van Oudenhoven, J. P., & de Grijs E.

(2004). Personality, threat, and cognitive and emotional reactions to stressful intercultural situations. *Journal of Personality*, 72(5), 1069-1096.

Waller, J. C. (2004, April). Becoming a Darwinian: the micro-politics of Sir Francis Galton's scientific career 1859-65. *Annals of Science*, 61,2. Retrieved Aug 04, 2008, from EBSCOhost.

Weinstein, M. (2008, August). Personality and performance. *Training*, 45(7), 10-10. Retrieved March 9, 2009 from <http://web10.epnet.com/citation.asp?tb=1& ug=sid+897A4896%2D3A96%2D4DD5%2DBC60%2D7DFE00351DF3%40sessionmgr2+db+afh%2Cbuh%2Cbwh%2Cf5h%2Chch%2Chxh%2Cmth%2Culh+cp+1+4F67& us=mh+1+frn+41+sl+%2D1+hd+False+hs+False+or+Date+fh+False+ss+SO+sm+KS+mdb+afh%2Cbuh%2Cbwh%2Cf5h%2Chch%2Chxh%2Cmth%2Culh+dstb+KS+sel+False+ri+KAAACB5A00066153+D165& uso=hd+False+tg%5B0+%2D+st%5B0+%2Dpersonality++and++job++performance+db%5B7+%2Dulh+db%5B6+%2Dmth+db%5B5+%2Dhxh+db%5B4+%2Dhch+db%5B3+%2Df5h+db%5B2+%2Dbwh+db%5B1+%2Dbuh+db%5B0+%2Dafh+ex%5B0+%2Dproximity+op%5B0+%2D+8C65&fn=41&rn=41>

Wiggins, J. S. (Ed.). (1996). *The five-factor model of personality: Theoretical perspectives*. New York:

Guilford Press.

Woolfolk, A. (Ed.). (2007). *Educational psychology*. The Ohio State University, Boston, MA.

VITA

Stanley Brent Depee' was born to Alan Kent Depee' and Donna Gayle Polk Depee' in 1967 while his parents attended college at the University of Missouri. The author grew up living in many different places in the United States and Brazil.

The author graduated from Liberty High School in Mountain View, Missouri, in 1986. He attended Southwest Baptist University and graduated from Bolivar with a degree in Secondary Education in 1991. In 1992, he married Whitney Dawn Forrester Depee', and in 1993 he accepted his first teaching assignment at Stockton Middle School. In April of 1996 their first daughter was born, Mackenzie Brooke, and they moved to Warsaw, Missouri, to begin teaching at John Boise Middle School. In 1998 the author graduated from Southwest Baptist University with a Master's degree in Education Administration. In 2000, another child was born, a son named Dalton James, and the author began his career in administration by serving as the assistant High School Principal at Warsaw. In 2001, the author became

the principal at John Boise Middle School and in 2005 he served as the High School and Middle School Principal at Warsaw.

In 2007 another son was welcomed into the family, Dayne Alan. On the day of his birth, the author accepted the superintendent's position at Spokane R-VII. That same spring, the author began work towards his doctorate of education with Lindenwood University.

The author enjoys spending time with his family and watching his children grow physically, mentally, and spiritually. His passions include serving God, family activities, and golf, deer, and turkey hunting.