

Fall 2010

Army Continuing Education System: The Role of Emotional Intelligence in Army Education Leadership as It Pertains to Team Performance

Olivia Marie Penrod

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu/etd>

Recommended Citation

Penrod, Olivia Marie, "Army Continuing Education System: The Role of Emotional Intelligence in Army Education Leadership as It Pertains to Team Performance" (2010). *Electronic Theses and Dissertations*. 318.
<https://digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu/etd/318>

This dissertation (open access) is brought to you for free and open access by the Jack N. Averitt College of Graduate Studies at Georgia Southern Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Electronic Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Georgia Southern Commons. For more information, please contact digitalcommons@georgiasouthern.edu.

ARMY CONTINUING EDUCATION SYSTEM:
THE ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN ARMY EDUCATION
LEADERSHIP AS IT PERTAINS TO TEAM PERFORMANCE

by

OLIVIA MARIE HAMIL PENROD

(Under the Direction of Lucindia Chance)

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine if the level of emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists plays a role in team performance of Counselors while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction. All 208 Education Services Officers, Education Services Specialists, and Counselors around the world were asked to participate in this study. The Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists were asked to complete the Emotional Quotient-inventory: Short (EQ-i:S) online. Army Education Counselors were asked to complete a newly constructed survey, Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate in ACES, which was administered online. Responses to the surveys were provided by 36% of the Army Continuing Education System personnel. A multiple regression analysis determined there was not a significant relationship between the EQ-i:S score of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists and the team performance level of Army Education Center Counselors while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction. However, both job satisfaction and organizational climate levels were found to have strong, positive relationships with team performance levels among Counselors at the .001 level. Additional analyses were

conducted to determine the effects of age and gender on emotional intelligence, team performance, organizational climate, and job satisfaction levels. The effects of age were not found to be significant. However, the effects of gender on team performance, job satisfaction, and organizational climate levels were found to have strong, positive relationships that were statistically significant. By knowing the factors that influence team performance levels, the Army Continuing Education System can improve measures that influence job satisfaction and organizational climate at Army Education Centers.

INDEX WORDS: Emotional intelligence, Team performance, Job satisfaction, Organizational climate, Army Continuing Education System, Education Services Officers, Education Services Specialists, Counselors, Leadership

ARMY CONTINUING EDUCATION SYSTEM:
THE ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN ARMY EDUCATION
LEADERSHIP AS IT PERTAINS TO TEAM PERFORMANCE

by

OLIVIA MARIE HAMIL PENROD

A.A., East Central Community College, 1997

B.A., University of Southern Mississippi, 1999

M.Ed., University of Southern Mississippi, 2000

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of Georgia Southern University in
Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

STATESBORO, GEORGIA

2010

© 2010

Olivia Marie Hamil Penrod

All Rights Reserved

ARMY CONTINUING EDUCATION SYSTEM:
THE ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN ARMY EDUCATION
LEADERSHIP AS IT PERTAINS TO TEAM PERFORMANCE

by

OLIVIA MARIE HAMIL PENROD

Major Professor: Lucindia Chance

Committee: Russell Mays
Don Stumpf

Electronic Version Approved:
December 2010

DEDICATION

The author would like to dedicate her doctoral degree to God who gave her wisdom, strength, and courage to successfully complete the program. She would like to thank her parents, Mr. James and Dr. Burnette Hamil, and her husband, Mr. Jonathan Penrod, for their never-ending support and encouragement throughout this process and always. She is forever thankful.

I can do all things through Christ which strengtheneth me.

Philippians 4:13 (KJV)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author is truly grateful for her doctoral committee Chair, Dr. Lucindia Chance, for all her assistance, encouragement, and support throughout this process. Sincere appreciation is extended to Dr. Russell Mays and Dr. Don Stumpf for their continuous support and guidance on her committee.

The author would like to thank Ms. Carolyn Darsey for giving her the opportunity to begin her career in ACES as an intern. She would like to thank Mr. Anthony Clarke, Mr. Chuck Walker, Ms. Pam King, Mr. Dave Nalisnick, Ms. Gail Burgohy, and colleagues who provided the needed support to complete this doctoral program. She would like to thank Dr. Robin Ellert for her doctoral research in ACES and her support.

The author would like to thank her co-workers at the SFC Paul R. Smith Army Education Center at Fort Stewart, Georgia, and those who participated in the study. The author would like to extend her appreciation to family and friends for the motivation and support they provided. Additional appreciation is extended to Multi-Health Systems for allowing her to use the EQ-i:S in this study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	7
LIST OF TABLES	11
LIST OF FIGURES	13
 CHAPTER	
I INTRODUCTION	14
Background of the Study	15
Statement of the Problem.....	28
Research Question	29
Significance of the Study.....	30
Procedures.....	31
Limitations	36
Definition of Terms.....	37
Summary	38
II LITERATURE REVIEW.....	40
Introduction.....	40
Army Continuing Education System	40
Army Leadership	41
Theoretical Frameworks of Emotional Intelligence	46
Emotional Intelligence and Performance.....	52
Team Performance	63

	Organizational Climate	67
	Job Satisfaction	70
	Summary	73
III	METHODOLOGY	75
	Introduction	75
	Research Question	76
	Research Design.....	77
	Sample and Sampling	77
	Instruments.....	78
	Data Collection	80
	Data Analysis	81
	Summary	82
IV	REPORT OF DATA AND DATA ANALYSIS.....	84
	Introduction.....	84
	Research Question	84
	Research Design.....	85
	Response Rate	85
	Demographics	86
	Data Analysis.....	88
	Summary	103

		10
V	SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS	106
	Summary	106
	Analysis of Findings.....	107
	Discussion of Research Findings	108
	Conclusions	113
	Implications	114
	Recommendations	118
	Dissemination.....	119
	Concluding Thoughts	119
	REFERENCES.....	120
	APPENDICES.....	135
A	LETTER TO EDUCATION SERVICES OFFICER AND EDUCATION SERVICES SPECIALIST PARTICIPANTS.....	136
B	LETTER TO COUNSELOR PARTICIPANTS	139
C	INFORMED CONSENT.....	142
D	TEAM PERFORMANCE, JOB SATISFACTION, AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE IN ACES SURVEY.....	145
E	IRB APPROVAL	153

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Studies Related to Educational Leadership Regarding Emotional Intelligence and Performance.....	56
Table 2: Studies Related to Training Regarding Emotional Intelligence and Performance.....	60
Table 3: Studies Related to Individuals and Teams Regarding Emotional Intelligence and Performance.....	63
Table 4: Demographic Information - Education Services Officer Respondents	86
Table 5: Demographic Information - Education Services Specialist Respondents	87
Table 6: Demographic Information - Counselor Respondents	88
Table 7: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation among Team Performance, Emotional Quotient, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate.....	89
Table 8: Regression of Team Performance on Emotional Quotient, Organizational Climate, and Job Satisfaction	90
Table 9: Descriptive Statistics of Correlation among Team Performance, Emotional Quotient and Job Satisfaction.....	92
Table 10: Regression of Team Performance on Emotional Quotient and Job Satisfaction	93
Table 11: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation among Team Performance, Emotional Quotient, and Organizational Climate	94
Table 12: Regression of Team Performance on Emotional Quotient and Organizational Climate.....	94
Table 13: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation among Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate.....	95
Table 14: Regression of Team Performance on Job Satisfaction and Organizational Climate	95
Table 15: t-Test Results and Descriptive Statistics for Emotional Quotient Level by Gender	96

Table 16: ANOVA Results and Descriptive Statistics for Emotional Quotient Level of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists by Age	97
Table 17: t-Test Results and Descriptive Statistics for Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate Levels by Gender	99
Table 18: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation among Team Performance, Emotional Quotient, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate Regarding Gender	101
Table 19: ANOVA Results and Descriptive Statistics for Team Performance Level by Age	102
Table 20: ANOVA Results and Descriptive Statistics for Job Satisfaction Level by Age	102
Table 21: ANOVA Results and Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Climate Level by Age	103

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Regression Line of Emotional Quotient Scores on Team Performance
Scores91

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"Leadership is not a natural trait, something inherited like the color of eyes or hair...Leadership is a skill that can be studied, learned, and perfected by practice" (Department of the Army, 1999, p. 2-10). Since leadership is learned, leader attributes can be changed. "Leader attributes can be characterized as mental, physical, and emotional. Successful leaders work to improve those attributes" (Department of the Army, 1999, p. 2-10).

Since the emotional component of leadership is important, Barbuto and Burbach (2006) stated that the concept of emotional intelligence is a valuable component of leadership. According to Goleman (2006), the concept of emotional intelligence consists of self-regulation, self-awareness, motivation, empathy, and social skill. Using these components, one could manage one's own behavior and be successful in navigating through social situations (Murphy & Sideman, 2006). Linking the usage of emotional intelligence characteristics with leadership and performance resulted in increased performance among employees within various federal agencies (Gowing, O'Leary, Brienza, Cavallo, & Crain, 2006). Particularly among educational leaders, the display of emotional intelligence aspects has been found critical to success in schools (Bardach, 2008).

Contemporary research in the field of educational leadership has shown the need for educational leaders to possess certain competencies that better equip them for more

effective leadership (Ellert, 2008). The primary competency found by Bardach (2008) for future educational administrators was the need for emotional intelligence. When working with an emotionally intelligent leader in education, performance and competence could be increased among employees and students. According to Kambeya (2008), leadership provided by principals that included good interpersonal communication skills lead to an atmosphere contributing to better teaching and learning. Teachers were more enthusiastic about teaching as a result.

With the use of proper interpersonal skills using emotional intelligence characteristics, educational leaders in the Army Continuing Education System, known as Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists, may also see an increase in performance among the education staff. However, no previous studies have been conducted to determine the effects of emotional intelligence among Army education leadership. Therefore, this study focused on the measurement of emotional intelligence and its relationship to Army education leadership and team performance while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction.

Background

Since emotional intelligence is shown to be important in effectively managing ourselves and our relationships, it is important to understand how it relates to leadership. Northouse (2007) wrote that leadership is a concept that is known to have many meanings. However, it is generally described as a method in which an individual inspires others to achieve a common goal. Therefore, leadership allows individuals to create a common vision which the followers agree to pursue. Effective leaders allow for greater clarity of goals, which reduces uncertainty (Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003). This review of

the literature includes information about (1) Army education leadership, (2) theoretical frameworks of emotional intelligence, (3) performance in educational leadership as it pertains to emotional intelligence, (4) linkages between emotional intelligence and performance, (5) future leaders as well as individual and team performance, (6) organizational climate, and (7) job satisfaction.

Army Education Leadership

Being servants of the nation, Army leaders have a great responsibility to ensure the success of missions (Thomas, 2006). As such, the Army defines leadership as “influencing people by providing purpose, direction, and motivation, while operating to accomplish the mission and improve the organization” (Department of the Army, 2007, p. 1). Much of what has been described as Army military leadership not only applies to soldiers but also to civilians who work for the Army (Department of the Army, 2006a).

Army civilian leaders can be found in the Army Continuing Education System (ACES) throughout the world at Army Education Centers. According to the Department of the Army (2006b), ACES staff members include Education Services Officers (ESO), Education Services Specialists (ESS), and Counselors. These personnel are responsible for developing each Army Education Center so that the educational programs they provide will primarily enhance the soldiers’ job performance, skill qualifications, critical thinking skills, and career potential.

Even though these three types of personnel play an important role in these endeavors, Department of the Army (2006b) stated that an ESO is the individual in charge of each installation’s Army Education Center. The ESO is the primary individual responsible for determining educational needs. Once the needs are determined, the ESOs

work with colleges and universities as well as the community to form partnerships that will provide the courses and programs to meet those needs. In order to provide these services, an installation ESO may be responsible for a budget of \$4 million. In order to provide the needed services utilizing the funds, ESOs may supervise as many as 100 employees (Workforce Compensation and Performance Service, 1974).

Similar to the duties of the ESO, Education Services Specialists (ESS) serve in managerial positions. Their positions may be supervisory or non-supervisory. Education Services Specialists may provide management or supervision of local education programs as well as serve as a liaison between the military and civilian communities. They may sustain communication with the various levels of professional education associations (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 1991).

Since ESOs and Education Services Specialists serve in key leadership positions, it is important that they have the competencies needed to be effective leaders. In a study by Ellert (2008), Army ESOs were surveyed to determine core competencies needed to be effective educational leaders. Nine of the 67 competencies were determined to be critical. Three of those competencies included listening enthusiastically, building trust, and balancing requirements of the mission with the welfare of the followers. According to Bar-On (2002) and Goleman (1998), these three competencies are related to emotional intelligence. To better understand the connection between these competencies and emotional intelligence, an overview of the theoretical frameworks of emotional intelligence is needed.

Theoretical Frameworks of Emotional Intelligence

With current findings showing the need for educational leaders to possess skills in building relationships, it is important to understand emotional intelligence and its connection with effective educational leadership. In the field of psychology, the discovery and development of emotional intelligence has been occurring for many years beginning with Thorndike's work in social intelligence (Murphy & Sideman, 2006). In the 1980s, Professor Howard Gardner posited that intelligence was more than just a single measure. He theorized that there were seven intelligences. Among the multiple intelligences were musical, bodily-kinesthetic, logical-mathematical, linguistic, spatial, interpersonal, and intrapersonal intelligences (Gardner, 1993). However, not until recently has scientific research been conducted on emotional intelligence to determine its real value. The research into emotional intelligence was seen as important as psychologists saw the need for exploration beyond traditional ideas of intelligence or the intelligence quotient (IQ) (Murphy & Sideman, 2006).

Emotional intelligence is focused on how emotion and intelligence are connected. The premise of emotional intelligence includes that cognition allows for emotions to help in processing thoughts, which allows a person to think intelligently about emotions (Rivers, Brackett, Salovey, & Mayer, 2007). Kouzes and Posner (2006) described emotional intelligence as the means by which a person effectively deals with oneself and the relationships in which they become involved.

Along with this early research came the term "emotional intelligence" (EI) as it was coined by a group of researchers, which included Salovey and Mayer. Not long after the term was introduced, Goleman (1997) conducted further research and published a

book about it, allowing a larger population to become aware of emotional intelligence. In addition to Salovey, Mayer, and Goleman, Bar-On (2002) conducted further research.

From these groups of individuals came three models of EI that are widely used today. First, Salovey and Mayer (1997) described EI as an ability to recognize and understand emotions in order to help create and control thoughts. Second, Goleman (1998) defined EI as a set of competencies, skills, and abilities that are learned allowing individuals to manage their own actions and influence those of others. Much of the work on emotional intelligence has been conducted by Goleman (1998). Third, Bar-On's (2007) model included that EI is a set of traits and abilities that allow people to deal effectively with others and manage their own emotions in ways that encourage emotional well-being. Bar-On (2007) phrased the term "emotional quotient" (EQ).

Instruments have been developed to scientifically evaluate EI. Using these instruments, individuals can be assessed to determine their levels of EI. Individuals with high EI scores are able to manage situations by relating to others and responding to their needs. They are able to effectively deal with change that not only deals with the individual but also change that involves others. Oftentimes, this effective management of emotions requires that individuals have a positive outlook on life and be self-motivated (Bar-On, 2007).

According to Goleman (2006), there are five components of emotional intelligence. First, through self-awareness, individuals are able to recognize their emotions and drives and understand how they affect others. This is characterized by self-confidence and rational self-assessment. Just as individuals are able to identify their emotions, they must also be able to keep their emotions under control through the use of

self-management. As mentioned earlier, EI was not only determined to be a learned skill, but it also increases with age. By managing one's emotions, an individual must be able to manage unnecessary or unwarranted actions of others by how the individual's emotions are portrayed (Ware, 2006).

The second category, self-regulation, is the ability to manage urges and moods by thinking before taking action. An individual exhibiting self-regulation can be trusted and has integrity. One who has self-regulation can resist the urge to act in a moment of weakness, allowing one to think more logically before making a decision (Goleman, 2006).

Motivation is the third identified component of emotional intelligence as developed by Goleman (2006). Individuals who are motivated are able to work toward a goal without the requirement of a reward. They are passionate about what they are doing and are driven to achieve. Optimism is often a characteristic of those who are motivated to achieve. Leaders who possess this type of motivation are often able to build teams with similar characteristics.

Whereas the three previous characteristics have dealt with personal competence, the next two represent social competence. Goleman (2006) stated that the fourth component was empathy. One who is empathic can understand others' emotional stances. As such, an individual can respond to others based upon her or his understanding of the emotional responses of others. By understanding others' emotions, an emotionally intelligent individual will be sensitive to others and respond accordingly. Those in leadership positions will be able to better keep skilled members on their staff.

Lastly, EI is characterized by the use of social skills. With the appropriate use of social skills, one can properly handle relationships and network with others. Individuals are able to build trust and connections. Socially skilled individuals tend to be effective in leadership positions and are able to persuade those around them. This component is what allows leaders to put EI to use (Goleman, 2006).

Ware (2006) described social awareness as responding appropriately to the emotions presented by others. Incorporating personal awareness and social awareness allows a person to exhibit relationship management. This aspect is a culminating feature that helps to build trust in relationships with others and encourages cooperation. Since having trusting relationships encourages cooperation, it is important to examine how EI and performance in educational leadership are related.

Emotional Intelligence and Performance in Educational Leadership

Since building trust, encouraging cooperation, and managing relationships involve interpersonal communication skills, it is important to see the role of these factors in educational leadership, beginning with the grade school level. Kambeya (2008) found that school principals contribute to the overall school climate and level of student success. Positive interpersonal communication perceived by teachers served as an encourager to give their all in teaching. Therefore, when a principal maintains good interpersonal communication with teachers, teacher performance is dramatically increased. With increased teacher performance, an increase in student achievement also occurs. Even though teachers directly impact student achievement, Kambeya's (2008) study supported previous findings that principals play a major role in student achievement by impacting teacher performance.

Like principals, school Counselors contribute to a school's climate and overall student success. According to Pellitteri, Stern, Shelton, and Mullen-Ackerman (2006), school Counselors work with all of those involved in the educational community to include students, teachers, parents, and administrators, which places them in the role of an education leader. Since school Counselors serve at the hub of emotions of the school, their level of emotional intelligence plays a key role not only in motivating students for success but to also influence other education professionals at the school. Overall, their emotional intelligence skills play a major role in the overall success of the school. Similar to a principal, an ESO oversees Education Counselors (Department of the Army, 2006b) who not only contribute to the educational climate but ultimately to the success of the students.

Additional research has been conducted regarding emotional intelligence in educational programs to prepare future administrators. Bardach (2008) found that educational leadership programs should include EI training for the students who will be future leaders in education. In Bardach's study, middle school principals with higher EI levels were determined to have better performing schools. Through the research, EI training was found to be beneficial as it resulted in an increase in EI levels. This finding supported the notion that, unlike IQ, individuals can increase their EI abilities. Further studies have shown that EI is vital to effective leadership. Barbuto and Burbach (2006) found that interpersonal skills and social intelligence were needed for positive leadership efforts. Since studies have shown the effects of EI training for future educational administrators, knowing the relation between EI with performance and future leaders especially in the federal government is essential.

Linking Emotional Intelligence with Performance and Future Leaders

The importance of understanding which capabilities, particularly EI skills, are needed for effective leadership, including the selection and development of leaders, was found by Brown and Moshavi (2005). Related to employee and leader selection in the federal government is the Office of Personnel Management (OPM), which is a psychological research center for the federal government. The OPM manages the human resource policies for nearly two million federal employees. Gowing et al. (2006) determined that the development of leadership competency models can be linked with EI competencies. Other results of the study showed further ties to EI and potential leadership. While some individuals were thought to be potential leaders, many ended up not being considered strong potential leaders largely due to their insensitivity, inability to work in a group, and inability to clearly express themselves, showing that leadership potential can be further determined by EI measures (Bar-On, Handley, & Fund, 2006).

The selection, assessment, and development of leaders were found to have strong ties with EI in a study conducted with Johnson and Johnson employees (Gowing et al., 2006). Using the Emotional Competence Inventory, EI scores were obtained from employees' supervisors, peers, and direct report. The inventory addressed four main aspects of EI, which included self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills. Those scores were compared with the participants' performance ratings of the previous two years. Those individuals who were determined to be strong leaders were rated highly by their supervisor and direct report on the four aspects of the Emotional Competence Inventory. Of the four aspects of the inventory, the employees

received their highest ratings from their peers on self awareness and self-management (Gowing et al., 2006).

Other federal organizations including the Defense Finance and Accounting Service (DFAS) have seen the need to enable and identify future leaders. DFAS is an organization that pays military service members as well as civilian employees working with the military. In the pilot study conducted with DFAS employees, the Emotional Competence Inventory was administered and was followed by EI training. Then the Emotional Competence Inventory was re-administered. Results indicated improved EI competencies (Gowing et al., 2006). Results of the study conducted by Gowing et al. were consistent with findings that EI competencies can be learned. Since previous studies have established that EI competencies are needed for future leaders in the federal government, examining the relationship between EI and individual performance is the next step.

Emotional Intelligence and Individual Performance

Further linking leadership and performance to emotional intelligence, Bar-On (2007) found that individuals who are emotionally intelligent perform better than those who do not have high scores on EI measures. Whether in education or in the workplace, individuals with high EI scores tend to perform better than those with low EI scores. Performance ratings and EI competency levels were found to be related among U. S. Air Force recruiters. Bar-On, Handley, and Fund (2006) found that the higher the level of EI, the better the recruiter did in their job performance. By assessing EI levels prior to selection, 70% of individuals could be correctly identified for their level of EI. Bar-On (2007) stated that 95% of the recruiters surpassed their required annual quotas as a result

of accurately matching recruiters to the EI model. The recruiters were able to better read the potential recruits to determine if they would be good matches for the Air Force. This allowed the Air Force to increase their recruitment efforts and enlist recruits who were better matched for the military.

Related to age and EI levels, Boyatzis and Sala (2004) found that older participants were rated by themselves and others as having higher levels of EI competencies than younger participants. In addition, females tended to have higher EI levels than men. However, educational level did not make a difference in the level of EI. While understanding the effects of EI and the performance of individuals, it is necessary to extend this understanding to the performance of teams.

Emotional Intelligence and Team Performance

Even though individual performance is important, Goleman (1998) stated that the collective work of the team can also become more productive. Individuals may have high IQs and technical expertise, but the team mind is much more intelligent than the individual. Therefore, working together greatly benefits the organization. While individual IQ is important, the IQ does not ensure individuals will be effective team members. Incorporation of emotional intelligence into the group allows the team to be more successful (Goleman, 1998).

Supporting the notion that the team is even more capable than the individual, previous studies showed the importance of leadership. Whether individuals were future direct leaders or non-supervisory employees, such as the recruiters, leadership still played a role in the organization's performance. Studies have also been conducted regarding team performance. According to Leamornsir and Schwindt (2002), not only is

emotional intelligence important for individual performance, but emotional intelligence is also helpful in predicting organizational productivity.

Jordan and Ashkanasy (2006) explored emotional intelligence as it related to team effectiveness. Their study involved the development of 35 teams who met regularly and reported various aspects that could influence work performance and effectiveness such as their interactions with other team members, processes, and disposition of the group. Results of the study showed a direct relationship between high emotional self-awareness and team effectiveness.

Further exploration of emotional intelligence and its effects on team performance was conducted by Elfenbein (2006), who found that employees who could better identify the positive emotions of team members were expected to have better team performance. Team members enjoyed working with others on the team when they could accurately identify others' sense of positive emotions such as contentment. As a result, the team was more successful in reaching its goals.

Organizational Climate

Emotional intelligence has been shown to influence team performance, and organizational climate is another factor that has been shown to influence performance. Stringer (2002) stated that both behavior and motivation of employees in an organization can be influenced by organizational climate. To better define the term:

Organizational climate is a relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organization that (a) is experienced by its members, (b) influences their behavior, and (c) can be described in terms of their values of a particular set of characteristics (or attributes) of the organization. (Tagiuri, 1968, p. 27).

According to Voon, Hamali, and Tankau (2009) a positive climate was found to improve the performance of organizations. In addition, a supportive climate may also influence performance when incorporating positivity and psychological capital. Like organizational climate, job satisfaction was shown to influence the performance of teams.

Job Satisfaction

A number of factors influence the level of job satisfaction of employees. Pay, promotion opportunities, communication, and relationships with co-workers are a few of those factors (Spector, 1985). Factors such as communication are essential to team performance (Levi, 2007). Studies have also found differences in job satisfaction between federal employees and those who did not work for the federal government regarding the status of tenure. Differences between gender and race have also been found to influence job satisfaction (Pitts, 2009).

A review of the literature suggested that increased levels of emotional intelligence greatly impact the performance of individuals and teams, whether in education (Bardach, 2008; Kambeya, 2008; Pelleriti, Stern, Shelton, & Mullen-Ackerman, 2006), military recruiting (Bar-On, Handley, & Fund, 2006), or the development of future leaders (Bar-On, Handley, & Fund, 2006; Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Gowing et al., 2006). With these studies, federal agencies were examined as well as educational situations. As a federal agency, the Army Continuing Education System is also an educational entity that oversees the provision of educational opportunities within the Department of the Army (Department of the Army, 2006b). Being leaders in the Army Continuing Education System, ESOs are responsible for the efforts of their organization including the supervision of the staff at their respective education centers. Also assisting in the

managerial aspects are Education Services Specialists. Studies have shown that team performance can have great benefits for organizations when emotional intelligence is utilized (Elfenbein, 2006; Jordan & Ashkanasy, 2006; Leeamornsir & Schwindt, 2002). In addition, since organizational climate (Stringer 2002) and job satisfaction (Voon, Hamali, & Tangkau, 2009) have been shown to influence performance, the current study examined their relationship with team performance. With the lack of studies on emotional intelligence as it relates to Army education leadership and team performance, there was a gap in the literature.

Statement of the Problem

Possessing skills in emotional intelligence has been found essential to effective leadership particularly as it pertains to job performance in an organization. Correspondingly, leaders in the Army Continuing Education System need to have emotional intelligence skills to be effective. Particularly for ESOs, three competencies were determined to be critical to their performance as education leaders, all of which are related to emotional intelligence. Recent studies have shown that individuals and teams were found to perform better at their jobs when increased levels of emotional intelligence were present.

Previous studies have been conducted in school settings as well as in other organizations which have shown the benefits of increased levels of emotional intelligence. However, Army Education Centers in themselves are not educational institutions; they do not directly teach classes but provide peripheral services and programs that assist students in obtaining their education. As a result, it was necessary to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers

and Education Services Specialists and the team performance of Counselors in education centers as previous studies were lacking in this area.

Since previous research was deficient as it pertains to the Army Continuing Education System and emotional intelligence, the importance of this research could be monumental for the future performance of Army education. As such, the study could have revolutionary implications in the worldwide Army education community. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to determine if the level of emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists plays a role in team performance of Counselors while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction.

Research Question

The focus of this study was to determine the levels of emotional intelligence characterized by Army Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists and team performance of the Education Counselors while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction. Evaluation of the level of emotional intelligence was conducted through the use of Education Services Officers' and Education Services Specialists' self-assessments on the Emotional Quotient Inventory: Short (EQ-i: S). Team performance, organizational climate, and job satisfaction of the Counselors was determined through the use of a newly constructed assessment. The current study was designed to answer the following overarching research question: What is the magnitude of the relationship between the level of emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists and team performance of Counselors at Army Education Centers while taking into consideration organizational

climate and job satisfaction? The hypothesis resulting from this question is the following: There will be a significant relationship among the EQ-i:S score and team performance of the Counselors while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction.

Significance of the Study

Previous research has shown the significance of emotional intelligence in schools (Kambeya, 2008) and federal agencies (Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Gowing et al., 2006), and with individual (Bar-On, 2007; Bar-On, Handley, & Fund, 2006) and team performance (Elfenbein, 2006; Goleman, 1998; Jordan & Ashkanasy, 2006; Leeamornsir & Schwindt, 2002). However, there has been insufficient research on emotional intelligence and its connection to Army education. Army Education Centers provide support services that enable students to obtain post-secondary education; they do not directly teach students. The current study seeks to fill that void.

In addition, this research is important to the future performance levels of Army Education Centers around the world, especially since the number of Army Continuing Education System employees were reduced to half of the previous size during fiscal years 2006 and 2007 (Ramberger & Sticha, 2006). With the shortage of staff, there is an even more compelling reason to do more with less. Results of this study will determine if there is a link between the emotional intelligence levels of the leadership of Army Education Centers and the role the EI level plays in team performance of education centers.

If linkages exist, Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists can be better prepared to obtain the levels of emotional intelligence they will need to

possess in order to better lead their education centers. By knowing the relationship between emotional intelligence and team performance of Army Education Centers as well as the organizational climate and job satisfaction experienced by their staff, training opportunities can be provided to Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists to increase their level of emotional intelligence. With increases in emotional intelligence levels, organizational performance can be made more efficient as a result of improved team performance.

Procedures

Research Design

The current study was designed to measure the magnitude of the relationship between the emotional intelligence level of Education Services Officers (ESOs) and Education Services Specialists and the team performance level of the Counselors at Army Education Centers while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction. Therefore, a multiple regression research design was utilized. It is important to understand the rationale for the selection of this methodology. The purpose of multiple regression research, according to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007), is to measure the size of the relationship between the criterion variable and two or more predictor variables being studied. In addition, the scores from one variable will be able to predict the scores on the other variable as this is a form of correlational research. Therefore, the independent variable was the emotional intelligence level of ESOs and Education Services Officers, organizational climate, and job satisfaction. The dependent variable was the team performance level of Counselors in the Army Continuing Education

System. The variables were measured to determine the degree of relationship between them.

Sample and Sampling

All of the Army Continuing Education System's civilian education leaders, ESOs and ESSs, as well as Counselors were asked to participate in the study. The Army Continuing Education System is divided into regions in the United States as well as other areas throughout the world. An example is the southeast region which provides education services to soldiers in Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Puerto Rico, as well as several foreign countries. A few of the foreign countries served by the southeast region include Argentina, Brazil, Haiti, and Mexico (Department of the Army, 2006b). Army Education Center personnel around the world from each region were asked to participate in this multiple regression study. According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007), researchers typically do not have access to study the entire target population.

The researcher requested permission for their participation through the researcher's ESO, who in turn requested permission from the Southeast Army Continuing Education System Regional Director. From that level, approval was subsequently requested from the Installation Management Command (IMCOM) Army Continuing Education System. The number of individuals in each of those positions was provided by the Freedom of Information Act Office. Once the approvals were granted, individuals were asked to participate. For a multiple regression study, 76 individuals was the minimum number of participants needed in order to have statistical significance at the .05 level with three predictor variables and an anticipated effect size of 0.15 (Cohen,

1993). As such, the entire population of 208 of the Army Continuing Education System's ESOs, Education Services Specialists, and Counselors were asked to participate since there were 41 ESOs, 74 Education Services Specialists, and 93 Counselors worldwide (D. Hindman, personal communication, June 25, 2010).

Instruments

Since two variables were being measured, two instruments, the Emotional Quotient Inventory: Short (EQ-i:S) (Multi-Health Systems, 2004) and a newly constructed instrument which measured levels of team performance, job satisfaction, and organizational climate were employed. This was a multiple regression study. To measure the levels of emotional intelligence possessed by ESOs and ESSs, the EQ-i:S was utilized to provide the total Emotional Quotient score. This instrument was designed to measure five aspects which include interpersonal relationships, intrapersonal characteristics, stress management, adaptability, and general mood. For validity measurement purposes, scales pertaining to positive impressions and an inconsistency index were included. According to Bar-On (2002), the inconsistency index allows the researcher to determine validity by observing a consistency in response patterns. The positive impressions scale allows for the determination of validity as well since very high scores on this scale indicate one may be trying to appear more positive than one is. If they have a very low score, they could also be trying to give a false impression. This online self-assessment consisted of 51 items, in which responses are selected from a 5-point Likert scale. This instrument was determined to have construct and predictive validity (Bar-On, 2002). Demographic information was also collected.

To measure the levels of team performance, organizational climate, and job satisfaction of Counselors, the newly constructed instrument was administered, which was titled "Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate in ACES". This instrument consisted of 27 items and was designed to measure two areas of team performance, which include the processes and results achieved by the team. The measurements of the two areas resulted in the team performance level. Organizational climate and job satisfaction of Counselors were also measured. The respondents selected a response to items based on a five-point scale. Reliability and validity for the instrument were determined by conducting a pilot study. This instrument was also administered online.

Data Collection

Once approvals were obtained, Installation Management Command (IMCOM) staff disseminated the request by email for participation from ACES personnel. The email request for participation was sent to all ACES Regional Directors who then sent the request to the individual ESOs at each of their Army Education Centers in their region. The ESOs were asked to disseminate the email request to their Education Services Specialists and Counselors.

In the email request, three attachments were included: a letter to the ESO and Education Services Specialist participants, a letter to the Counselor participants, and an informed consent agreement to be part of the study. The letter to the participants provided the purpose of the study, the benefits to the Army Continuing Education System, confidentiality information, and plans to share the outcome of the study. The email included the links to both surveys asking that they complete the respective survey

within two weeks. The ESOs and Education Services Specialists were asked to anonymously complete the online self-assessment of the EQ-i:S and demographic data on mhsassessments.com. The Counselors were asked to anonymously complete an online instrument measuring team performance, organizational climate, and job satisfaction, which was housed at surveymonkey.com.

Data Analysis

According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007), data analysis for multiple regression studies allow the researcher to show if a relationship exists between multiple independent variables and a single dependent variable based upon the scores measuring these variables. The independent variables included the emotional intelligence level of the ESOs and ESSs as well as organizational climate and job satisfaction levels of Counselors. The dependent variable included the team performance level of Counselors. Once the EQ-i:S and the newly constructed instrument measuring team performance, organizational climate, and job satisfaction were completed, a multiple regression analysis was calculated using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Salkind, 2008), comparing the Emotional Quotient scores to the scores obtained from the second instrument measuring team performance, organizational climate, and job satisfaction. Analysis of variance and t-Tests calculations were also conducted.

A significance level of 0.05 was used to determine the statistical significance of the findings. Descriptive statistics were also determined through SPSS. Overall, the data analysis determined the magnitude of the relationship between the emotional intelligence level of the Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists as they

related to the team performance level of Counselors while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction.

Limitations

Five potential limitations were identified for this research proposal. First, since the surveys were administered online, the researcher was not available on-site to answer any questions that the participants may have had pertaining to the surveys. Therefore, the participants had to answer them to the best of their abilities according to their interpretations of the questions. Second, the results may have been influenced if participants perceived their responses could be identified by their peers. Even though the surveys were completed anonymously, the participants may have answered the questions differently if they felt as if they could be identified in this small sample. The third limitation pertained to the size of the sample. The number of Army Continuing Education System employees is 208 Education Services Officers, Education Services Specialist, and Counselors (D. Hindman, personal communication, June 25, 2010). Even though there were enough individuals in the population to meet the minimum requirement, the number of those who actually responded was not sufficient for a multiple regression analysis. However, the findings of this study were important as little research has been conducted in Army Education, especially pertaining to this topic. A fourth limitation resulted from self-assessments of performance by individuals. A final limitation was that only one means of assessment was used to measure each variable of this study, the emotional intelligence level, organizational climate, job satisfaction, and team performance level. Therefore, the measurement of the variables could be different if a more extensive set of assessments was used.

Definition of Terms

Army Continuing Education System. A Department of the Army organization that provides policy for U. S. Army installation education centers (Department of the Army, 2006b).

Counselor. A Department of the Army employee that works directly with members of the military community to provide educational counseling (Department of the Army, 2006b).

Education Services Officer (ESO). A Department of the Army employee that oversees the operation of a U. S. Army installation education center that provides postsecondary education services to the military community (Department of the Army, 2006b).

Education Services Specialist. A Department of the Army employee that serves in middle management at an installation education center assisting the ESO in managing programs and services (Department of the Army, 2006b).

Emotional Intelligence Level. For the purposes of this study, the level of emotional intelligence is determined by the Total Emotional Quotient scores on the Emotional Quotient Inventory: Short (EQ-i:S).

Job Satisfaction Level. For the purposes of this study, job satisfaction for Counselors is defined as the scores computed by the Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organization Climate in ACES survey for the job satisfaction items.

Organizational Climate Level. For the purposes of this study, organizational climate for Counselors is defined as the scores computed by the Team Performance, Job

Satisfaction, and Organization Climate in ACES survey for the organizational climate items.

Team Performance Level. For the purposes of this study, the team performance level of Counselors is defined as the scores computed by the Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organization Climate in ACES survey.

Summary

Having competence in emotional intelligence has been found important for effective leadership, especially as it relates to job performance. Since previous research is deficient regarding the role emotional intelligence plays in the Army Continuing Education System, this study could have profound implications for Army education. As such, the purpose of this study was to determine if the level of emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists plays a role in team performance of Counselors while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction. In order to examine if a relationship existed between the emotional intelligence level of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists, as well as organizational climate and job satisfaction of Counselors, and the team performance level, 41 Education Services Officers, 74 Education Service Specialists, and 93 Counselors were asked to participate. The Education Services Officers and Education Service Specialists were asked to complete the EQ-i:S, and the Counselors were asked to complete a newly constructed instrument measuring team performance, organizational climate, and job satisfaction. Both instruments were administered online. Once the data was collected, a multiple regression analysis was calculated and analyzed using SPSS to determine the magnitude of the relationship between the emotional intelligence level of

the Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists and the team performance level of Counselors while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Previous research has shown the importance of emotional intelligence particularly as it relates to individual and team performance. Organizational climate and job satisfaction have also been shown to play important roles in the performance of organizations. As such, the purpose of this study was to determine if the level of emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists plays a role in team performance of Counselors while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction. However, the literature was deficient of research pertaining to the Army Continuing Education System. The purpose of this review was to not only examine Army education leadership but to examine how emotional intelligence has affected performance regarding educational leadership, future leaders, individuals, and teams.

Army Continuing Education System

To provide educational opportunities to soldiers, the Army Continuing Education System (ACES) has established Army Education Centers (AEC) throughout the world. As such, the AECs are critical for proper implementation of programs and services needed to prepare a mission ready force (Department of the Army, 2006b). Within each AEC are leaders that are needed to keep up with the changing needs. ACES leaders, particularly Education Services Officers, must possess certain leadership competencies to

be effective leaders (Ellert, 2008). Also serving in leadership positions are Education Services Officers as they manage educational programs within installation Army Education Centers (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 1991).

To support the Army's leadership function of promoting lifelong learning (Department of the Army, 2006b), ACES' vision includes leading soldiers in lifelong learning to foster a mission ready force. ACES' mission is further defined as providing lifelong learning opportunities through self-development programs and services. As such, ACES staff, which includes Education Services Officers, Education Service Specialists, and Education Counselors, are the personnel responsible for developing each AEC so that the educational programs they provide will enhance the soldiers' job performance, skill qualifications, critical thinking skills, and career potential. To further realize the importance of leadership within ACES, it is important to understand its connection with Army leadership.

Army Leadership

Army Military Leadership

Over the past 230 years, the United States Army has developed a culture that fosters leadership for individuals at all levels. The Army has termed its leaders as "Pentathletes" (Department of the Army, 2007, p. 1) who are educated, competent, adaptive, professional, loyal, ethical, moral, and trustworthy. To ensure its pentathletes are prepared for what lies ahead, the Army defined what leaders must be, know, and do. First, Army leaders must have character and possess the Army values, which include loyalty, duty, respect, selfless-service, honor, integrity, and personal courage. Second, Army leaders must possess competence in the areas of interpersonal, conceptual,

technical, and tactical skills. Third, Army leaders must also act. They must use interpersonal skills to influence others, act to complete the mission, and work to make the organization better than it was initially (Department of the Army, 1999).

Much of these attributes are embodied in the Soldier's Creed, also called the Warrior's Ethos. Each soldier is said to personify the Warrior's Ethos as it is what soldiers use to define who they are and what they do. As each soldier is a leader, the Warrior's Ethos further defines personal and organizational commitment (Department of the Army, 2006c).

Like the Warrior's Ethos, another component of Army leadership involves lifelong learning. Leaders should work to improve themselves as well as those they lead. By learning new ideas or techniques, the individual, unit, or organization can be more effective and efficient (Department of the Army, 2006b).

To help ensure the effectiveness of leaders, the Army Research Institute (Horey, Fallesen, Morath, Cronin, Cassella, Franks, et. al, 2004) has generated eight leadership core competencies which comprise the Army Leadership Competency Framework. These competencies include the following: lead others to achieve a common goal, serve as an example to others, encourage a positive climate, ensure effective communication, support others in their development as individuals and as part of a team, take part in self-development, provide leadership and management over the work environment, and provide influence beyond one's immediate work environment. With these competencies, leaders can use these skills to achieve the goals of their organization.

Army Civilian Leadership

Related to the leadership competencies defined by the Army Research Institute (Horey, et.al, 2004), Army civilian leaders also need to demonstrate certain leadership competencies. In order to maintain or develop some of the competencies, lifelong learning is needed by civilians as well (Army Training and Development Panel Report, 2003). Related to this development is the Civilian Corps Creed. Like that of the Warrior's Ethos, civilians should embody this creed. It describes their purpose as being a member of the Army team who supports the soldiers' mission. Army civilian leaders must be adaptive in supporting the soldiers who face an ever-changing battlefield. Civilian leaders must be able to support them during these uncertain times (Department of the Army, 2006a).

Army Education Leadership

As civilian leaders, individuals selected for leadership positions within the Army Continuing Education System serve on the Army team to ensure soldiers are provided the educational programs and services they need to be mission ready. Even though the director of the Army Continuing Education System is the leader at the headquarters level who determines Army Continuing Education Services programs and services Army-wide, there are other leadership positions that have an even more direct impact on soldiers (Department of the Army, 2006b).

At the installation level, Army Education Services Officers (ESO) are responsible for developing and administering education programs and services at Army Education Centers. This individual at an Army Education Center oversees several education programs and services. These largely include soldier development programs, self-

development programs, financial assistance/tuition assistance, counseling services, testing services, and automation (Department of the Army, 2006b). Army Education Centers can be compared with college campuses. According to Education Services Officer Pamela King (personal communication, October 7, 2010), the Army Education Centers at Fort Stewart and Hunter Army Airfield, Georgia, had over 16,000 students enrolled in college classes in 2010. Her review of the student population data from the University System of Georgia determined that those particular Army Education Centers had more students than 29 of the 35 institutions in Georgia during 2010.

With these leadership responsibilities, having the necessary competencies is critical. Ellert (2008) found that out of 67 competencies, future ESOs need to possess nine of them. These competencies included having high professional standards, balancing requirements of the mission with the welfare of the followers, building trust, listening enthusiastically, encouraging cooperation, implementing strategies to accomplish the mission, leading by example, and sustaining high levels of knowledge of the Army Continuing Education System.

As the leader of Army Education Centers, ESOs are also responsible for overseeing the personnel who are employed at their respective Army Education Centers. Like ESOs, other Department of the Army Civilians working at the Army Education Centers are in the Career Program 31. In addition to the ESO, Department of the Army Civilians are Education Services Specialists and Education Counselors (Department of the Army, 2006b).

As it is important to understand the role of the ESOs, it is also important to understand the role of Education Services Specialists. Even though these individuals are

not responsible for the total leadership of an Army Education Center, they do serve in leadership positions. These middle managers may oversee one or more of the Army Education Center programs or services to include the role of Counselor Supervisor (Department of the Army, 2006b). Like the Counselor Supervisor position, the U.S. Office of Personnel Management (1991) stated that Education Services Specialists may serve in supervisory or non-supervisory roles. Some of their managerial duties may include working with the community to maintain a working relationship with the military or maintaining connections with professional education associations. Education Services Specialists may oversee or administer education services programs.

To further understand the supervisory role of Education Services Specialists, the Counselor Supervisor oversees the work of the Education Counselors who are face to face with the students. According to the Department of the Army (2006b), Counselors provide both educational and vocational counseling to the students who are soldiers, family members, retirees, and Department of the Army Civilians. Counselors assist students in a wide range of counseling services in which some of these include selecting guidance tests, discussing college program options, and providing financial aid options. As a result, Counselors are the front line educational civil servants to guide the students within the military community to educational success.

Army leadership, whether a military leader or an Army civilian leader such as the Army ESO, is important to the success of military. Within the Army Continuing Education System, leaders like the ESOs along with the Education Service Specialists and Education Counselors work to ensure the educational success of students. Particularly since future ESOs need to be able to listen enthusiastically, build trust, and

balance the requirements of the mission with the welfare of the staff (Ellert, 2008) understanding the role of emotional intelligence among Army education leaders is essential.

Theoretical Frameworks of Emotional Intelligence

Before explaining the role of emotional intelligence among Army education leaders it is necessary to understand emotional intelligence and how this concept was discovered. The concept of emotional intelligence emerged mainly from two other concepts, social intelligence and multiple intelligences (Goleman, 2006; Murphy & Sideman, 2006). The emergence of emotional intelligence occurred over many years and was predominantly researched by three groups. However, before explaining emotional intelligence it is important to understand its beginnings starting with the initial theory of social intelligence.

Social Intelligence

Social intelligence was first described by Thorndike in the 1920's as a specific type of intellect (Austin & Saklofske, 2005; Murphy & Sideman, 2006). According to Weis and Suts (2005) and Austin and Saklofske (2005), social intelligence was described as the ability to understand and manage others and act intelligently in relationships. Albrecht (2006) described social intelligence as having five components, which include situational awareness, presence, authenticity, clarity, and empathy.

Multiple Intelligences

After Thorndike's discovery of social intelligence, Gardner (1993) developed what was defined as the theory of multiple intelligences in the 1980's. This theory posited that the definition of intelligence should be expanded beyond what is considered

traditional intelligence. Gardner described intelligence as involving both biological and psychological components that allow an individual to solve problems as they pertain to a particular cultural setting.

With this in mind, Gardner's (1993, 2006) multiple intelligences included musical, bodily-kinesthetic, logical-mathematical, linguistic, spatial, interpersonal, and intrapersonal intelligences. As recently stated, Gardner (2006) found that these intelligences operate independently unlike the traditional intelligence quotient (IQ). As such, one could have a high level of intelligence in one area and a lower level in another, which could result in the appearance that one is highly capable in one area, for instance in math or physics, but they may not seem able to function well with in other areas such as interpersonal aspects.

With this in mind, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences have become important areas of interest for further research. Bar-On (2007), Goleman (2006), and Rivers, Brackett, Salovey, and Mayer (2007) found emotional intelligence to be an area in need of further exploration. Knowing that emotions guide decisions and how we act (Hughes & Terrell, 2007), it is necessary to understand the concept of emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence has been described as a way to effectively deal with one's emotions and the relationships in which they become involved (Geher & Renstrom, 2004; Goleman, 2006; Kouzes & Pozner, 2006). With this in mind, Rivers, Brackett, Salovey, and Mayer (2007) defined emotional intelligence as the way in which emotions help process thoughts. Consequently, one can think intelligently about emotions.

In the 1990's, studies regarding emotional intelligence began to appear. Making popular the concept of emotional intelligence was largely due to the publication of the work of Goleman (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000; Murphy & Sideman, 2006; Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005). However, during this time other researchers by the names of Mayer and Salovey as well as Bar-On were also conducting research on emotional intelligence and developing their own theories of emotional intelligence.

Goleman's Theory of Emotional Intelligence

Known for making emotional intelligence more widely acknowledged, Goleman (2006) defined emotional intelligence as having several components. The first component is self-awareness, whereby an individual is able to identify their emotions and drives in relation to how they affect others. Through the use of self-management, an individual is able to control their emotions.

Controlling one's emotions is connected to the second category, self-regulation. Through the use of self-regulation, an individual is able to deal with their impulses and feelings by thinking before taking action. Better decision can be made through the use of self-regulation as one can think more logically (Goleman, 2006).

Goleman (2006) defined the third category as motivation. Motivated individuals are driven to achieve and do not require an external reward to complete a task. They often search for ways to raise the bar. They are results-driven and want to find ways to gauge their progress. However, those with low achievement motivation are not as concerned with keeping track of their progress and are pessimistic in time of setbacks, unlike their high achievement motivation counterparts.

Empathy, described as understanding other's emotional stance, is how Goleman (2006) defined the fourth component. If an individual can understand another's emotions, he or she can respond appropriately. According to Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002), employees are looking for a leader in their organization who will connect with them emotionally. Therefore, an empathic leader is one who goes beyond merely directing the work, but connects with the followers.

The last component of emotional intelligence is the use of social skills, which allows individuals to appropriately interact with others. Socially skilled individuals are able to build trust and connections. Effective leaders are more often those with strong social skills. Overall, emotional intelligence is able to be fully utilized through the incorporation of good social skills (Goleman, 2006).

Bar-On's Theory of Emotional Intelligence

Similar to Goleman's theory of emotional intelligence, Bar-On's (2007) model has five similar components. The first component is intrapersonal skills, which is characterized by self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization. According to Bar-On, these skills not only allow a person to become conscious of their own emotions, but they are also able to endeavor to reach their potential.

Linked with intrapersonal skills are interpersonal skills, the second component. Bar-On (2007) stated that empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationships comprise the interpersonal skill component. Through the use of interpersonal skills, they are conscious of how others feel, can recognize their own social group, and can communicate well with others.

The third component is stress management. Through the utilization of stress tolerance and impulse control, an individual is able to properly control their own stress levels (Bar-On, 2007). Both of these components allow individuals to successfully manage their emotions in such a way that is beneficial to them.

With the adaptability component, an individual is able to correctly confirm their feelings and think realistically. Individuals exhibit flexibility when they are able to adjust to new situations they encounter. As a result, adaptable individuals are able to effectively solve problems that involve themselves or others (Bar-On, 2007).

The fifth and final component to Bar-On's (2007) model is what he characterized as general mood. Divided into two categories, optimism serves as the first. An optimistic individual looks for the positive things in life. Even when a situation is not promising, they look for the best in it. Hand in hand with optimism is happiness. When individuals are happy, they tend to be satisfied with themselves and others. Happiness (n.d.) is defined as a state of contentment. Although Goleman and Bar-On are two researchers known for their work on emotional intelligence, a third group of individuals is also generally identified for its work in emotional intelligence.

Mayer and Salovey's Theory of Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence as studied by Mayer and Salovey (1997) was defined as follows:

Emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the

ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 5).

As such, there are four characteristics of emotional intelligence.

The first characteristic consists of the ability to correctly judge and convey emotion. This not only applies to oneself, but it also refers to the ability to correctly identify the emotions of others. An individual is able to convey the appropriate emotion as it pertains to the corresponding feeling. A distinction can be made for honest as well as dishonest illustrations of feeling (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Characterizing the second component is the ability to generate feelings when they assist in thought processes. Throughout a person's life being able to use emotions in the thought process can be very helpful. With this in mind, when making decisions, emotions can help with planning when faced with new situations such as starting a new job. This allows a person to be able to consider multiple perspectives using the disposition they are in at that time (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey, Mayer, & Caruso, 2002).

Being able to understand emotion and emotional knowledge is the third component of Mayer and Salovey's (1997) theory of emotional intelligence. Having the ability to understand the relationship between words and emotions, interpret emotions that often go along with these relationships, understand emotions when they are combined, and identify the change from one emotion to another are key elements of this aspect of the theory. Essential to emotional intelligence are these elements as they allow an individual to rationalize the emotions involved in interpersonal relations. Over the years, a person develops a deeper understanding of the meanings of emotion.

The final component pertains to the ability to control emotions in order to encourage the development of one's emotions and intellect. This allows one to be able to remain open to the various emotions, use them appropriately according to the situation, examine them in regard to oneself or those one encounters, and deal with emotions so that one may be able to change a negative mood into a more positive one. Through the control of emotions and emotional and intellectual development, one can deal more effectively with others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

As discussed, emotional intelligence has roots in social intelligence and multiple intelligences which have led to the focus on interpersonal and intrapersonal skills that define emotional intelligence. With this development of emotional intelligence, three sets of researchers have developed their own theories, which were similarly described. After describing emotional intelligence, it is important to understand the research that has been conducted in conjunction with performance.

Emotional Intelligence and Performance

Since the theory of emotional intelligence has been presented, various studies have been conducted regarding emotional intelligence as it relates to performance (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Bardach, 2008; Gowing et. al, 2006; and Kambeya, 2008). There are three main areas in which studies have been conducted linking emotional intelligence and performance. These areas include educational leadership, training and development of leaders, and how they are related to individuals and groups.

Educational Leadership

No matter the institutional level, educational leaders endeavor to have effective organizations (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). A major component of effective education

institutions is performance. Effecting performance among educational leaders is the level of emotional intelligence (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Cook, 2006; Craig, 2008).

Among the K-12 community, educational leaders, such as principals and superintendents, provide direction for their respective schools and have influence over their overall performance. As Hoy and Tarter (2008) described, educational administrators are the main decision makers and need to be ready for any situation that may arise. Bumphus (2008) found that there was a strong positive correlation between emotional intelligence and resilience among principals who completed the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i).

Understanding that principals are key decision makers, Cook (2006) found that emotional intelligence had a positive effect on the leadership performance of elementary principals. However, no statistically significant findings were found regarding gender, age, and years of experience. Not only is leadership performance affected, but Krastek (2008) suggested that the organizational culture can be affected by the level of emotional intelligence of the principal. Since organizational culture effects the day-to-day operation of educational institutions, it plays a role in the promotion of academic optimism. Therefore, Hoy and Miskel (2008) stated that "academic optimism creates a culture with collective beliefs and norms that view teachers as capable, students as willing, parents as supportive, and academic success as achievable" (p. 195).

Organizational culture also affects the organizational climate, which can also influence teacher's self-efficacy. Believing in themselves, teachers also believe in their students and the achievement of their students (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). Consequently, Taylor and Tashakkori (1994) found that a teacher's sense of self-efficacy could be

influenced by their job satisfaction. In a study conducted by Craig (2008), teacher job satisfaction was related to the emotional intelligence exhibited by their respective principals.

According to Bar-On (2007) and Goleman (1995, 1998), dealing with interpersonal relationships is a component of emotional intelligence. According to Kenney (2008) and Kambeya (2008), interpersonal skills of principals can effect student achievement. Kambeya (2008) found that teachers, who perceived that their principals had good interpersonal communication with them, led toward increased teacher performance. With improved teacher performance, improved student achievement also occurred. This study showed how educational leaders still impact student achievement. Further research regarding how student achievement is effected by the emotional intelligence was performed by Wendorf-Heldt (2009). In this study, a positive correlation was found between the emotional intelligence levels of principals and research-based leadership practices.

To help in the success of future educational administrators, Barbuto and Burbach (2006) found that interpersonal skills and social intelligence are needed for encouraging leadership endeavors. With these characteristics needed, training efforts have been developed that aim to increase emotional intelligence levels. In a study by Bardach (2008), principals with higher levels of emotional intelligence were discovered to have better performing schools as a result. Bardach established that the training to increase emotional intelligence levels was found effective.

A limited number of studies have been conducted on emotional intelligence and performance in the higher education arena pertaining to educational leadership.

Previously discussed was the importance of organizational climate. According to Milhoan (2007), community and technical college department chairs' emotional intelligence levels as measured by the EQ-i were shown to have a negative correlation with the faculty members' perception of the organizational climate as resulted from the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire - Higher Education (OCDQ-HE-Partial).

As stated earlier, job satisfaction played a role in performance as it related to student performance and student achievement. In his research of community college administrators, Downey (2008) found that mood was the most influential factor of job satisfaction. With evidence that emotional intelligence effects performance among educational leaders, it is important to understand the effects of training and development of future leaders. Table 1 illustrates studies conducted regarding educational leadership as they relate to emotional intelligence and performance.

Table 1

Studies Related to Educational Leadership Regarding Emotional Intelligence and Performance

STUDY	PARTICIPANTS	RESEARCH DESIGN	OUTCOMES
Kambeya (2008)	5 Teachers	Qualitative: Autoethnographic	Interpersonal skills played a role in teacher performance. Attitudes and productivity of teachers were affected by principals' interpersonal communication skills.
Barbuto & Burbach (2006)	80 Elected Public Officials and 388 of Their Direct-Report Staff	Quantitative: survey	A positive relationship was found between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. Leaders with empathy for others were more likely to identify themselves as transformational leaders.
Cook (2006)	143 Elementary Principals	Quantitative: survey	There was no statistically significant effect on emotional intelligence as it related to gender, age, and years of experience. Levels of emotional intelligence affected their leadership performance.

Emotional Intelligence Training for Current and Future Leaders

Since emotional intelligence is an important factor in organizational leadership (Alston, 2009), understanding how emotional intelligence training could impact current and future leaders is essential. To begin, English (2008) stated among the training

needed for a person to become a "complete leader" (p. 4), formal academic study as well as personal and professional development are required. These aspects are distinctive to each person. As a complete leader (English, 2008), an individual learns how to be a leader, despite popular belief that leaders are born as leaders. The act of leading takes practice and is something that develops over time.

As found by the Army Training and Leader Development Panel Report (2003), leadership development programs are recommended for all levels of Army leaders, including those who will be future leaders. Due to the changing roles of Army civilians over the years, training needs have changed. In the past, they were largely serving in non-military careers, but now they serve in more complex roles. Since future Army civilians need to be "multiskilled, multifunctional, self-aware, and highly adaptive" (p. 29) training has been recommended. This study found that four areas of training are needed which include accountability, lifelong learning, interpersonal skills, and Army culture.

English (2008) found that personal and professional developments are needed to be a complete leader. This discovery was also supported by the findings of the Army Training and Leader Development Panel Report (2003) with the need for Army civilian leaders to have lifelong learning opportunities. Therefore, professional development should be provided as part of Army civilian training and leader development.

Another recommendation of the panel was that the Army should provide training and development opportunities for future leaders in order to enhance their interpersonal skills as critical to the role of a leader (Army Training and Leader Development Panel Report, 2003). The leader's interpersonal skills are important in establishing the climate

of their organization. According to Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002), the organizational climate contributes to up to 30 % of the organization's productivity. The leader's actions influence up to 70% of what the staff members' think about their organizations' climate. Therefore, the actions of the leader play an important role in setting the stage for the staff members and their level of productivity.

In view of the fact that interpersonal skills are needed for future and current leaders in the Army civilian community, Goleman (1995, 1998) and Bar-On (2007) stated that interpersonal intelligence is connected with emotional intelligence. As it is related, Ellert (2008) found that ESOs needed to possess three competencies that involved building relationships. These competencies included listening enthusiastically, building trust, and balancing the requirements of the mission with the welfare of the followers. According to Goleman (1995, 1998), these are associated with emotional intelligence.

As previous studies have shown, training and development opportunities are required for Army civilians and future leaders, and some of the competencies needed by ESOs are associated with emotional intelligence. Not only is leadership learned, but emotional intelligence skills can also be learned (Bardach, 2008; Gowing, et.al, 2006). Training for future leaders is important as increased levels of emotional intelligence have resulted in more effective leadership.

Since the Army Continuing Education System is a federal agency employing federal employees such as ESOs, Education Services Specialists, and Counselors (Department of the Army, 2006b), it is important to know that other federal agencies explored training that incorporated emotional intelligence in the selection and

advancement of future leaders (Bar-On, Handley, & Fund, 2006; Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Gowing et.al, 2006).

Another federal agency, the Defense Finance and Accounting Service (Gowing et. al, 2006) conducted a study regarding emotional intelligence. The employees participated in emotional intelligence training. Before and after the training, they completed the Emotional Competence Inventory. The training resulted in increased scores. As a result, the study provided further evidence that emotional intelligence can be learned. Not only can emotional intelligence competencies be learned, but they can be linked with leadership potential.

In a study with Johnson and Johnson, leadership potential was measured in conjunction with the Emotional Competence Inventory. Gowing et. al (2006) found that emotional intelligence could be used in the selection, assessment, and development of future leaders. With regard to the development of leaders, these findings are also supported by Goleman (2002) who believed that leadership development is something that occurs over time. Likewise, great leaders develop the emotional intelligence competencies over time.

Regarding training for current leaders, Eichmann (2009) conducted a study. The study found that a 10 week training intervention led to improved emotional intelligence levels. The pre- and post- Emotional Quotient Inventory assessment revealed a statistically significant increase. Gender did not have an impact on the effect of training. Table 2 illustrates studies conducted regarding training and performance as they relate to emotional intelligence.

Table 2

Studies Related to Training Regarding Emotional Intelligence and Performance

STUDY	PARTICIPANTS	RESEARCH DESIGN	OUTCOMES
Eichmann (2009)	51 corporate leaders	Mixed Method: surveys	Emotional intelligence improved after training. Gender did impact the effect of training on adaptability. Training resulted in increases in stress management emotional intelligence. After the training, there were high amounts of change in their behavior, particularly as they related to coaching and providing feedback to employees; improvements were experienced in their capacity to facilitate teamwork as well as their eagerness to listen and show empathy.
Army Training and Leader Development Panel Report (2003)	40,000 Army Civilians and soldiers	Mixed Method: Surveys, Interviews, and Focus Groups	Four major areas were determined for the Army to address. These included accountability, lifelong learning, interpersonal skills, and Army culture.

Emotional Intelligence Regarding Individual and Group Performance

After studies have revealed that emotional intelligence training is effective, understanding how emotional intelligence effects individual and group performance is another critical area. Individuals with higher levels of emotional intelligence were found to perform better (Bar-On, 2007; Bar-On, Handley, & Fund, 2006). Bar-On, Handley, &

Fund (2006) found that U.S. Air Force recruiters performed better at their job, particularly in identifying and recruiting individuals that were more aligned with military service, when they had higher emotional intelligence levels.

Specific findings regarding performance levels regarding age and gender varied. Lam's (1998) findings showed that women tend to perform better on tests assessing different emotional reasoning abilities. Women tended to have higher levels of emotional intelligence than men (Boyatzis & Sala, 2004). In addition, age played a factor in the level of emotional intelligence. As age increased, the level of emotional intelligence increased. Since age and gender have been shown to result in different levels of performance, understanding how emotional intelligence affects teams should be addressed.

Individual emotional intelligence and performance is essential to organizations, but together, working as a group, an organization is much stronger. Goleman (1998) stated that each individual has only a part of the data and facts needed to complete a task for the organization. As a group, the team could be stronger or weaker depending on how well they can get along together. When the group displays emotional intelligence, only at that point is the group more intelligent than the individuals (Goleman, 2002). For instance, if the group members are constantly arguing, then the brainpower of the group suffers since they are not unified. A study conducted by Leeamornsir and Schwindt (2002) found that group emotional intelligence was contributory to organizational productivity.

Further related to organizational performance was the work of Wolfe, Druskat, Koman, and Messer (2006). They proposed a group emotional competence theory that

incorporated emotionally competent group norms, group effectiveness, and social capital. In one of their studies, they found that five out of six emotional intelligent group norms were correlated with group effectiveness. The five emotionally intelligent group norms that were related included the following: individual emotional level awareness, team emotional level awareness, control of group level emotion, understanding the emotion of the larger organization, and construction of relationships outside the group. Jordan and Ashkanasy (2006) also found that team effectiveness was predicted by the level of emotional intelligence, particularly emotional self-awareness. Other emotional intelligence competencies such as group cohesiveness were found to potentially lead to increased performance (Rapisarda, 2002). Table 3 illustrates studies conducted regarding individual and team performance as they relate to emotional intelligence.

Table 3

Studies Related to Individuals and Teams Regarding Emotional Intelligence and Performance

STUDY	PARTICIPANTS	RESEARCH DESIGN	OUTCOMES
Bar-On, Handley, & Fund (2006)	591 U.S. Air Force Recruiters	Quantitative: survey	Successful recruiters had higher levels of emotional intelligence. Level of emotional intelligence can predict performance.
Jordan & Ashkanasy (2006)	140 Australian students	Quantitative: survey	There was a relationship between self-awareness and goal focus. Team effectiveness was associated with emotional self-awareness.
Lam (1998)	~70 Undergraduate Students	Quantitative: survey	Performance can be predicted as well as abilities such as coping and empathy based on the level of emotional intelligence.

Team Performance

Importance of Teams

In today's workplace, teams have become an integral component to the effectiveness of organizations (Leach, Wall, Rogelberg, & Jackson, 2005; Leholm & Vlasin, 2006). Teams have become essential due their enhanced output and resourcefulness, ability to solve organizational problems, sense of job satisfaction and achievement as a result of participating in a team (Colenso, 2000), and improvement that teams can bring to the organization (Foster, 2000).

However, the importance of teams and groups in organizations has not always been perceived as such. Steiner (1972) stated that by the 1950's social psychologists had discounted the effectiveness of teams since the focus aimed at individual processes. Groups were not seen as valuable again in America until the 1960's, when the use of teams in companies such as Proctor and Gamble, General Foods, Cummins, and many other companies began appearing (Fisher, 2000). According to Leach, Wall, Rogelberg, and Jackson (2005) teamwork has become a worldwide movement. While organizations have various goals and objectives, their teams serve in many different functions.

As with each organization, teams also vary. Every team is unique since it has its own characteristics (McIntyre, 1998; Kline & Sulsky, 2009), in which each could be one of many different types. Teams may present themselves as project teams, work teams, standing committees, management teams (McIntyre), single-leader units, and self-directed teams (Leholm & Vlasin, 2006) to name a few.

Even though there are many different types of teams, over the past two decades, self-directed teams have significantly risen in number not only in the private and nonprofit sectors, but self-directed teams have increased in the public sector as well (Leholm & Vlasin, 2006). As defined by Fisher (2000), self-directed teams are individuals in an organization who work together daily with little supervision to accomplish their tasks while making decisions for the team.

Measuring Team Performance

With an increasing prevalence of teams in the workforce, understanding the factors that contribute to the overall level of team performance is necessary. Research has determined several factors contribute to the success of teams (Costa, Roe, & Taillieu,

2001; Leach, Wall, Rogelberg, & Jackson, 2005; Lencinoni, 2005). Even though there are several factors that contribute to team performance, Kline and Sulsky (2009) stated that much of the previous research has focused on ways to establish and validate methods to accurately assess team performance as opposed to individual performance. Jones and Schilling (2000) as well as Pitts (2009) confirmed that standardizing a measure of team performance across organizations is ineffective and difficult. However, there are some general topics that are intertwined among various types of teams. Kline and Sulsky (2009) stated that team performance should assess two areas: processes and outcomes.

To measure the processes of a team's performance, assessment first involves measuring the degree of effectiveness in which the team makes decision (Kline & Sulsky, 2009). Decision-making involves team norms, which are defined as unwritten rules that lead the team's behavior. These norms contribute to the performance of the teams (deJong, de Ruyter, & Lemmink, 2005). Successful teams encouraged team norms, such as trying more efficient methods of working, researching best practices, taking initiative to make decisions, and discussing each team's ideas according to Wageman (1997). Leaders also play a role in influencing suitable team norms.

Second, measuring how effectively the team members communicate among themselves is needed (Kline & Sulsky, 2009). To know their effectiveness is to understand that communication involves interpersonal skills which are divided into four categories: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. When involved in two-way communication, listening attentively to the speaker as well as paying attention to non-verbal communication is important. Successful leaders are able to respond accordingly depending on the verbal and non-verbal communication that is presented to them.

Communicating so that others understand is imperative (Department of the Army, 2006c).

Third, providing and receiving criticism and advice within the group needs to be measured (Kline & Sulsky, 2009), which involves trust. Unfortunately, trust has long been a term that is hard to define as it relates to teams (Costa, Roe, & Taillieu, 2001; Lencinoni, 2005). However, trust within teams generally involves team members being willing to be open to others on the team, allowing themselves to be susceptible. According to Lencinoni (2005), building trust among members of a team is important to having a more effective team. Shen and Chen (2008) found that team trust positively contributed to team performance. Research conducted by Costa, Roe, and Taillieu (2001) found that lower amounts of trust in the group resulted in lower levels of perceived task performance, team satisfaction, and commitment to the team. The results also showed an increase in stress levels when the teams exhibited low levels of trust. In a case study conducted by Feldblyum, Nierman, Leholm, and Vlasin (2006), trust between the team and the director as well as among the group members were critical to their success.

Lastly, the opinions they possess about each other and their job are the final aspect that should be measured to provide an accurate portrait of the team's processes as they relate to team performance (Kline & Sulsky, 2009). Among team members, Bakker, Emmerik, and Riet (2008) found in a mixed methods study that the more agreement as well as support shared by the group, the less contemptuous they were about their job, which led to better performing employees. Their attitudes toward one another were most closely related to objective team performance.

Once the processes are measured, an assessment of the team's results should also be conducted. The results measured revolve around the value of their type of service or product and the amount produced or provided (Kline & Sulsky, 2009). Since both the quality and quantity are important, measuring these two areas further provides evidence of whether or not the team is successful.

As described, measuring team performance involves not just measuring the outcomes of the group, but also the method in which they obtain those results is also assessed. As mentioned, the team's process incorporates four aspects which are decision-making ability, communication, trust, and attitude. The second component of team performance involves measuring their quality and quantity of their results. As mentioned earlier, measuring team performance is challenging as organizations are diverse. However, these two aspects are common among most of the different organizations, allowing for the development of a team performance instrument. While measuring the performance of teams, the measurement of organizational climate is also necessary in determining its influence in performance. Yang (2008) administered a survey to determine customer service as part of their team's outcomes.

Organizational Climate

According to Stringer (2002), organizational climate plays an important role in influencing behavior and motivation of employees in an organization, which ultimately impacts the performance of an organization. Whether climate is supportive (Voon, Hamali, & Tangkau, 2009) or positive (Luthans, Norman, Avolio, and Avey, 2008), performance in organizations has been found to be influenced. Related to organizational

climate is organizational culture. However, organizational climate is more easily defined and measured according to Wilderom, Glunk, and Maslowski (2000) and Stringer (2002).

The history of organizational climate in America reaches back to the early 1900's with the work of Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) who began using the term climate. Climate focused on opinions and attitudes that could be influenced through styles of leadership. According to Stringer (2002), organizational climate is described as an assortment of factors that influences drive in an organization. This assortment of factors includes the leader's actions, recognizable features of the organization, organizational policy, factors outside of the organization, and customs within the organization. Of these influencing factors, the leader's actions are the most powerful.

Regarding the work of Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939), the meaning of climate could be applied in many settings but changed when applied to organizations. This focus on climate represented Lewin's perspective on what was viewed as social climate. After Lewin's death, other researchers continued exploration of climate (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000). Another researcher, Rensis Likert, furthered the study of organizational climate (Likert, 1961). His main contribution to advance the work on organizational climate was through the development of the Likert scale, which could be used to measure attitudes. This invention allowed for the measurement of organizational climate, which had not been possible previously (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson). Before the Likert scale was developed, organizational climate had been created through the use of experiments. With this development, existing climates could be measured without influence on their creation.

In today's society, organizational climate can be measured through the use of surveys administered to individuals in an organization. Since the opinions of individuals influence the attitudes of the whole group, organizational climate can be measured to understand the collective view of those in the organization. Measurement of organizational climate addresses how the individuals are affected by the whole group. As such, the focus is not on the individual, but the whole group (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000). With this in mind, organizational climate stemmed from Gestalt psychology meaning that the whole is more important than the sum of the individual parts (Schneider, Bowen, Ehrhart, & Holcombe, 2000).

An additional type of climate similar to organizational climate is service climate (Voon, Hamali, & Tangkau, 2009), as it is described as another factor that influences performance, particularly organizational performance. The study found that a positive climate leads to increased organizational performance. According to deJong, de Ruyter, & Lemmink, (2005), service climate is described as "the consensual beliefs among the members of an organization with regard to the policies, procedures, and practice that are supported and rewarded" (p. 1595). Among self-managed teams, service climate is connected to customers' ratings on the service they received (deJong, de Ruyter, & Lemmink, 2005).

According to Luthans, Norman, Avolio, and Avey (2008), a supportive climate may influence employees' performance when incorporating positivity and psychological capital. According to Luthans, Youseff, and Avolio (2007), psychological capital consists of having hope in attaining one's goals even when having to change paths,

resilience in overcoming setbacks, optimism about succeeding, and self-efficacy in succeeding in tasks.

As discussed, organizational climate has been shown to impact the performance of organizations. Related to climate is organizational culture. According to Stringer (2002) organizational culture revolves around assumptions held within an organization, while climate involves opinions of those in an organization that can be assessed. Wilderom, Glunk, and Maslowski (2000) and Stringer (2002) stated that organizational culture is difficult to measure even though it is stated to influence the performance of an organization. In contrast, organizational climate is more easily described and measured in comparison to organizational culture (Stringer, 2002).

Performance is impacted by the climate of an organization. Since the attitudes of individuals influence the opinions of others, methods to measure climate were needed in order to see how they did influence performance. Likert was the first to address and implement the measurement of climate through the Likert scale. After understanding how organizational climate relates to performance, studies have shown that while climate is associated with organizational performance, an awareness of how job satisfaction is linked with climate and performance is also needed.

Job Satisfaction

While climate not only influences performance, job satisfaction has also been shown to influence performance. Job satisfaction is also positively related to increased organizational performance. Statistically significant findings were reported that as employee satisfaction increased, organizational performance also increased (Voon, Hamali, & Tangkau, 2009).

Since job satisfaction has been linked with improved performance, understanding the components that contribute to job satisfaction are essential. To begin, an employee's pay is a contributing factor to job satisfaction (Spector, 1985). In a study conducted by Currall, Towler, Judge, and Kohn (2005) regarding satisfaction with pay, they found that a link between pay satisfaction ratings and student academic performance as well as teacher retention. At the university level, job satisfaction was also positively correlated with salary level regardless of the size of the university or whether it was a private or public institution (Terpstra & Honoree, 2004).

Along with pay, supervision is another component to job satisfaction (Spector, 1985). According to Moos (1981), a supportive work environment is one where employees view colleagues and supervisory staff to be supportive as colleagues are very involved in the work, and supervisors enable them to do their job. With this in mind, supervisory support was found to influence job satisfaction. However, too much supervisory support may negatively impact performance (Babin & Boles, 1996). Therefore there is balance between the right amount of supervisory support which leads to job satisfaction and performance.

Related to pay and the role of the supervisory staff is the aspect of rewards. Spector (1985) stated that contingent rewards are related to job satisfaction. As such rewards were found to play a role in the level of job satisfaction and fatigue in a study conducted by Beckers, van der Linden, Smulders, Kompier, Taris, and Geurts (2008). The study found that those employees who did not have a choice in working overtime were more tired and less satisfied, particularly when they were not rewarded.

Communication is necessary for team performance (Levi, 2007) and job satisfaction (Spector, 1985). Communication, particularly satisfaction with communication, was found to be a predictor of job satisfaction and job performance in a study conducted by Goris (2007). Within the construct of job satisfaction, work, supervision, pay, promotion, and co-workers were other areas in which communication was found to be significantly and positively related.

Even more factors contribute to the complex construct of job satisfaction. Other aspects that influence job satisfaction include benefits, promotion opportunities, relationships with co-workers, policies and procedures followed within the organization, nature of the work (Spector, 1985), and service climate (Voon, Hamali, & Tangkau, 2009). In a study conducted by Pitts (2009), increased job satisfaction was also related to job tenure.

According to Pitts (2009), the level of job satisfaction in the federal government was different than those who did not work for federal agencies as they relate to tenure. Employees that had tenure were less likely to have as much satisfaction with their job as tenured non-federal employees. As such, tenure does effect job satisfaction, but the level depends on the type of agency in which the employee works. While the type of agency effects job satisfaction, gender and race also impact an employee's level of satisfaction in the workplace. Female employees and Caucasian employees were more likely to respond with a higher level of job satisfaction than males and non-Caucasian employees. However, men who have held supervisory positions were more likely to respond with higher levels of job satisfaction.

Overall, job satisfaction of individuals is influenced by a number of factors, some of which include communication, benefits, tenure, and relationships with co-workers. As a result of individual job satisfaction, teams can also be influenced. Studies have also found differences in job satisfaction between federal employees and those who did not work for the federal government. Differences between gender and race have also been found.

Summary

According to the Department of the Army (1999), leaders must not only have character, but they must be competent and prepared to achieve by using their interpersonal skills to influence others. As Army civilian leaders, future Army Education Services Officers need to have certain competencies which include building trust, listening enthusiastically, and balancing the work obligations with the welfare of the employees (Ellert, 2008). With this in mind, understanding the connection between these competencies, emotional intelligence, and team performance is necessary.

With its roots in social intelligence (Austin & Saklofske, 2005) and multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1993, 2006), emotional intelligence has emerged through the work of Bar-On (2007), Goleman (2006), and Mayer and Salovey (1997). With the proper use of emotional intelligence, performance in organizations can be affected. Through the use of emotional intelligence among educational leaders, improvements were seen in student achievement (Kambeya, 2008) as well as in the organizational culture (Krastek, 2008). Emotional intelligence can also be improved through the use of training (Gowing et. al, 2006; Eichmann, 2009), allowing current future leaders to

develop their skills. Finally emotional intelligence affects the performance of individuals (Goleman, 1998).

While research has shown the connection between emotional intelligence and individual performance, understanding the connection with team performance is necessary. In order to understand team performance, assessment includes measuring the processes and results of a team. However, other factors also influence performance, which include job satisfaction and organizational climate as these include how employees view policies, procedures, and practices of the organization.

Overall, competencies related to emotional intelligence are needed for Army Education Services Officers who serve as the leaders for their organizations. With this in mind, further research is needed to determine how emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists affects their staffs' performance as there was a lack of research in this area. Therefore the purpose of this study was to determine if the level of emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists plays a role in team performance of Counselors while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine if the level of emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists plays a role in team performance of Counselors while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction. This research was especially valuable since the size of the workforce in the Army Continuing Education System has decreased requiring the education centers to do more work with less staff (Ramsberger & Sticha, 2006). This study measured the levels of emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists as well as the organization climate and job satisfaction of Counselors in the Army Continuing Education System to determine if a relationship existed with the team performance of Counselors at their respective education centers.

The literature has evidenced the importance of emotional intelligence as it pertains to performance. Particularly important were the findings that educational leaders with high levels of emotional intelligence have influenced those they oversee which resulted in improved student achievement. Other areas of importance were the findings of how emotional intelligence affects individual performance as well as team performance. Organizational climate and job satisfaction were also found to influence performance.

In this chapter, the researcher describes the methods and procedures that were used to conduct the study. Specifically, this chapter included the research question as it was addressed in the study, the research design, the sample and sampling technique, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis will be discussed and concluded with a brief summary.

Research Question

The primary focus of this study was to determine if the levels of emotional intelligence characterized by Army Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists and organizational climate and job satisfaction of Counselors play a role in the team performance of Counselors. It is important to know if there was a relationship between these as emotional intelligence has been shown to be related to competencies needed by effective ESOs (Ellert, 2008). Future ESOs need to be able to listen enthusiastically, build trust, and balance the requirements of the mission with the welfare of the staff (Ellert, 2008), in which these aspects were related to emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2006; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). With this in mind, a multiple regression analysis was used to answer the following overarching research question: What is the magnitude of the relationship that the level of emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists have on team performance of the Counselors at Army Education Centers while also taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction? The hypothesis resulting from this question is as follows: There will be a significant relationship among the EQ-i:S score, organization climate, job satisfaction, and the team performance level of the Counselors.

Research Design

In order to measure the magnitude of the relationship among the emotional intelligence level of Education Services Officers (ESOs) and Education Services Specialists, organizational climate, job satisfaction, and the team performance level of the Counselors at Army Education Centers, a multiple regression research design was utilized. According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007), this type of design is used to measure the size of the relationship between the criterion variable and two or more predictor variables being studied. In addition, the scores from one variable will be able to predict the scores on the other variable as this is a form of correlational research. Therefore, the independent, or predictor, variables will be the emotional intelligence level of ESOs and Education Services Specialists and organizational climate and job satisfaction of Counselors. The dependent, or criterion, variable was the team performance level of Counselors in the Army Continuing Education System. Both sets of variables were measured to determine the size of relationship between them.

Sample and Sampling

The civilian education leaders in the Army Continuing Education System, ESOs and Education Services Specialists as well as Counselors were asked to participate in the study. Unlike typical sampling techniques, the entire target population was asked to participate. According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007), it seldom occurs that researchers have access to study the entire target population.

To study the entire target population, the researcher requested permission for their participation through the researcher's ESO, who requested permission from the Southeast Army Continuing Education System Regional Director. Once approval was received at

that level, approval was requested from Installation Management Command (IMCOM) Army Continuing Education System. Then the number of Army Continuing Education System personnel was provided by the Freedom of Information Act Office. Once the final approvals were granted, individuals in ACES were asked to participate. As recommended by Cohen (1993), a minimum of 76 individuals are needed to participate in the study to have statistical significance at the .05 level with three predictor variables and an anticipated effect size of 0.15. As such, all ACES ESOs, Education Services Specialists, and Counselors were asked to participate since there were 41 ESOs, 74 Education Services Specialists, and 93 Counselors worldwide. The total worldwide population consisted of 208 ESOs, Education Services Specialists, and Counselors (D. Hindman, personal communication, June 25, 2010).

Instruments

A multiple regression research design was used to measure the scores of the four variables. In order to measure these variables, two instruments were used. The first instrument, the Emotional Quotient Inventory: Short (EQ-i:S) (Multi-Health Systems, 2004), was used to measure the independent variable, the level of emotional intelligence possessed by ESOs and Education Services Specialists. Measuring five areas of emotional intelligence, the EQ-i:S assessed interpersonal relationships, intrapersonal characteristics, stress management, adaptability, and general mood to provide the total Emotional Quotient score. In order to determine validity of the scores, the inconsistency index and the positive impressions scale were included in the instrument. In addition, this instrument was determined to have construct and predictive validity (Bar-On, 2002). The EQ-i:S was provided in an online format and consisted of 51 items. Respondents

selected the answers from a 5-point Likert scale. According to Bar-On (2002), scores may range from below 70 or above 130. Depending on the score, the emotional intelligence level may range from Markedly Low, Very Low, Low, Average, High, Very High, or Markedly High. Each level addresses emotional and social competence. Demographic data to include age and gender was also collected on the instrument.

The second newly constructed instrument measuring the dependent variable, team performance of the Counselors, and two of the independent variables, organizational climate and job satisfaction of Counselors, was administered. To measure the dependent variable, the instrument was constructed to assess two categories of team performance, processes and outcomes. Team performance process items included decision making, communication (Assessment Alternatives, Inc., 1992) and trust (Jarvenpaa, Shaw, & Staples, 2004; Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 1996). Team performance outcomes items regarding customer service were included as adapted from Yang (2008). To measure the independent variables, organizational climate items included were adapted from Emery & Summer (1996). Job satisfaction items included in the instrument were adapted from Spector (1985).

To ensure validity of the instrument, a panel of experts reviewed the items. Upon approval of the instrument, a pilot study was conducted with the items considered valid for the instrument. During the pilot study, the instrument was administered to 10 individuals similar to those who would be completing the actual survey. Once the pilot study was completed, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated as recommended by Gall, Gall, & Borg (2007) to check reliability to obtain the most reliable items for inclusion in the final instrument. After reliability and validity were determined for the

final instrument, the newly constructed instrument was provided in an online format and consisted of 27 items. The new instrument was titled Team Performance, Job Satisfaction Organizational Climate in ACES (Appendix D). The respondents selected a response to the items based on a five-point scale (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Moderately Agree, Agree, and Strongly Agree). The possible score range for the dependent variable, team performance, items was 16 to 80. However the possible score range for the independent variables, organizational climate and job satisfaction, items were 5 to 25 and 4 to 20, respectively. Demographic information regarding age and gender was also included in the instrument for the respondents to complete.

Data Collection

Once approvals were obtained from the Internal Review Board at Georgia Southern University (Appendix E), the Freedom of Information Act office, and the Installation Management Command (IMCOM) ACES, the researcher sent an email to IMCOM ACES staff requesting the survey information and other required documents be sent to all ESOs, Education Services Specialists, and Counselors throughout the world. To disseminate the request for participation from ACES personnel, IMCOM ACES personnel sent an email to the ACES Regional Directors who oversee the seven Army Continuing Education Systems regions. The email asked the Regional Directors to forward the email request to all their ESOs to send out to their Education Services Specialists and Counselors. The email included three attachments: a letter to the ESO and Education Services Specialist participants (Appendix A), a letter to the Counselor participants (Appendix B), and an informed consent agreement (Appendix C) to be part of the study. The letter to the participants provided the purpose of the study, the benefits

to the Army Continuing Education System, confidentiality information, and plans to share the outcome of the study. The email included the link to both surveys. The ESOs and Education Services Specialists were asked to anonymously complete the online self-assessment of the EQ-i:S and demographic data on mhsassessments.com. The Counselors who served under the ESOs and Education Services Specialists were asked to anonymously complete an online instrument measuring team performance, organizational climate, and job satisfaction, which was housed at surveymonkey.com, which is included in Appendix D. The ESOs, Education Services Specialists, and Counselors were asked to complete their respective surveys within two weeks. At the end of the two week timeframe, the researcher requested the email be resent to request more participation from ESOs, Education Services Specialists, and Counselors, stating the deadline to participate would end in one week. Access to the online assessments remained open for an additional two weeks to allow maximum participation. The researcher obtained the data from the online databases in order to calculate the scores.

Data Analysis

The purpose of data analysis of a multiple regression research design is to allow the researcher to show if a relationship exists between multiple independent variables and a single dependent variable based upon the scores measuring the variables (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). For this study, the independent variables included the emotional intelligence level of the ESOs and Education Services Specialists and the organizational climate and job satisfaction levels of Counselors. The dependent variable was the team performance level of Counselors. As such, the multiple correlation coefficient (R) was calculated comparing the EQ-i:S, organizational climate, job satisfaction, and team

performance instrument scores using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007).

To determine if statistically significant differences were found pertaining to age and gender, additional data analyses were also performed. According to Sprinthall (2003), the t-test is used to test a hypothesis of difference between two groups. Therefore, the t-test was conducted to analyze the differences between females and males in the Army Continuing Education System. Regarding the five age groups in the study, analyses of variance (ANOVA) were performed since Sprinthall (2003) stated an ANOVA is used to test the hypothesis of difference when there are more than two groups.

In order to determine the statistical significance of the multiple correlation coefficient (R), tests were conducted to determine if the coefficient of determination (R^2) increment was statistically significant (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). Using SPSS, descriptive statistics were also calculated. Overall, the data analysis determined the magnitude of the relationship that the emotional intelligence level of the ESOs and Education Services Specialists had on the team performance level of Counselors as well as the organizational climate and job satisfaction levels of Counselors.

Summary

A multiple regression research design was used to measure the magnitude of the relationship that the emotional intelligence level of the ESOs and Education Services Specialists as well as the organizational climate and job satisfaction scores have on the team performance level of the Counselors. The entire target population in the Army Continuing Education System was asked to participate in the study. The Education

Services Officers and Education Services Specialists were asked to complete the EQi:S, and the Counselors were asked to complete a newly constructed instrument, Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate in ACES. Their scores were analyzed using SPSS.

CHAPTER IV
REPORT OF DATA AND DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the Emotional Quotient Inventory: Short (EQ-i:S) completed by Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists and the Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate in ACES survey completed by Counselors. The purpose of this study was to determine if the level of emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists plays a role in team performance of Counselors while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction.

Research Question

The researcher sought to answer the following overarching question:
What is the magnitude of the relationship between the level of emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists and level of team performance of the Counselors at Army Education Centers while also taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction?

The hypothesis resulting from this question was as follows: There will be a significant relationship between the emotional intelligence level and the team performance level of the Army Education Center staff while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction.

Research Design

The participation request was distributed to 41 Education Services Officers, 74 Education Services Specialists, and 93 Counselors. To request participation, the Installation Management Command (IMCOM) staff sent an email message containing the informed consent forms, letter to the participants, and the link to the respective surveys to the seven Army Continuing Education System Regional Directors requesting they forward the message to the Education Services Officers in their region. The Education Services Officers were asked to send the information to their Education Services Specialists and Counselors. Those who chose to participate read the informed consent forms and agreed to participate anonymously. Since they were asked to participate anonymously, they were not required to submit their signed Informed Consent forms. Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists were asked to complete the Emotional Quotient-Inventory: Short on the Multi-Health Systems online assessments website, mhsassessments.com. Counselors were asked to complete the Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate in ACES survey on surveymonkey.com. Quantitative data in the form of ratings were collected for this multiple regression study.

Response Rate

Of the 208 Army Continuing Education System staff who were asked to participate in the study, 28 Education Services Officers, 20 Education Services Specialists, and 26 Counselors completed the respective surveys. However, results from one EQ-i:S survey completed by an ESO was not used in the analysis as there were an insufficient amount of questions answered to compute the scores. 68% of ESOs, 27% of

Education Services Specialists, and 28% of Counselors participated in the study. Overall, participation included 36% of the entire Army Continuing Education System's worldwide personnel.

Demographics

Respondents reported demographic data on their respective surveys to include age and gender. Of those who chose to complete the demographic information, the data revealed a larger number of females than males participated in the study. The majority of the participants were 50-59 years old. Tables 4, 5, and 6 provide the demographic data for the three participant groups.

Table 4

Demographic Information - Education Services Officer Respondents

Item	Frequency	Valid Percent(%)
Gender		
Female	13	56.5
Male	10	43.5
Age		
21-29	0	0.0
30-39	0	0.0
40-49	2	9.0
50-59	15	68.0
60 and older	5	22.6

Note. N=27. Data are listed for those respondents who elected to provide their gender and age. Four respondents did not provide their gender. Six respondents did not provide their age.

Of the Education Services Officers who participated in the study, 56 % were females. Regarding the age of Education Services Officers who participated, 68% were 50-59 years old. Twenty-two percent (22%) were 60 years or older. The remainder of Education Services Officers were 40-49 years old. No Education Services Officer respondents were 21-39 years of age.

Table 5
Demographic Information - Education Services Specialist Respondents

Item	Frequency	Valid Percent(%)
Gender		
Female	8	50.0
Male	8	50.0
Age		
21-29	1	6.7
30-39	2	13.4
40-49	2	13.4
50-59	8	53.5
60 and older	2	13.4

Note. N=20. Data are listed for those respondents who elected to provide their gender and age. Four respondents did not provide their gender. Five respondents did not provide their age.

As shown in Table 5, male and female Education Services Specialists equally responded to the survey. Similar to the Education Services Officers, the largest age group, represented at 53%, was 50-59 years old. The remainder of age groups equally responded to the survey with each group responding at a rate of 13%, except for 21-29 year olds who only had one respondent.

The demographic data for Counselors who responded to the survey is shown in Table 6. Regarding gender, 53% of the respondents were female Counselors. Regarding age, Counselors between 30-39 years of age and 50-59 years of age had an equally high number of respondents, representing the largest number of respondents. Counselors between 40-49 years of age and 60 years and older closely followed with 23% and 19% of respondents, respectively.

Table 6
Demographic Information - Counselor Respondents

Item	Frequency	Valid Percent(%)
Gender		
Female	14	53.8
Male	12	46.2
Age		
21-29	1	3.8
30-39	7	26.9
40-49	6	23.1
50-59	7	26.9
60 and older	5	19.2

Note. N=26.

Data Analysis

A multiple regression analysis was used to answer the following overarching research question: What is the magnitude of the relationship of the level of emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists and team performance of the Counselors at Army Education Centers while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction? The hypothesis resulting from this question was as follows: There will be a significant relationship among the EQ-i:S score and the team performance level of the Army Education Center Counselors while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction.

To answer this overarching question, data analyses were conducted. Descriptive statistics for the Emotional Quotient (EQ) scores for Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists as well as job satisfaction, organizational climate, and team performance scores for Counselors were computed. Table 7 provides the descriptive statistics for these variables.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics and Correlation among Team Performance, Emotional Quotient, Organizational Climate, and Job Satisfaction

Variable	Correlations			
	Team Performance	Emotional Quotient	Organizational Climate	Job Satisfaction
Team Performance	----			
Emotional Quotient	.229	----		
Organizational Climate	.832**	.130	----	
Job Satisfaction	.853**	.039	.887	----
Mean	55.1538	109.1538	16.6154	12.7692
SD	12.411	10.452	4.783	3.636

Note. N=26

** $p < .001$

Descriptive statistics and correlations between the four variables were calculated and resulted in both statistically significant and non-significant findings as shown in Table 7. Bivariate correlations calculated through SPSS resulted in statistically significant relationships between team performance levels and job satisfaction levels. Team performance and job satisfaction levels had a strong, positive correlation of .853 ($p < .001$). Like job satisfaction, organizational climate levels were found to have a statistically significant relationship with team performance levels. Team performance and organizational climate levels had a strong positive correlation of .832 ($p < .001$).

Even though job satisfaction and organizational climate had statistically significant positive relationships with team performance, data analysis for Emotional Quotient scores resulted in findings that were not statistically significant. Although Emotional Quotient scores had a positive correlation of .229 with team performance, the significance level was .130 and was therefore not statistically significant.

Table 8

Regression of Team Performance on Emotional Quotient, Organizational Climate, and Job Satisfaction

Variable	b	se	95%CI	t
Constant	-5.83	13.453	-33.73, 22.06	-0.434
Emotional Quotient	0.209	0.119	-0.03, 0.45	1.75
Organizational Climate	0.77	0.561	-0.39, 1.93	1.37
Job Satisfaction	1.98	0.735	0.46, 3.51	2.706*

Note. $R^2 = 0.785$, $\text{adj } R^2 = .756$, $F = 26.786^{**}$, $df = 2, 22$; $N = 26$

* $p < .01$

** $p < .001$

Regression analysis with the four variables was conducted. Emotional Quotient, job satisfaction, and organizational climate levels were the independent variables, while team performance level was the dependent variable. As shown in Table 8, analysis resulted in the coefficient of determination (R^2) was .785 and adjusted $\text{adj } R^2$ was = .756. This finding showed that when the team performance level was held constant and the job satisfaction, organizational climate, and EQ levels were the predictor variables, the relationship was statistically significant. However, only the job satisfaction coefficients were statistically significant at the .01 level. Organizational climate and EQ levels were not statistically significant as they were at the .18 and .09 significance levels respectively. As such, job satisfaction levels were strongly and positively related to team performance levels when combined with Emotional Quotient and organizational climate levels.

According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007), sample size, level of significance, directionality, and effect size are important to statistical power analysis. Since the sample size was 26, this also influenced the effect size, which is described as a means of evaluating the size of a relationship (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). As calculated by Cohen (1992), in order to have a large effect size at the .05 alpha level with three independent variables, the minimum sample size needed to be 34. For a medium

effect size at the .05 level, the minimum sample size needed to be 76. In this study, 48 Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists participated, while only 26 Counselors participated resulting in less than the number required for effect size. As a result, the null hypothesis would be accepted that there was not a significant relationship between the Emotional Quotient score and the team performance level of the Army Education Center staff while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction. However, there was a linear relationship between the EQ score and team performance level as shown by Figure 1.

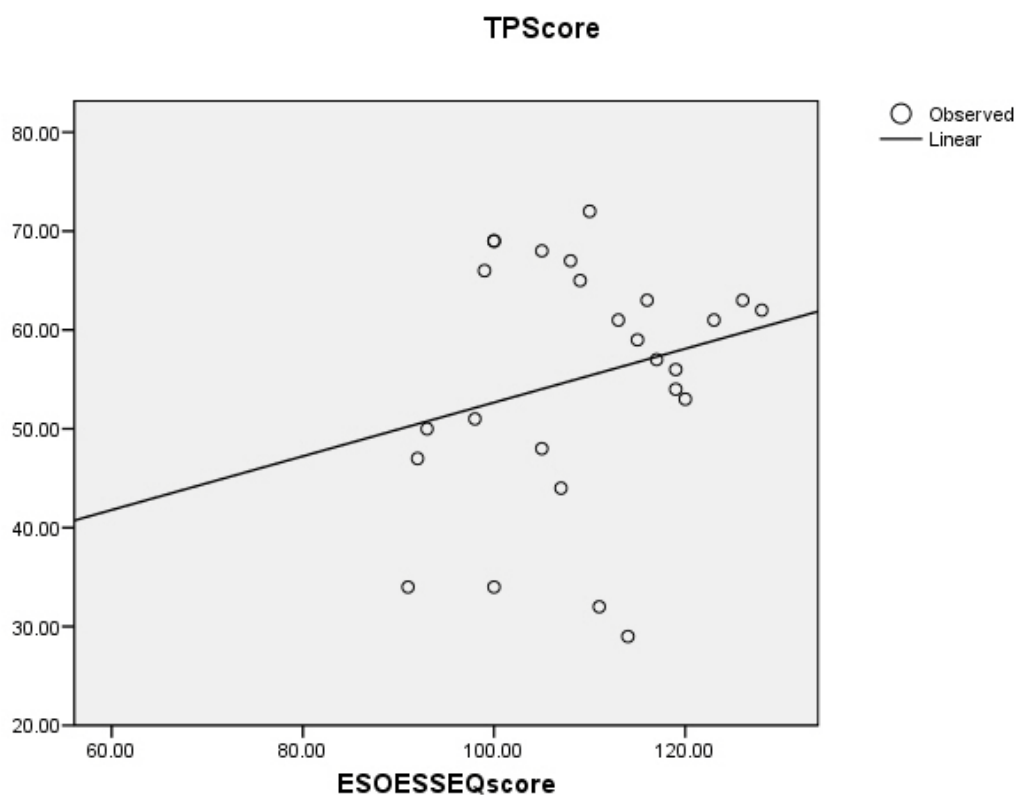


Figure 1. *Regression Line of Emotional Quotient Scores on Team Performance Scores.* Linear regression line of Emotional Quotient scores for Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists on Team Performance scores.

However, further analyses were calculated with various combinations of independent variables to determine if other combinations resulted in significant relationships. Tables 9 and 10 show the correlation and regression results of combining Emotional Quotient scores of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists with job satisfaction levels of Counselors to determine the relationship.

Once again, there was a strong, positive, statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and team performance scores at the .001 level when including Emotional Quotient scores in both the correlation and regression results. However, the relationship between Emotional Quotient scores and team performance was not statistically significant when including job satisfaction scores. This finding showed that as the job satisfaction scores increase, the team performance level increases.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics and Correlation among Team Performance, Emotional Quotient and Job Satisfaction

Variable	Correlations		
	Team Performance	Emotional Quotient	Job Satisfaction
Team Performance	----		
Emotional Quotient	.229	----	
Job Satisfaction	.853**	.039	----
Mean	55.1538	109.1538	12.7692
SD	12.411	10.452	3.636

Note. N=26

** p < .001

Table 10

Regression of Team Performance on Emotional Quotient and Job Satisfaction

Variable	b	se	95%CI	t
Constant	-7.11	13.67	-35.41, 21.18	-0.520
Emotional Quotient	0.233	0.120	-0.15, 0.48	1.94
Job Satisfaction	2.887	0.344	2.17, 3.59	8.38**

Note. $R^2 = 0.767$, $\text{adj } R^2 = .746$, $F = 37.763^{**}$, $df = 2, 23$; $N = 26$

** $p < .001$

When including organizational climate with Emotional Quotient levels to determine their relationship with team performance levels, findings were found to be similar to the previous combination with job satisfaction and Emotional Quotient levels. Correlation and regression results are shown in Tables 11 and 12 when combining Emotional Quotient scores of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists with organizational climate levels of Counselors to determine the relationship. There was a strong, positive, and statistically significant relationship at the .001 level between organizational climate and team performance scores. As such, the higher the organizational climate level, the higher the team performance level. However, the relationship between Emotional Quotient levels and team performance levels was not statistically significant when including organizational climate level.

When including job satisfaction and organizational climate to determine their relationship with team performance, there was a strong, positive, and statistically significant relationship at the .001 level. The correlation and regression results are in Tables 13 and 14. Regarding the correlation results, as both job satisfaction and organizational climate levels increase, team performance levels increase. Regression results also supported that this combination of variables resulted in statistically

significant findings for a strong positive relationship between job satisfaction and team performance levels.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics and Correlation among Team Performance, Emotional Quotient and Organizational Climate

Variable	Correlations		
	Team Performance	Emotional Quotient	Organizational Climate
Team Performance	----		
Emotional Quotient	.229	----	
Organizational Climate	.832**	.103	----
Mean	55.1538	109.1538	16.615
SD	12.411	10.452	4.783

Note. N=26

** p < .001

Table 12

Regression of Team Performance on Emotional Quotient and Organizational Climate

Variable	b	se	95%CI	t
Constant	1.142	14.909	-29.69, 31.98	0.07
Emotional Quotient	0.172	0.133	-0.10, 0.44	7.28
Organizational Climate	2.887	0.344	2.17, 3.59	8.38**

Note. R² = 0.767, adj R² = .746, F = 37.763**, df = 2, 23; N = 26

**p <.001

Since the Emotional Quotient scores included responses from both Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists, data analysis was also completed separately for the two groups. The mean Emotional Quotient (EQ) score for ESOs was 109, while Education Services Specialists' EQ score was 97. The standard deviation of the EQ score for Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists was 10 and 12 respectively. The EQ score range was 37 for Education Services Officers and 52

for Education Services Specialists. Therefore, Education Services Officers Emotional Quotient level was higher than the Education Services Specialists' level. Both mean EQ scores were in the Average range for social and emotional competencies.

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics and Correlation among Team Performance, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Climate

Variable	Correlations		
	Team Performance	Job Satisfaction	Organizational Climate
Team Performance	----		
Job Satisfaction	.853**	----	
Organizational Climate	.832**	.887**	----
Mean	55.153	12.769	16.615
SD	12.411	3.636	4.783

Note. N=26

** $p < .001$

Table 14

Regression of Team Performance on Job Satisfaction and Organizational Climate

Variable	b	se	95%CI	t
Constant	16.385	4.776	6.50, 26.26	3.43**
Job Satisfaction	1.84	0.762	0.26, 3.41	2.41*
Organizational Climate	0.918	0.579	-0.28, 2.11	1.58

Note. $R^2 = 0.755$, adj $R^2 = 0.734$, $F = 35.426^{**}$, $df = 2, 23$; $N = 26$

* $p < .05$

** $p < .001$

Bivariate correlation analysis between team performance levels and Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists EQ levels resulted in small positive correlations that were not statistically significant. The Pearson correlation coefficient between team performance scores and Education Services Officers EQ levels was .22 ($p = .261$), while the correlation between team performance levels and Education Services

Specialists Emotional Quotient levels was .02 ($p = .916$). Therefore the combined EQ scores of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists provided a stronger positive relationship with a higher significance level, even though it was not statistically significant.

Regarding Emotional Quotient levels between female and male Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists, there was no statistically significant difference. Descriptive statistics in Table 15 show that female Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists scored higher on the EQ-i:S than did male Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists. While this sample of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists did demonstrate mean differences between the genders on the EQ-i:S, these differences might be attributed to sampling error and possibly do not reflect true population differences between the genders. According to Bar-On (2002), if the results would have been significant, both mean Emotional Quotient levels would have been considered average, meaning that the emotional and social capacity of female and male Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists was average.

Table 15
t-Test Results and Descriptive Statistics for Emotional Quotient Level by Gender

Outcome	Group			Group			95% CI for Mean Difference	t	df
	Female		N	Male		N			
	M	SD			M		SD		
EQ level	107.52	10.73	19	100.35	15.56	17	-1.80, 16.15	1.62	34

Additional analyses were performed regarding the age of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists. To analyze the Emotional Quotient levels

by age, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The results of the ANOVA, presented in Table 16, show that there were no statistically significant mean differences in the age groups of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists. Post hoc tests could not be performed since one group had fewer than two cases. The 21-29 year old age group only had one respondent. As a result, there does not appear to be a difference in Emotional Quotient levels among the five age groups. Like the mean Emotional Quotient level for gender, if the results would have been significant, the mean Emotional Quotient level would have been considered average for all but one group, meaning that the emotional and social capacity of four of the age groups of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists was average since the scores fell between 90 and 109. The one respondent in the 21-29 year old age group would have been considered to have a high score, meaning that they had well-developed emotional and social capacity since the score was between 110-119 (Bar-On, 2002) .

Table 16

ANOVA Results and Descriptive Statistics for Emotional Quotient Level of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists by Age

Age Group	Mean	SD	N	
21-29	114.00		1	
30-39	89.50	3.53	2	
40-49	102.75	12.57	4	
50-59	106.77	13.80	22	
60 and older	99.42	13.45	7	
Source	SS	df	MS	F
Group	841	4	210.36	1.17
Error	5572.82	31		

According to Bar-On (2003), scores on the Positivity Index should also be analyzed to determine if individuals may be giving an overstated positive impression of

themselves. If individuals score higher than 130 on this scale, they may be attempting to give a better impression of themselves or they may have an inflated self-esteem.

Of the 27 Education Services Officers and 21 Education Services Specialists who completed the EQ-i:S, six Education Services Officers scored above 130 on the Positivity Index. These respondents included three females in the 50-59 age group, one female in the 40-49 age group, and one male in the 50-59 age group. To determine if the overstated Positive Impression score is accurate, an individual would have been assessed at the time they completed the EQ-i:S to determine if this might be accurate. However, since this study was conducted through remote administration, this assessment was not possible. Bar-On (2003) stated that since the results were obtained through remote administrations, "the data obtained require additional validation because a non-standard administration protocol was used" (p. 7).

Like Education Services Officers, descriptive statistics were also calculated for Education Services Specialists by gender. Female Education Services Specialists had a mean EQ score of 102, while male Education Services Specialists had a mean EQ level of 89. The standard deviations were 12 and 10 for female and male Education Services Specialists, while the range was 35 and 36 respectively.

When comparing the data between Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists, the Education Services Officers had higher EQ scores than Education Services Specialists. However, when analyzing the EQ scores by gender, female Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists had higher EQ scores than their male counterparts. Data analysis regarding age using a one-way ANOVA showed that a statistically significant change in EQ score does not exist when

taking into consideration age of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists.

Like Emotional Quotient levels, descriptive statistics were provided for team performance, job satisfaction, and organizational climate levels. Independent samples t-tests were conducted for gender of the Counselors. The results of the t-test and descriptive statistics for team performance levels by gender are shown in Table 17.

Table 17
t-Test Results and Descriptive Statistics for Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate Levels by Gender

Outcome	Group			Group			95% CI for		
	Female		N	Male		N	Mean		t
M	SD	M		SD	Difference				
TP	58.64	8.66	14	51.08	15.09	12	-2.85, 17.97	1.53	24
JS	14.14	3.25	14	11.16	3.51	12	0.23, 5.71	2.24*	24
OC	18.64	2.87	14	14.25	5.56	12	0.61, 8.16	2.46*	24

Note. TP = Team Performance level; JS = Job Satisfaction level; OC = Organizational Climate level.

* $p < .05$

Team performance levels of Counselors were measured from their responses to the team performance items. Regarding gender, female Counselors had the highest mean team performance level with a smaller standard deviation. However, the results were not statistically significant. Therefore, the differences among the team performance levels may be attributed to sampling error and may not reflect the true population differences.

Like team performance levels, female Counselors had a higher mean job satisfaction score and a slightly smaller standard deviation as shown in Table 17. However, the t-test results were statistically significant at the .05 level when equal variances were assumed. As such the differences between the genders on job satisfaction were significant.

Effects of gender on organizational climate were also analyzed as shown in Table 17. Like previous results of gender on team performance and job satisfaction, female Counselors had a higher mean organizational climate level and a smaller standard deviation than did their male counterparts. Since the F test was significant ($p < .05$), then equal variances were not assumed. The results were also statistically significant at the .05 level. Therefore, differences between the genders on organizational climate were significant.

To further examine the relationship gender has on team performance, organizational climate, and job satisfaction, a correlation was performed. As a result, statistically significant findings were found. Strong positive correlations existed between the levels of team performance and organizational climate ($r = 0.718$, $p < .001$) for female Counselors as well as levels of team performance and job satisfaction ($r = 0.774$, $p < .001$). Organizational climate and job satisfaction levels also showed a statistically significant positive correlation ($r = .804$, $p < .001$) for females.

For male Counselors, even stronger relationships were found. Strong positive correlations exist between the levels of team performance and organizational climate ($r = 0.854$, $p < .001$) for male Counselors as well as levels of team performance and job satisfaction ($r = 0.915$, $p < .001$). Organizational climate and job satisfaction levels showed a statistically significant positive correlation ($r = .947$, $p < .001$) for male Counselors.

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics and Correlation among Team Performance, Organizational Climate, and Job Satisfaction

Variable	Correlations					
	TP (F)	TP (M)	OC (F)	OC (M)	JS (F)	JS (M)
Team Performance (F)	----					
Team Performance (M)	-0.027	----				
Organizational Climate (F)	0.718**	0.130	----			
Organizational Climate (M)	-0.173	0.854**	0.57	----		
Job Satisfaction (F)	0.774**	0.145	0.804**	0.149	----	
Job Satisfaction (M)	-0.188	0.915**	-0.029	0.947**	0.076	----
Mean	58.642	51.083	18.642	14.250	14.142	11.166
SD	8.661	15.096	2.871	5.561	3.254	3.511

Note. N = 26. TP = Team Performance; OC = Organizational Climate;

JS = Job Satisfaction. F = Female; M = Male

** $p < .001$

Results of age on team performance levels were shown in Table 19. Team performance scores were the highest among the 30-39 year-old Counselors, who also had the lowest standard deviation. The 21-29 year-old Counselors had the lowest mean team performance level. Even though differences were found among the different age groups, the findings were not statistically significant. As such, these differences may be attributed to sampling error and may not reflect true population differences among the age groups.

Table 19

ANOVA Results and Descriptive Statistics for Team Performance Level by Age

Age Group	Mean	SD	N		
21-29	44.00		1		
30-39	61.28	7.99	7		
40-49	55.50	14.85	6		
50-59	49.28	12.21	7		
60 and older	56.60	14.49	5		
Source	SS	df	MS	F	
Group	639.82	4	159.95	1.04	
Error	3211.55	21			

Counselors responded to questions regarding job satisfaction as well as team performance items on the survey. Additional analyses were performed regarding the age of Counselors. To analyze the job satisfaction levels by age, an ANOVA was conducted. The results of the ANOVA, presented in Table 20, show that there were no statistically significant mean differences in the age groups of Counselors. Post hoc tests could not be performed since one group had fewer than two cases. The 21-29 year old age group only had one respondent. As a result, there does not appear to be a difference in job satisfaction levels among the five age groups of Counselors.

Table 20

ANOVA Results and Descriptive Statistics for Job Satisfaction Level by Age

Age Group	Mean	SD	N		
21-29	8.00		1		
30-39	14.57	2.82	7		
40-49	13.33	3.01	6		
50-59	11.14	4.91	7		
60 and older	12.80	4.32	5		
Source	SS	df	MS	F	
Group	65.91	4	16.47	1.30	
Error	264.70	21			

Like team performance and job satisfaction items, organizational climate items were included on the survey. An ANOVA was also used to analyze the organizational climate scores by age. The results of the ANOVA, presented in Table 21, show that there were no statistically significant mean differences in the age groups of Counselors even though the 30-39 year old age group had the highest organizational climate level. Once again, post hoc tests could not be performed since one group had fewer than two cases. The 21-29 year old age group only had one respondent. As a result, there does not appear to be a difference in organizational levels among the five age groups of Counselors.

Table 21

ANOVA Results and Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Climate Level by Age

Age Group	Mean	SD	N		
21-29	16.00		1		
30-39	19.71	3.30	7		
40-49	16.83	4.53	6		
50-59	15.60	4.81	7		
60 and older	15.60	6.10	5		
Source	SS	df	MS	F	
Group	115.83	4	28.95	1.33	
Error	456.31	21			

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine if the level of emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists plays a role in team performance of Counselors while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction. In order to measure the magnitude of the relationship, a multiple regression research design was utilized. The worldwide population of the Army Continuing Education System's personnel were asked to participate in this study, resulting in 36% of the population participating. This study consisted of Education

Services Officers and Education Services Specialists completing the Emotional Quotient Inventory: Short (EQ-i:S). The Counselors completed the Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate in ACES survey. The Emotional Quotient scores on the EQ-i:S and the ratings on the Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate in ACES survey were analyzed.

Analysis of the results showed that the null hypothesis was accepted for the research question. There was not a significant relationship between the emotional intelligence level and the team performance level, while taking into consideration job satisfaction and organizational climate. The lack of statistical significance may be due to the small sample size as Cohen (1992) stated that a minimum sample size of 34 or 76 was needed at the .05 level for a large or medium effect size, respectively.

However, further analyses showed that job satisfaction and organizational climate levels were significantly related to team performance levels in correlational and multiple regression analyses. Both job satisfaction and organizational climate levels had strong, positive relationships with team performance at the .001 level when the Emotional Quotient level was not included. However, job satisfaction level was significantly related to team performance level in regression analyses even when combined with Emotional Quotient and organizational climate levels. Organizational climate levels were significantly related to team performance when only combined with Emotional Quotient levels.

Regarding effects of gender and age, there were no significant relationships among the Emotional Quotient levels of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists. However, there were differences between the genders on team

performance, job satisfaction, and organizational climate levels which were significant.

Regarding the effects of age on team performance, job satisfaction, and organizational climate levels, there were no statistically significant findings.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

In an effort to assist the Army Continuing Education System by measuring emotional intelligence and team performance levels, this multiple regression study was conducted. The purpose of this study was to determine if the level of emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists plays a role in team performance of Counselors while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction. In order to conduct this study, all Army Continuing Education System personnel were asked to participate worldwide. Respondents included 36% of the entire Army Continuing Education System which was comprised of 28 Education Services Officers, 20 Education Services Specialists, and 26 Counselors.

This multiple regression study measured emotional intelligence levels of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists through online self-assessments of the EQ-i:S. Team performance, job satisfaction, and organizational climate levels of Army Education Counselors were also examined through an online self-assessment of a newly constructed instrument, which was titled Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate in ACES.

In addition to the data analysis needed to answer the research question, further analyses were performed. To determine if there were differences between the genders in levels of emotional intelligence levels as well as team performance, organizational

climate, and job satisfaction, t-tests and correlations were conducted. Besides data analysis to conclude differences in the levels between the genders, analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to determine if there were significant differences among the age groups as they pertained to emotional intelligence, team performance, job satisfaction, and organizational climate levels.

Analysis of Findings

This study was performed in order to answer the following overarching research question: What is the magnitude of the relationship between the level of emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists and the team performance level of Counselors at Army Education Centers while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction? In order to address the findings for the overarching research question, they will be discussed as shown from the correlational and multiple regression results. Additional findings regarding gender and age differences are also included.

Emotional intelligence levels of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists were found to have a low positive correlation ($r = .229$) with team performance levels of Counselors, but this finding was not statistically significant. Regression analyses findings when combining emotional intelligence levels and team performance levels with job satisfaction and organizational climate levels was also not significant. However, other combinations of variables with emotional intelligence resulted in significant findings.

When combining emotional intelligence levels with team performance and job satisfaction levels, there was a strong positive relationship between team performance

and job satisfaction. As job satisfaction levels increased, team performance levels increased. When combining emotional intelligence with team performance and organizational climate, there was also a significantly strong positive relationship between team performance and organizational climate. As such, as organizational climate levels increased, team performance levels increased.

Further analyses included gender and age in relation to emotional intelligence, team performance, job satisfaction, and organization climate levels. Gender differences on job satisfaction and organizational climate levels were significant. Correlational results regarding gender were also significant. The higher the level the female Counselors rated on organizational climate, the higher their team performance level. In addition, the higher the job satisfaction level of female Counselors, the higher their team performance level. The higher they rated their organizational climate level, the higher their job satisfaction level. Regarding male Counselors, similar findings occurred. The higher the organizational climate level rated by male Counselors, the higher their team performance level. The higher the job satisfaction level rated by male Counselors, the higher their team performance level. The higher their organizational climate level, the higher their job satisfaction level. Regarding the five age groups, significant differences did not occur in regard to emotional intelligence, team performance, job satisfaction, and organizational climate levels.

Discussion of Research Findings

Emotional intelligence is a valuable component of leadership according to Barbuto and Burbach (2006). Especially among educational leaders, emotional intelligence features have been found critical to success in schools (Bardach, 2008).

Since emotional intelligence is valuable to educational leadership, understanding the components is important. Bar-On (2007) described emotional intelligence to include the following five components: intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, stress management, adaptability, and general mood. With these aspects in mind, understanding their relation to Army Education leadership is important.

In the Army Continuing Education System, leaders in Army Education Centers include the Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists (Department of Army, 2006b). In order to be effective leaders in Army Education Centers, Education Services Officers in particular need to have certain leadership competencies. These competencies, associated with emotional intelligence, were found by Ellert (2008) to include listening enthusiastically, building trust, and balancing the requirements of the mission with the welfare of the staff.

Linkages between emotional intelligence and organizational productivity were found by Leeamornsir and Schwindt (2002). Related to productivity in the educational arena, principals with higher emotional intelligence levels were found by Bardach (2008) to have better performing schools. Further research conducted by Kambeya (2009) found that increased teacher performance resulted from perceived good interpersonal communication with their principals. Conversely, the current study found that emotional intelligence of the Army Education Center leaders was found to have a weak positive relationship with team performance of the Counselors, but this finding was not statistically significant.

Additional studies regarding the effects of age and gender on emotional intelligence have also been conducted as they relate to educational leadership. According

to Barbuto and Burbach (2006), Cook (2006), and Craig (2008), emotional intelligence levels affect the performance of educational leaders. Specifically, Cook (2006) found that emotional intelligence had a positive effect on leadership performance among elementary principals. However, Cook's (2006) findings regarding age and gender were not statistically significant. Similarly, the results of this study regarding emotional intelligence levels pertaining to age and gender were also not statistically significant.

According to Boyatzis and Sala (2004), women usually had higher levels of emotional intelligence. Other findings showed that women tended to perform better on tests measuring different emotional reasoning abilities (Lam, 1998). Though not significant in the current study, Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists who were women had higher emotional intelligence levels than their male counterparts.

Teams in today's workplace have become essential to the effectiveness of organizations (Leach, Wall, Rogelberg, & Jackson, 2005; Leholm & Vlasin, 2006). This effectiveness is also attributed to the improvement they bring to the organization (Foster, 2000) as well as their ability to solve organizational problems and improve ingenuity and output (Colenso, 2000). However, developing standardized measures to gauge team performance across organizations has been challenging according to Schilling and Jones (2000) and Pitts (2009).

For this study, measuring team performance involved measuring processes and outcomes of teams (Kline & Sulsky, 2009), even though the process of measuring team performance has been difficult (Jones & Schilling, 2000; Pitts, 2009). In order to measure processes for the current study, items pertaining to decision making,

communication, and trust (Kline & Sulsky, 2009) were incorporated into the instrument. Items assessing the team's results were also included in the instrument as stated by Kline and Sulsky (2009). Included with the instrument that measured team performance, organizational climate was also measured.

Evidenced by Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002), organizational climate contributes up to 30 % of an organization's productivity. Coupled with this connection between organizational climate and productivity, actions of the leaders influence as much as 70% of what their staff members think about their organizational climate. Since interpersonal skills are critical to the role of a leader as found by the Army Training and Leaders Development Panel Report (2006), the panel recommended training and development opportunities be provided for future Army civilian leaders.

Further defining the connection between organizational climate and organizational performance, Stringer (2002) stated that organizational climate plays a role in influencing behavior and motivation of employees of an organization (Stringer, 2002). Since opinions of individuals in the organization influence the attitudes of the whole group, organizational climate can be assessed to understand the shared view of those in the organization (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000). With this in mind, organizational performance has been found to be influenced by supportive (Voon, Hamali, & Tangkau, 2009) and positive (Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008) organizational climates. Those findings were similar to those of the current study. Organizational climate levels were significant ($p < .001$) and were found to influence team performance. When organizational climate levels of Army Education Counselors increase, their level of team performance also increases.

Regarding organizational climate as influenced by age, this study did not have statistically significant results. However, regarding the differences in mean scores for female Counselors, organizational climate levels were strongly, positively related to team performance ($r = .718, p < .001$) and job satisfaction ($r = .804, p < .001$). Male Counselors' organizational climate levels were even more strongly related to team performance ($r = .854, p < .001$) and job satisfaction ($r = .947, p < .001$) than the female Counselors' levels.

Similar to organizational climate, research has also shown that job satisfaction influences performance (Voon, Hamali, & Tangkau, 2009). To better understand the components of job satisfaction used in this study, a description follows. Factors contributing to job satisfaction include rewards, relationships with co-workers, policies and procedures followed within the organization, and communication (Spector, 1985). Pertaining to the relationship of job satisfaction and rewards, Beckers, van der Linden, Smulders, Kompier, Taris, and Geurts (2008) found that rewards played a role in job satisfaction. In addition, satisfaction with communication was shown to be a predictor of job satisfaction and job performance as found by Goris (2007). In the current study, the job satisfaction items on the survey pertained to rewards, relationships with co-workers, policies and procedures, and communication. Job satisfaction as measured using these factors was found to be positively related to team performance levels.

According to Voon, Hamali, and Tangkau (2009), statistically significant results were found that increases in job satisfaction also resulted in increases in organizational performance. However, research has not been directly linked with performance in regard to teams. The current study found statistically significant results pertaining to job

satisfaction in relation to team performance. As job satisfaction levels increase, team performance levels increase. The more satisfied Counselors were with their job, the higher their team performance levels were.

In addition, age and gender effects were measured as they related to job satisfaction. The differences in job satisfaction levels among the five age groups were not statistically significant. However, statistically significant differences were found between the genders. Job satisfaction levels for female Counselors were strongly, positively related to team performance ($r = .774, p < .001$) and organizational climate ($r = .804, p < .001$). Similarly, job satisfaction levels for male Counselors were strongly, positively related to team performance ($r = .915, p < .001$) and organizational climate ($r = .947, p < .001$).

Conclusions

In the Army Continuing Education System as well as other organizations, seeking connections between leadership and performance improvement while doing more with less personnel is an ever present challenge. Since the number of employees in the Army Continuing Education System was reduced to half of its previous size between fiscal years 2006 and 2007 (Ramsberger & Sticha, 2006), the need to find these connections is critical. As Army Education Centers have been compared to a college and university setting as they sometimes have thousands of students enrolled in classes in an Army Education Center (P.H. King, personal communication, October 7, 2010), much is required of those who work there. This study's focus on educational leadership, particularly emotional intelligence levels of Army Education Centers' leaders, and team

performance levels of Counselors who work at those Army Education Centers, resulted in further awareness of influences on performance, specifically team performance.

Even though emotional intelligence levels of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists were not shown to have a significant relationship with team performance levels of Counselors, there was still a small positive relationship between emotional intelligence and team performance levels. Since there was a relationship between emotional intelligence and team performance levels, should the Army Continuing Education System consider replicating the study with a larger sample size to determine if the relationship could be significant?

The study found that job satisfaction and organizational climate levels are significantly related to team performance levels. By knowing the factors that influence team performance, the Army Continuing Education System can improve measures that influence job satisfaction and organizational climate in order to better meet the mission of providing education programs and services for the soldiers. With this in mind, should the Army Continuing Education System adapt current policies that influence job satisfaction and organizational climate at local Army Education Centers? Additional findings also showed that gender significantly influenced job satisfaction and organizational climate levels.

Implications

The purpose of this study was to determine if the level of emotional intelligence of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists plays a role in team performance of Counselors while taking into consideration organizational climate and job satisfaction. As this study focused on those individuals who work at the installation

level Army Education Centers with the Army Continuing Education System, there are several proposed applications for this setting. To expand the application of these findings, there are other settings in which educational leaders and organizations could benefit from this research. As such several implications are provided for this study.

To begin, there are several implications applicable within the Army Continuing Education System. First, if it were determined that emotional intelligence did make a significant difference in team performance levels, then emotional intelligence training could be provided to the educational leaders within the Army Education Centers so that productivity could be improved. This is essential in today's society when more work is being done with fewer personnel.

By changing the professional development policy to include emotional intelligence training, the Army Continuing Education System could potentially achieve higher team performance levels in Army Education Centers worldwide. Training should be required for all educational leaders in the Army Continuing Education System who serve in supervisory positions to include ESOs, Supervisory Education Services Specialists, and intern supervisors. Individuals should participate in refresher training on emotional intelligence at least once every three years and within the first year of becoming a supervisor.

Particularly for those who supervise Army Education interns, this training could be monumental as higher levels of emotional intelligence held by their supervisor may impact the intern's entire career from the beginning. Increased emotional intelligence levels evidenced by the supervisors could directly impact the team performance of interns who become full time Counselors at the end of their internship. This could potentially

influence the climate of the Army Continuing Education System as more interns are hired in the Army Continuing Education System.

Second, in addition to the role emotional intelligence of leaders in the Army Education Centers plays, improved performance based on job satisfaction and organizational climate could also benefit soldiers worldwide. While increased levels of job satisfaction and organizational climate have shown to be related to increased team performance, leadership in Army Education Centers may consider addressing ways to further improve job satisfaction and organizational climate levels in Army Education Centers especially since the number of staff has decreased and may continue. Since Army Education Centers are located throughout the world, soldiers would benefit from the improved performance of personnel at their nearby Army Education Center whether in the continental United States or in foreign countries.

Third, improved performance could result in improved creativity, better problem solving, and increased output. According to Ramsberger and Sticha (2006), there are fewer personnel in the Army Continuing Education System than there were three years ago. With only 208 Army Continuing Education System personnel around the world (D. Hindman, personal communication, June 25, 2010) to assist soldiers in the various locations worldwide, improved problem solving is necessary to find creative ways to meet the demand to assist the large number of soldiers with their educational endeavors.

Not only could the Army Continuing Education System benefit from this study, but those in educational leadership positions in other educational settings may also benefit. In higher education institutions, teacher preparation programs could gain from these findings. Supervising teachers who oversee student teachers in the classrooms

could benefit from the emotional intelligence training. The increased level of emotional intelligence of supervising teachers could impact the future careers of the student teachers who must collaborate with others in their school and school systems. In addition, educational leadership programs could incorporate emotional intelligence training in hopes that those skills would carry into their respective educational setting or school system.

Beyond traditional education settings, the findings of this study can be used by leaders in other organizations, which may include federal and state agencies as well as corporations. Particularly since significance was found showing that organizational climate and job satisfaction were strongly and positively related with team performance levels, these findings could be used by human resource departments as areas in which to focus by providing new policies for improving job satisfaction and organizational climate levels. Human resource departments may consider developing new ways to improve these levels in an effort to improve team performance levels. Additional policies could also include emotional intelligence training for all middle and upper level management.

In conclusion, the implications from the findings of this study could be monumental for not only the Army Continuing Education System and other traditional education settings as it pertains to educational leadership, but these findings could be beneficial to corporations by finding ways to improve levels of team performance. Through the incorporation of emotional intelligence training for leaders in education and further attempts to improve organizational climate and job satisfaction levels, performance levels may increase as a result. In the ever-changing society in which we

live and work, these proposed applications could assist organizations who seek to improve performance levels, especially among teams.

Recommendations

1. A replication of this study with a larger group of participants is recommended to determine if the required number of 34 or 76 participants would have resulted in significant findings with large and medium effect sizes, respectively.
2. Emotional intelligence training should be provided to the current Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists. Then the EQ-i:S could be re-administered to determine if emotional intelligence training is effective for this particular population in Army Education. This pre- and post- test assessment could measure if there were any changes in emotional intelligence levels.
3. Since the Team Performance, Organizational Climate, and Job Satisfaction in ACES survey was administered to Army Education Counselors, it is recommended that this survey also be administered to Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists to determine what the levels of team performance, organizational climate, and job satisfaction are for the Army Education Center leaders.
4. Administering the complete version of the Emotional Quotient Inventory may also be necessary to get a more comprehensive assessment of emotional intelligence of Army Education Center leaders since Bar-On (2002) stated that the full version is the most widely used assessment for adults in evaluating emotional intelligence actions.
5. Since previous studies have shown that emotional intelligence effects individual performance, Army Education Counselors should also be administered the EQ-i:S to

determine if their own emotional intelligence effects their individual levels of performance.

Dissemination

In order to share the findings of this study with those in the Army Continuing Education System as well as others outside of Army Education, the researcher intends to take several measures in order to do so. The results will be provided to the Army Continuing Education System. The researcher plans to present the findings at the next Department of Defense Worldwide Symposium as well as another international or national conference. The research will be presented for publication in a journal. As such, the researcher hopes that sharing these findings regarding emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, organizational climate, and team performance will lead to a better understanding of how these can help improve performance.

Concluding Thoughts

Being allowed to conduct this worldwide study with the Army Continuing Education System has been an honor. I hope that the leadership within the Army Continuing Education System will be able to implement policies and training that could be developed as a result of this study since we are always searching for better ways to assist the service members of our great nation. I am pleased to have found significant results that may contribute to our improved performance. Particularly since the number of personnel in the Army Continuing Education System is shrinking, these findings could prove even more beneficial as we face new challenges in the future.

References

- Albrecht, K. (2006). *Social Intelligence: The new science of success*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Army Training and Leader Development Panel Report. (2003, 24 February). Phase IV (Civilian Study) (Civilian Personnel Policy Office). Fort Leavenworth, KS: US Army Combined Arms Center.
- Alston, B. A. (2009). *An examination of the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership practices* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Dissertation Abstracts International. (UMI No. 3352390).
- Ashkanasy, N. M., Wilderom, C. P., & Peterson, M. F. (2000). Introduction. In N. M. Ashkanasy, C.P. Wilderon, & M. F. Peterson (Eds.) *Handbook of organizational culture and climate* (pp 1-18). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Assessment Alternatives, Inc (1992). Team Peer Assessment Rating Form. In Smither, J. W. (Ed.) (1998). *Performance Appraisal: State of the Art in Practice*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Austin, E. J., & Saklofske, D. H. (2005). Far too many intelligences? On the commonalities and differences between social, practical, and emotional intelligences. In R. Schultz & R. D. Roberts (Eds.), *Emotional Intelligence: An International Handbook* (pp. 107 - 128). Cambridge, MA: Hogrefe and Huber.
- Babin, B. J. & Boles, J. S. (1996). The effects of co-worker involvement and supervisor support on service provided role stress, performance, and job satisfaction. *Journal of Retailing*, 72(1), 57-75.

- Barbuto, Jr., J. E. & Burbach, M. E. (2006). The emotional intelligence of transformational leaders: A field study of elected officials. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 146*(1), 51-64.
- Bakker, A. B., Emmerik, H. V., & Riet, P. V. (2008). How job demands, resources, and burnout predict objective job performance: A constructive replication. *Anxiety, Stress, & Coping, 21*(3), 309-324.
- Bardach, R. H. (2008). *Leading schools with emotional intelligence: A study of the degree of association between middle school principal emotional intelligence and school success*. Unpublished dissertation, Capella University, Minneapolis.
- Bar-On, R. (2002). *Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Short Technical Manual*. North Tonawanda, NY: Multi-Health Systems.
- Bar-On, R. (2007). How important is it to educate people to be emotionally intelligent, and can it be done? In R. Bar-On, J. G. Maree, & M. J. Elias (Eds.), *Educating people to be emotionally intelligent* (pp. 1-14). Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.
- Bar-On, R., Handley, R., & Fund, S. (2006). The impact of emotional intelligence on performance. In V. U. Druskat, F. Sala, & G. Mount (Eds.), *Linking emotional intelligence and performance at work* (pp. 1-19). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Beckers, D. G., Van der Linden, D., Smulders, P. G., Kompier, M. A., Taris, T. W., & Geurts, S. A. (2008). Voluntary or involuntary? Control over overtime and rewards for overtime in relation to fatigue and work satisfaction. *Work & Stress, 22*(1), 33-50.

- Boyatzis, R. E. & Sala, F. (2004). The emotional competence inventory. In G. Geher (Ed.), *Measuring emotional intelligence* (pp.147-180), Hauppauge, NY: Nova Science Publishers.
- Brown, F. W., & Moshavi, D. (2005). Transformational leadership and emotional intelligence: A potential pathway for an increased understanding of interpersonal influence. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 867-871.
- Bumphus, A. T. (2008). The emotional intelligence and resilience of school leaders: An investigation into leadership behaviors (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Dissertation Abstracts International. (UMI No. 3329731).
- Cohen, J. (1992). A prime power. *Psychology Bulletin*, 112(1), 155-159.
- Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G. & Aiken, L.S. (2003). *Applied Multiple Regression/Correlation Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences* (3rd Ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Colenso, M. (2000). Kaisen and the team: the great Symbiosis. In Cloenso, M. (Ed.) *Kaisen strategies for improving team performance* (pp. 41-53), London: Prentiss Hall.
- Cook, C. R. (2006). *Effects of emotional intelligence on principal's leadership performance* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Dissertation Abstracts International. (UMI No. 3206272).
- Costa, A. C., Roe, R. A., & Taillieu, T. (2001). Trust within teams: The relation with performance effectiveness. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 10(30), 225-244.

- Craig, J. B. (2008). *The relationship between the emotional intelligence of the principal and teacher job satisfaction* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Dissertation Abstracts International. (UMI No. 3310476).
- Currall, S. C., Towler, A. J., Judge, T. A., & Kohn, L. (2005). Pay satisfaction and organizational outcomes. *Personnel Psychology*, 58, 613-640.
- deJong, A., de Ruyter, K., & Lemmink, J. (2005). Service climate in self-managing teams: Mapping linkage of team member perception and service performance outcomes in a business-to-business setting. *Journal of Management Studies*, 48(2), 1593-1620.
- Department of the Army. (1999). *Army Leadership: Be, Know, Do*. Washington, DC: Author.
- Department of the Army. (2006a). *Army Civilian Education System*. Washington, DC: Author.
- Department of the Army. (2006b). *Army Continuing Education System* (Army Regulation 621-5: Rapid Action Revision, 6 September 2009). Washington, DC: Author.
- Department of the Army. (2006c). *Army leadership: Competent, confident, and agile*. (Field Manual No. 6-22 (FM22-100)). Washington, DC: Author.
- Department of the Army. (2007). *Army Leadership* (Army Regulation 600-100). Washington, DC: Author.
- Downey, J. A. (2008). *The influence of emotions on perceptions of job satisfaction among community college administrators in Virginia* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Dissertation Abstracts International. (UMI No. 3149188).

- Eichmann, K. (2009). *The effectiveness of training to improve the emotional intelligence of leaders* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Dissertation Abstracts International. (UMI No. 3350595).
- Elfenbein, H. A. (2006). Team emotional intelligence: What it can mean and how it can affect performance. In V. U. Druskat, F. Sala, & G. Mount (Eds.), *Linking emotional intelligence and performance at work* (pp. 165-184). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Ellert, R. K. (2008). *Leadership competencies needed by future army education services officers*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Georgia Southern University, Statesboro.
- Emery, C. R., & Summer, T. P. (1996). The role of organizational climate in the implementation of Total Quality Management. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 8 (4), 484-497.
- English, F. W. (2008). *The art of educational leadership: Balancing performance and accountability*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.
- Feldblyum, T., Nierman, W., Leholm, A., & Vlasin, R. (2006). The teams of TIGR. In Leholm and Vlasin, *Increasing the odds for high-performance teams* (pp. 88-149), East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University Press.
- Fisher, K. (2000). *Leading self-directed work teams: A guide to developing new team leadership skills*. New York, NY: McGraw- Hill.
- Foster, N. (2000). Setting up the team: Preconditions for success. In Cloenso, M. (Ed.) *Kaisen strategies for improving team performance* (pp. 73-84), London, England: Prentiss Hall.

- Gall, M.D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W.R. (2007). *Educational research: An introduction*. Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Gardner, H. (1993). *Multiple intelligences: The theory in practice*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Gardner, H. (2006). *Multiple intelligences: New horizons*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Geher, G., & Renstrom, K. L. (2004). Measurement issues in emotional intelligence research. In G. Geher (Ed.), *Measuring emotional intelligence: Common ground and controversy* (pp. 3-19). Hauppauge, NY: Nova Science Publishers.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York, NY: Bantam Dell.
- Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York, NY: Bantam Dell.
- Goleman, D. (2002). *Primal leadership: Learning to lead with emotional intelligence*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Goleman, D. (2006). What makes a leader? In W. E. Rosenbach, & R. Taylor (Eds.), *Contemporary issues in leadership* (6th Ed., pp. 159-173). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2002). *Primal leadership: Learning to lead with emotional intelligence*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Goris, J. R. (2007). Effects of satisfaction with communication on the relationship between individual-job congruence and job performance/satisfaction. *Journal of Management Development*, 26(8), 737-752.

- Gowing, M. K., O'Leary, B. S., Brienza, D., Cavallo, K., & Crain, R. (2006). A practitioner's research agenda: Exploring real-world applications and issues. In V. U. Druskat, F. Sala, & G. Mount (Eds.), *Linking emotional intelligence and performance at work* (pp. 245-265). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Haberfeld, M. R. (2006). *Police leadership*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentiss Hall.
- Happiness (n.d.). In *Merriam-Webster's online dictionary*. Retrieved August 15, 2009, from <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/happiness>
- Hoy, W. K., & Miskel, C. G. (2008). *Educational Administration: Theory, Research, and Practice (8th Ed.)*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Hoy, W. K., & Tarter, C. J. (2008). *Administrators Solving Problems of Practice*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education.
- Horey, J. D., Fallesen, J.J., Morath, R., Cronin, B., Cassella, R., Franks, Jr., W. et. al (2004). *Competency based future leadership requirements* (Army Research Institute No. 1148). Arlington, VA: US Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Hughes, M., & Terrell, J. B. (2007). *The emotionally intelligence team*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Jarvenpaa, S. L., Shaw, T. R., Staples (2004). *Toward contextualized theories of trust: The role of trust in global virtual teams*. *Information Systems Research*, 15(3), 250-267.
- Jones, S.D. & Schilling, D. J. (2000). *Measuring Team Performance*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Jordan, P. J., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2006). Emotional intelligence, emotional self-awareness, and team effectiveness. In V. U. Druskat, F. Sala, & G. Mount (Eds.), *Linking emotional intelligence and performance at work* (pp. 145-163). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Kambeya, N. V. (2008). *Georgia teachers' perceptions of principals' interpersonal communication skills as they relate to teacher performance*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Georgia Southern University, Statesboro.
- Kenney, T. J. (2008). *The impact of middle school principals' content area background in improving student achievement* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Dissertation Abstracts International. (UMI No. 0821342).
- Kline, T., & Sulsky, L. (2009). Measurement and assessment issues in performance appraisal. *Canadian Psychology*, 50(3), 161-171.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2006). Challenge is the opportunity for greatness. In W. E. Rosenbach, & R. Taylor (Eds.), *Contemporary issues in leadership* (6th Ed., pp. 21-30). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Krastek, R. A. (2008). *A critical analysis of the role of the principal in transforming the culture of a middle school through the use of emotional intelligence* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Dissertation Abstracts International. (UMI No. 3304492).
- Lam, L. T. (1998). *Emotional intelligence: Implications for individual performance* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Dissertation Abstracts International. (UMI No. 9842015).

- Leach, D. J., Wall, T. D., Rogelberg, S. G., & Jackson, P. R. (2005). Team Autonomy, performance, and member job strain: Uncovering the teamwork KSA link. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 54 (1), 1-24.
- Leeamornsiri, J. N., & Schwindt, R. C. (2002). *The awareness and utilization of Emotional Intelligence in Leadership Development as perceived by HRD practitioners in the Kansas ASTD Chapter*. Paper presented at the 2002 AHRD Conference.
- Leholm, A., & Vlasin, R. (2006). Learning from the masters of team performance. In Leholm, A., & Vlasin, R., *Increasing the odds for high-performance teams*, (pp.12-35), East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University Press.
- Lencioni, P. (2005). *Overcoming the five dysfunctions of a team: A field guide*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Levi, D. (2007). *Group dynamics for teams*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., & White, R. K. (1939). Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created "social climates." *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10, 271-299.
- Likert, R. (1961). *New patterns of management*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Luthans, F., Norman, S. M., Avolio, B. J., Avey, J. B. (2008). The mediating role of psychological capital in the supportive organizational climate-employee performance relationship. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29, 219-238.
- Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2007). *Psychological capital: Developing the human competitive edge*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Implications for educators* (pp. 3-31). New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. (2000). Models of emotional intelligence. In R. J. Sternberg (Ed.), *The handbook of intelligence* (pp. 396-420). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- McIntyre, M. G. (1998). *The management handbook: Five key strategies for maximizing group performance*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Milhoan, P. L. (2007). *Emotional intelligence competencies of the department chairs in the West Virginia State Community College System and their faculty members' perceptions of organizational climate* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Dissertation Abstracts International. (UMI No. 3298536).
- Moos, R. H. (1981). *Work Environment Scale Manual*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Multi-Health Systems (2004). *The Emotional Quotient Inventory: Short*. Retrieved June 20, 2009, from <https://www.mhs.com/product.aspx?gr=cli&prod=eq-is&id=overview>
- Murphy, K. R., & Sideman, L. (2006). The fadification of emotional intelligence. In K. R. Murphy (Ed.), *A critique of emotional intelligence* (pp. 283-299). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Neubauer, A. C., & Freudenthaler, H. H. (2005). Models of emotional intelligence. In R. Schulze & R. D. Roberts (Eds.), *Emotional intelligence: An international handbook* (pp. 31-50). Cambridge, MA: Hogrefe & Huber.

- Northouse, P. G. (2007). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Pellitteri, J., Stern, R., Shelton, C., & Muller-Ackerman, B. (2006). The emotional intelligence of school counseling. In J. Pellitteri, R. Stern, C. Shelton, & B. Muller-Ackerman (Eds.), *Emotionally intelligent school counseling*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Pitts, D. (2009). Diversity management, job satisfaction, and performance: Evidence from U.S. federal agencies. *Public Administration* (March/April).
- Ramsberger, P. F. & Sticha, P. J. (2006). *Assessing the value of Army Continuing Education System personnel to overall benefits the Army accrues*. (Army Research Institute No. 20060929049). Arlington, VA: US Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Rapisarda, B. A. (2002). *The impact of emotional intelligence on work team cohesiveness and performance* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Dissertation Abstracts International. (UMI No. 3066076).
- Rivers, S. E., Brackett, M. A., Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (2007). Measuring emotional intelligence as a set of mental abilities. In G. Matthews, M. Zeidner, & R. D. Roberts (Eds.), *The science of emotional intelligence* (pp. 230-257). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Salkind, N. J. (2008). *Statistics for people who think they hate statistics*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

- Sashkin, M., & Sashkin, M. G. (2003). *Leadership that matters: The critical factors for making a difference in people's lives and organizations' success*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Salovey, P., Mayer, J. D., & Caruso, D. (2002). The positive psychology of emotional intelligence. In C.R. Snyder, S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology of emotional intelligence* (pp. 159-171). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Schneider, B., Bowen, D. E., Ehrhart, M. G., & Holcombe, K. M. (2000). The climate for service. In N. M. Ashkanasy, C.P. Wilderon, & M. F. Peterson (Eds.) *Handbook of organizational culture and climate* (pp 21-36). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Schoorman, F. D., Mayer, R.C, & Davis, J. H. (1996). Empowerment in veterinary clinics: The role of trust in delegation. *11th Annual Meeting Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, San Diego, CA.
- Shen, M.J., & Chen, M.C. (2007). The relationship of leadership, team trust and team performance: A comparison of the service and manufacturing industries. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 35(5), 643-658.
- Spector, P. (1985). Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the job satisfaction survey. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 13, 693-713.
- Sprinthall, R.C. (2003). *Basic Statistical Analyses* (7th ed.). Boston: Pearson Education Group.
- Steiner, I. D. (1972). *Group processes and productivity*. New York, NY: Academic Press.

- Stringer, R. (2002). *Leadership and Organizational Climate*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Tagiuri, R. (1968). The concept of organizational climate. In R. Tagiuri & G. H. Litwin (Eds.). *Organizational climate: Explorations of a concept* (pp. 11-32). Boston, MA: Harvard University.
- Taylor, D. L., & Tashakkaori, A. (1994). *Predicting teachers' sense of efficacy and job satisfaction using the school climate and participatory decision making*. Paper presented at the 1994 Annual Meeting of the Southwest Educational Research Association (San Antonio, TX).
- Terpstra, D. E., & Honoree, A. L. (2004). Job satisfaction and pay satisfaction levels of university faculty by discipline type and by geographic region. *Education, 124*(3), 528-539.
- Thomas, T. A. (2006, September - October). The leadership battlebook: A practical approach to leader self-development. *Military Review, 109-112*.
- U.S. Office of Personnel Management. (1991). *Position classification flysheet for Education Services series, GS-1740*. Retrieved from <http://www.opm.gov/fedclass/gs1740.pdf>
- Voon, B. H., Hamali, J. & Taugkau, J. (2009). Linking service climate to organizational performance: Evidence from Sarawak. *International Journal of Business and Society, 10*(1), 18-26.
- Wageman, R. (1997). Critical success factors for creating superb self-managing teams. *Organizational Dynamics, 26*(1), 49-61.

- Ware, J. (2006). Awareness using emotional and intuitional intelligence. In J. Ware, & J. Dethmer, *High performing investment teams: How to achieve best practices of top firms* (pp.119-138). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Weis, S., & Suts, H.M. (2005). Social Intelligence-A review and critical discussion of measurement concepts. In R. Schulze & R. D. Roberts (Eds.), *Emotional intelligence: An international handbook* (pp. 203-230). Cambridge, MA: Hogrefe & Huber.
- Wendorf-Heldt, K. K. (2009). *Emotional intelligence: The link to school leadership practices that increase student achievement* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Dissertation Abstracts International. (UMI No. 3357139).
- Wilderom, C. P., Glunk, U., & Maslowski, R. (2000). Organizational culture as a predictor of organizational performance. In N. M. Ashkanasy, C.P. Wilderon, & M. F. Peterson (Eds.) *Handbook of organizational culture and climate* (pp 193-210). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Wolf, S. B., Druskat, V. U., Koman, E.S., & Messer, T. R. (2006). The link between group emotional competence and group effectiveness. In V. U. Druskat, F. Sala, & G. Mount (Eds.), *Linking emotional intelligence and performance at work* (pp. 223-242). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Workforce Compensation and Performance Service. (1974). *Grade evaluation guide for positions of managers of operating education programs* (TS No. 19). Alexandria, VA: US Office of Personnel Management.

Yang, J. (2008). Can't serve customers right? An indirect effect of co-workers' counterproductive behavior in the service environment. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 81, 29-46.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

LETTER TO EDUCATION SERVICES OFFICER AND EDUCATION SERVICES

SPECIALIST PARTICIPANTS



COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF LEADERSHIP, TECHNOLOGY, AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

Army Continuing Education System: The Role of Emotional Intelligence in Army Education Leadership as it Pertains to Team Performance

Dear Education Services Officer or Education Services Specialist:

I am requesting your participation in a study to determine if there is a relationship between the emotional intelligence level of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists and the team performance level of Education Counselors. This study is being conducted as part of a doctoral dissertation at Georgia Southern University. This letter is to request your assistance in collecting data using the survey instrument outlined in the following paragraph.

Since the emotional component of leadership is important, Barbuto and Burbach (2006) stated that the concept of emotional intelligence is a valuable component of leadership. In order to measure emotional intelligence, the Emotional Quotient Inventory: Short version will be provided. The answers you provide should reflect how you would think, feel or act in most situations. Should you choose to participate, the survey instrument website link will be made available to you along with the access code and password. The survey consists of short statements that you will be asked to rate on a scale from 1 to 5. The survey may take 10 minutes or less to complete.

Completion of the survey will be considered as consent to use your responses in analyzing emotional intelligence levels. Demographic data will also be used as part of the study. Please be assured that your responses will be confidential and anonymous. If this research is published, no information that would identify you will be included. The data will be most useful if you respond to every item on this instrument. However, you may choose to not answer one or more items on the survey.

If you have any questions about accessing the survey, please contact me, Olivia Hamil Penrod, by email at olivia.penrod@us.army.mil or by telephone at 912-767-2510. You may also contact my faculty advisor, Dr. Cindi Chance, at Georgia Southern University by email at lcance@georgiasouthern.edu or by telephone at 912-478-7267. If you have any questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant in this study, please direct your questions or concerns to the IRB Coordinator at the Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs at 912-478-5465.

I greatly appreciate your assistance in studying this question.

Respectfully,

Olivia Hamil Penrod
Fort Stewart, GA
912-767-2510
olivia.penrod@us.army.mil

APPENDIX B

LETTER TO COUNSELOR PARTICIPANTS



COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF LEADERSHIP, TECHNOLOGY, AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

Army Continuing Education System: The Role of Emotional Intelligence in Army Education Leadership as it Pertains to Team Performance

Dear Education Counselor:

I am requesting your participation in a study to determine if there is a relationship between the emotional intelligence level of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists and the team performance level of Education Counselors. This study is being conducted as part of a doctoral dissertation at Georgia Southern University. This letter is to request your assistance in collecting data using the survey instrument outlined in the following paragraph.

Since studies have shown that team performance can have great benefits for organizations when emotional intelligence is utilized (Leeamomsir & Schwindt, 2002; Jordan & Ashkanasy, 2006; Elfenbein, 2006), studying team performance in Army Education is important. Organizational climate and job satisfaction are also other factors that can effect performance. In order to measure team performance, organizational climate, and job satisfaction, a newly constructed survey will be provided. Should you choose to participate, the survey instrument website link will be made available to you. The survey consists of 27 short statements that you will be asked to rate on a Likert scale from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree. The survey may take 10 minutes or less to complete.

Completion of the survey will be considered as consent to use your responses in analyzing team performance levels as well as organizational climate and job satisfaction. Demographic data will also be used as part of the study. Please be assured that your responses will be confidential and anonymous. If this research is published, no information that would identify you will be included. The data will be most useful if you respond to every item on this instrument. However, you may choose to not answer one or more items on the survey.

If you have any questions about accessing the survey, please contact me, Olivia Penrod, by email at olivia.penrod@us.army.mil or by telephone at 912-767-2510. You may also contact my faculty advisor, Dr. Cindi Chance, at Georgia Southern University by email at lchance@georgiasouthern.edu or by telephone at 912-478-7267. If you have any questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant in this study, please direct your questions or concerns to the IRB Coordinator at the Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs at 912-478-5465.

I greatly appreciate your assistance in studying this question.

Respectfully,

Olivia Hamil Penrod
Fort Stewart, GA
912-767-2510
olivia.penrod@us.army.mil

APPENDIX C
INFORMED CONSENT



COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF LEADERSHIP, TECHNOLOGY, AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

INFORMED CONSENT NOTICE

1. This study will be conducted by Olivia Hamil Penrod in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Education in Educational Administration. The study is part of the doctoral dissertation mandated by Georgia Southern University to complete the degree requirements.
2. Purpose of the Study: The purpose of this research is to determine if a relationship exists between the emotional intelligence level of Education Services Officers and Education Services Specialists, as well as organizational climate, job satisfaction, and the team performance level of Education Counselors.
3. Procedures to be followed: Participation in this research will include completion of an online survey, which will also include demographic questions.
4. Discomforts and Risks: Your participation in this research involves minimal risk. Minimal risk is described as harm or discomfort that is not greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life.
5. Benefits: This research will add to the body of academic knowledge related to educational administration and leadership, specifically in the area of emotional intelligence and team performance the Army Continuing Education System.
6. Duration/Time required from the participant: The survey will take approximately 10 minutes or less to complete.
7. Statement of Confidentiality: All identities and survey responses will remain anonymous. Any hard-copy information collected during the study will be locked in a security cabinet in the researcher's residence. Only the researcher and the faculty advisor will have access to the information collected during the study. The final report will not include any information that would identify participants of the study. The electronic transmission of information using the Internet limits the assurance of confidentiality. Precautions against unauthorized access to the surveys include the use of a password protected secure web account for the transmission of the survey instrument.
8. Right to Ask Questions: Participants have the right to ask questions and have those questions answered. If you have questions about this study, please contact the researcher named above or the researcher's faculty advisor, whose contact information is located at the end of the informed consent. For questions concerning your rights as a research participant, contact Georgia Southern

University Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs at 912-478-0843.

9. Compensation: Participants are not provided compensation.
10. Voluntary Participation: Your participation in this research study is voluntary. You may choose to end your participation in this study at any time without consequence by notifying the principal investigator or by not completing your survey instrument. You do not have to answer any questions you do not want to answer.
11. Penalty: There is no penalty for deciding not to participate in this study.
12. You must be 18 years of age or older to consent to participate in this research study. If you consent to participate in this research study and to the terms above, please sign your name and indicate the date below.

You will be given a copy of this consent form to keep for your records.

Title of Project: Army Continuing Education System: The Role of Emotional Intelligence in Army Education as it pertains to Team Performance

Principal Investigator: Olivia Hamil Penrod
100 Knowledge Drive
Fort Stewart, GA 31314
Telephone - (912) 767-2510
Email address - olivia.penrod@us.army.mil

Faculty Advisor: Dr. Cindi Chance
Georgia Southern University
P. O. Box 8131
Statesboro, GA 30460-8131
Telephone - (912) 478-7267
Email address- lchance@georgiasouthern.edu

Participant Signature

Date

I, the undersigned, verify that the above informed consent procedure has been followed.

Investigator Signature

Date

APPENDIX D
TEAM PERFORMANCE, JOB SATISFACTION, AND ORGANZATIONAL
CLIMATE IN ACES SURVEY

Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate in ACES

You have been asked to participate in this study due to your experience as a Guidance Counselor in the Army Continuing Education System (ACES). The results of this survey will provide ACES and Army leadership with information that could lead to improved performance at Army Education Centers. The survey will consist of 27 questions dealing with team performance, organizational climate, and job satisfaction. This survey should only take 10 minutes or less to complete. It is not necessary to indicate your name anywhere, and when you have completed marking your answers, simply click Done and the web browser will close.

Completion of this survey will be considered consent to use your responses in analyzing the team performance, organizational climate, and job satisfaction of Counselors in ACES. Please be assured that your responses will be confidential and anonymous. If this research is published, no information that would identify you will be included. The data will be most useful if you respond to every item on this instrument; however, you may choose not answer one or more of the items on the survey.

Please select one of the following under each statement that best represents your opinion: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Moderately Agree, Agree, Strongly Agree. Please complete the demographic information near the end of the survey as well.

1. My co-workers communicate openly and are to the point.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

2. I can depend on my co-workers to help with any team projects.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

3. My co-workers are friendly and supportive.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate in ACES

4. My co-workers listen carefully to others in the group.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

5. My co-workers develop various solutions to problems.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

6. There is a high level of cooperation between the sections of my organization.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

7. My co-workers show they understand what someone says by reiterating it.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate in ACES

8. All of my colleagues are encouraged to contribute in the group's decision making process.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

9. No matter the project, I have peace of mind knowing my colleagues will do their part.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

10. My co-workers are sensitive to others' feelings and well-being.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

11. My co-workers consider multiple perspectives when evaluating a problem.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate in ACES

12. I fully trust my colleagues.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

13. My co-workers are competent in helping students.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

14. Employees' skills are utilized to best benefit the organization.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

15. There are many rewards for those who work here.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate in ACES

16. When my co-workers communicate, they get the point across by using facts.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

17. My co-workers make decisions based on facts instead of feelings.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

18. My co-workers discuss education programs and services that relate to the students' needs.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

19. Our policies and procedures make doing a good job easy.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate in ACES

20. To ensure they are fully understood, individuals are encouraged to explain their ideas.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

21. The chain of command is willing to listen to employees and take action when needed.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

22. I enjoy the people I work with.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

23. Organizational policies are fairly applied.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Team Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Climate in ACES

24. Information flows well within the organization.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

25. I feel like I know what is going on in my organization.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Moderately Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

26. Gender

- Female
- Male

27. Age (in years)

- 21-29
- 30-39
- 40-49
- 50-59
- 60 or older

APPENDIX E
IRB APPROVAL

Georgia Southern University Office of Research Services & Sponsored Programs Institutional Review Board (IRB)		
Phone: 912-478-0843		Veazey Hall 2021
		P.O. Box 8005
Fax: 912-478-0719	IRB@GeorgiaSouthern.edu	Statesboro, GA 30460

To: Olivia H. Penrod
P.O. Box 3906
Fort Stewart, Georgia 31315

cc: Charles E. Patterson
Associate Vice President for Research

From: Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs
Administrative Support Office for Research Oversight Committees
(IACUC/IBC/IRB)

Date: April 6, 2010

Subject: Status of Application for Approval to Utilize Human Subjects in Research

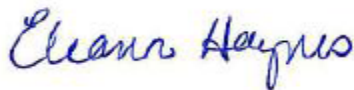
After a review of your proposed research project numbered: H10315, and titled "Army Continuing Education System: The Role of Emotional Intelligence in Army Education Leadership as It Pertains to Team Performance", it appears that your research involves activities that do not require approval by the Institutional Review Board according to federal guidelines.

According to the Code of Federal Regulations Title 45 Part 46, your research protocol is determined to be exempt under the following exemption category(s):

- Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless: (I) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (II) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Therefore, as authorized in the Federal Policy for the Protection of Human Subjects, I am pleased to notify you that your research is exempt from IRB approval. You may proceed with the proposed research.

Sincerely,



Eleanor Haynes
Compliance Officer