

# **Educational leaders and emotions: An international review of empirical evidence 1992-2012**

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## **Abstract**

The aim of the present paper is to review the international evidence about emotional aspects related to educational leaders. The review focuses on empirical studies published in peer-refereed educational journals between 1992 and 2012. First, we address the importance of researching emotions for understanding educational leaders. Next, we present the method used in the production of this narrative review. The bulk of the paper presents empirical evidence from 49 studies organized along themes. Three central themes have emerged in the review: (a) the factors influencing the leaders' emotions, (b) leaders' behaviors and their effects on followers' emotions, and (c) leaders' emotional abilities. Within each theme, we present sub-themes that include summaries of the relevant key findings. The paper concludes with several methodological recommendations and an outline of possible directions for future research.

**Keywords:** emotions, emotion regulation, emotion labor, emotional intelligence, educational leaders, principals

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## **1. Introduction**

For many years, emotions were characterized as irrational and, as such, were delegitimized in the workplace (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). In the last 20 years, as the misguided stigma on emotions was toned down, more and more professionals have addressed their emotional experiences and shared them with colleagues at the workplace, and researchers have increasingly explored the nature of workplace emotions. Emotions have been found to be a key psychological aspect in determining cognitions, motivations, and behaviors in the workplace (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Fineman, 2000; George, 2000).

Research on emotions and educational personnel started to flourish in the early 1990s, but the field as a whole remains underdeveloped. Current knowledge about emotional aspects among leaders of educational organizations is still limited. In their literature review of teachers' emotions and teaching, Sutton and Wheatley (2003) stated that little is known about how emotional experiences affect teachers, how emotions relate to educational practices and outcomes, and how teachers regulate their emotions. A decade later, similar lacunae emerged in the current review of empirical evidence about the emotional aspects related to educational leaders.

The present paper begins by defining the constructs at focus in the current review and outlining the relevance of emotions to the understanding of educational leaders. These sections are followed by a summary of the method used to produce the narrative review. Next, we review empirical evidence relating to educational leaders and emotions. We conclude with several methodical recommendations and promising directions for future research about educational leaders and emotions.

## **2. Definitions of Key Constructs**

Despite ongoing scholarly debates for defining leaders and emotions, working definitions can assist writers and readers to better communicate. For the purpose of this review, we define leaders as individuals who act as a source of leadership (i.e., as part of a social process of influence) or are expected to exhibit leadership (Barker, 2001). Educational leaders are individuals who aspire to influence other people's motivation, knowledge, and practices to facilitate teaching and learning (Spillane & Diamond, 2007). This broad definition includes leaders who currently hold formal roles such as principals, deputy principals, and superintendents, as well as aspiring

leaders such as administration students,<sup>1</sup> thereby covering most types of leaders traditionally studied in educational research. The focus on leaders makes it possible to address their experiences, abilities, and behaviors, which are all relevant when attempting to isolate emotions' role in the workplace (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Moreover, because perceptions of educational leadership are framed by local socio-cultural and professional discourses (Shah, 2010), we believe that focusing our review on international evidence may produce a richer description of emotional phenomena related to educational leaders.

According to our working definition, emotions are affective experiences, such as fear or joy, that emerge when one perceives events or situations to have personal significance because they harm or promote oneself or one's goals (Lazarus, 1991). Emotions are often accompanied by bodily reactions such as physiological arousal and facial expressions, and occasionally they even stimulate a tendency for action that can help in coping with the event (Frijda, 1986). Emotions can manifest in short and intense episodes (i.e., feelings) or in long and low-intensity states (i.e., moods), and they can shape affective attitudes toward a person or an entity (Frijda, 1986; Gawronski & Bodenhausen, 2007). Emotional phenomena are suggested as vital for achieving a better understanding of leaders' attitudes, behaviors, and outcomes.

### **3. Why Are Emotions Relevant to Understanding Educational Leaders?**

We assert that emotions are central for understanding educational leaders in four ways. First, emotional experiences and their displays express leaders' reactions to the surrounding social reality and to how that reality relates to their goals. Emotions can grant insights regarding one's true desires and fears (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Positive emotions are known to involve pleasure and/or indicate progress toward a desired goal (Frijda, 1994). Blackmore (2010) contended that educational leadership is about "the desire to make a difference," but added that "leadership is equally about fear of failure, pain, exhaustion... and guilt associated with the ethical dilemmas that leaders confront on a daily basis" (p. 642). Negative emotions are known to involve unpleasant experiences and/or indicate lack of progress toward a desired goal (Frijda,

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<sup>1</sup> Educational administration students are enrolled in academic degree programs (master's or doctoral) or licensure programs for school leaders. In many cases these students are employed in educational organizations and have formal or informal leadership experience. Often programs use relevant leadership experience as a selection criterion.

1994). Various job-related characteristics such as supervision, work conditions, and interactions with subordinates have been linked with managers' emotions (Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004).

Second, leaders' behaviors affect the emotions of the actors (e.g., teachers) who interact with those leaders (Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008). The organizational literature has shown that followers' negative emotions were linked to unfavorable leadership behaviors like abusive, aggressive, autocratic, and unfair distributive behaviors; by contrast, followers' positive emotions were linked to favorable leadership behaviors like transformational and supportive leadership behaviors (Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010).

Third, leaders' affective abilities are precursors of their emotions and behaviors, and as such, of desired work outcomes. It has been suggested that successful educational leaders possess high emotional intelligence (EI) abilities. Blase and Blase (2004) noted that "an awareness and understanding of emotions (even as they occur), the ability to manage one's emotions, and the ability to express emotions in appropriate ways, given the context, are regarded as critical to effective school leadership" (p. 258). Thus, leaders with high EI may conduct themselves more adaptively and effectively, demonstrate more transformational leadership, and thereby promote desired organizational outcomes that can turn low-performing schools around (Cai, 2011).

Fourth, educational leaders' emotions may also be influenced by macro factors that in recent years have been causing educational administration work to become more conflicted, complex, and political (Schmidt, 2010). In the past, educational systems were dominated by a bureaucratic governance model (Maroy, 2009), and schools were considered as "domesticated," stable organizations with an assured clientele (Carlson, 1967). But changes in the economic, social, political, and technological domains have made education the target of frequent large-scale reforms (Hargreaves, 2000). In response to these changes, some countries embraced a market-oriented, neoliberal educational governance that promotes decentralization, privatization, accountability, and testing policies (Maroy, 2009). Today, educational professionals face an unstable and competitive environment, and leaders' emotional state may serve as an indicator of their success in coping with these global and local turbulences (Schmidt, 2010).

## 4. Method

We collected data on publications in peer-refereed educational journals (1990-2012) regarding emotional aspects of educational leadership, and we analyzed the identified corpus of 49 empirical studies using narrative review.

### 4.1 Literature Search Procedure

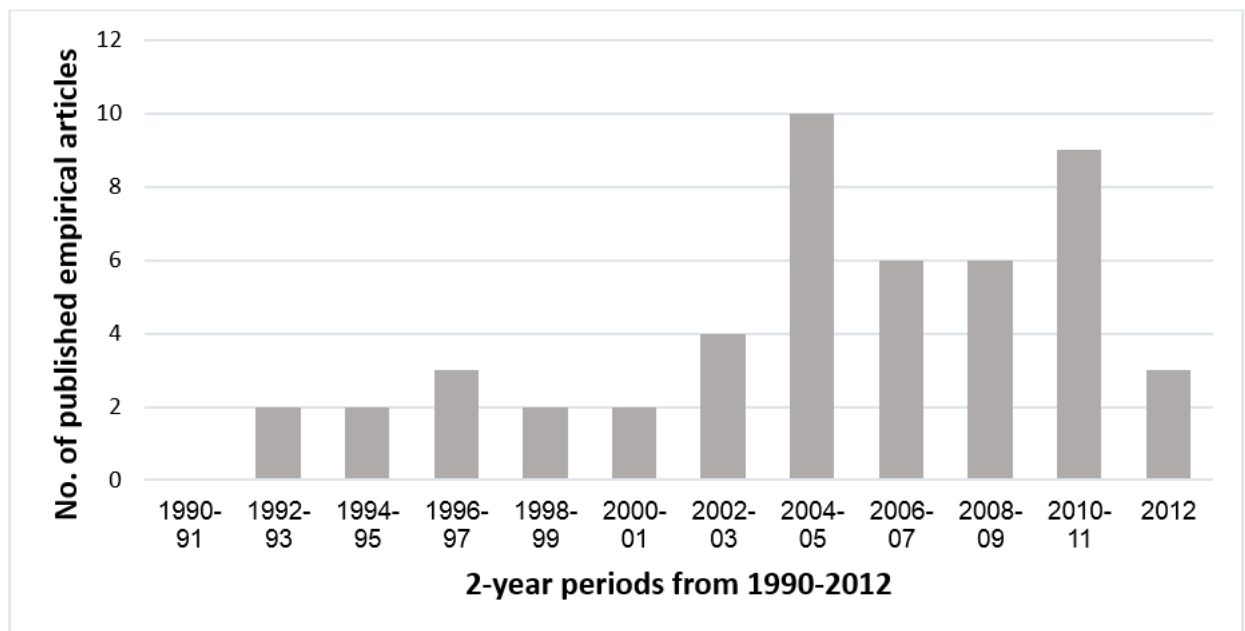
Ashkanasy, Härtel, and Daus (2002), addressing the history of emotion research in organizations, argued that in the late 1980s and early 1990s a shift occurred, from the prior dominant rationalistic approach that ignored and dismissed emotional issues, to an approach that considered mood and affect as variables of interest in workplace research. Hence, to capture the early foundations of the research field pertaining to educational leaders and emotions, we decided to adopt a conservative approach and conduct our search beginning in 1990. We mined the ERIC database for peer-refereed articles published between 1990-2012 using combinations of *affective* keywords (e.g., emotion, emotional, affect, affective, emotional intelligence, emotional labor, emotion regulation, empathy) and *educational leaders* keywords (e.g., administrator, superintendent, principal, head teacher, vice-principal, deputy principal, educational leader). In addition, we conducted a search with the same keywords in Google Scholar for peer-refereed articles published between 1990-2012 in each of the following educational administration and school psychology journals: *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *Educational Management, Administration & Leadership*, *School Leadership & Management*, *Leadership & Policy in Schools*, *International Journal of Leadership in Education: Theory & Practice*, *International Studies in Educational Administration*, *Journal of Educational Administration*, *Journal of School Leadership*, *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *Educational Psychology in Practice*, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *Journal of School Psychology*, *Journal of Social Psychology in Education*, *Psychology in the Schools*, *School Psychology*, *International School Psychology Quarterly*, and *Social Psychology of Education*. Our search produced more than 800 documents.

### 4.2 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

We next specified a set of inclusion and exclusion criteria. First, we read the abstracts of all the articles we identified, and we narrowed the corpus to 129 studies based on the following inclusion criteria: (a) relevance to the topic (focus on emotions or

emotion-related constructs in the context of educational leaders); and (b) the work's empirical nature (data reported on topic). Second, we conducted a deeper screening, exploring the articles' theory, methodology, and results. We then excluded studies that met the following criteria: (a) insufficient elaboration on theoretical constructs or method, which hindered inferences on the results' contribution to understanding of emotional phenomena related to educational leaders (i.e., constructs' lack of clear definition, measurement tools' inadequate description); (b) use of composite measures or reported results that inseparably mixed affective and non-affective bases for constructs (e.g., when exploring organizational commitment or trust); and (c) unified measurement or report of results on both leaders and non-leaders, which made it impossible to differentiate them.

As seen in Figure 1, the earliest empirical article that we identified in our search was published in 1992; therefore, our final corpus of 49 articles (31 qualitative, 14 quantitative, and 4 mixed-method) ranged from 1992-2012.



*Figure 1.* Empirical articles on educational leaders and emotions published biyearly, 1990-2012.

### 4.3 Data Analysis

To synthesize the knowledge accumulated over 21 years in the 49 research articles identified on educational leaders and emotions, we chose a narrative review approach that allows classification of content topics (Posthuma, Morgeson, & Campion, 2002). Using this approach, after reading the studies, the two authors, who have knowledge

about emotions in organizations and experience in content analysis, constructed a preliminary organizing framework of themes by contents. The framework was elaborated in the course of analyzing the articles, until we established the final framework of three core themes and their sub-themes as presented in Table 1. Articles could be coded as relevant to multiple themes. In total, multiple themes were classified in 17 of the 49 reviewed articles (12 qualitative, 5 quantitative).

Table 1

*Distribution of Peer-Refereed Studies (N = 49) by Theme and Methodology*

Themes	Sub-themes		Study methodology			Total <i>n</i>
			Qualitative	Quantitative	Mixed	
Leaders' emotional experiences and displays	Contextual factors	Macro	7	2	-	9
		Micro	3	2	2	7
	Leadership role factors		6	6	1	13
	Mission-related factors		3	2	1	6
	Subtotal		19	12	4	35
Leaders' behaviors and their effects on followers' emotions	Relationship-oriented behaviors		5	3	-	8
	Mistreatment behaviors		1	1	-	2
	Subtotal		6	4	0	10
Leaders' emotional abilities	General emotional intelligence abilities		-	2	-	2
	Empathic abilities		4	1	1	6
	Self-regulation of emotion		12	-	1	13
	Interpersonal emotion regulation		5	-	1	6
	Subtotal		21	3	3	27

*Note.* Of the 49 reviewed articles, 17 articles were coded with multiple themes (35% of all articles reviewed).

## 5. Results

Our narrative review identified three core themes in the literature about educational leaders and emotions: (a) leaders' emotional experiences and displays, (b) leaders' behaviors and their effects on followers' emotions, and (c) leaders' emotional abilities. Below we address these core themes and their sub-themes by first presenting a short

overview of relevant constructs and background literature, followed by the empirical findings yielded by the current review.

### *5.1 Theme One: Leaders' Emotional Experiences and Displays*

Affective events theory suggests that work events cause affective responses (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Research has indicated that a variety of job events are associated with the emergence of positive and negative emotions in the workplace (Basch & Fisher, 2000). Note that emotions are more than the expression of individual psychological attributes; they are at the same time “contextual, political, and relational” (Schmidt, 2000, p. 829). Thus, in many, if not all cases it may be difficult to separate one’s internal emotions from the contextual influences on one’s emotional dynamics. The organizational literature suggests that emotions are subjected to contextual influences, commonly manifested in the form of a phenomenon known as “emotional labor.” In emotional labor, employees induce or suppress feelings to accommodate emotional norms at the workplace, particularly those related to emotional displays (Hochschild, 1979, 1983). When conforming to such norms, employees can either display the prescribed emotions without embracing the corresponding emotional experience (i.e., a surface act) or, in addition to displaying the prescribed emotions, employees can fully embrace the corresponding internal emotional experience (i.e., a deep act) (Grandey, 2000). Hence, emotional labor is typically discussed when individuals adopt surface acting. When we analyzed this core theme, three sub-themes emerged as sources associated with leaders’ emotional experiences and displays: (a) macro- and micro-contextual factors; (b) leadership role factors; and (c) mission-related factors.

**Contextual factors.** We identified contextual factors as a first sub-theme of leaders' emotional experiences and displays. We found 9 articles related to two macro-contextual factors (social-cultural power relations and policies) and 7 articles related to three micro-contextual factors that influence leaders' emotions (administrative supervision style toward leaders, organizational climate, and situational influences, that is, crises).

**Macro-contextual factors.** Seven studies addressed socio-cultural power relations as factors shaping emotional norms at work, which thereby influence leaders’ emotional expressions and displays. Five of these articles specifically investigated gendered power relations. First, interviewing 17 female school leaders in Australia,



Sachs and Blackmore (1998) found that women felt emotional stress and negative affect as they moved from a feminine teaching culture into their leadership roles within a masculine, technical, "rationalistic" administrative culture. Second, additional insights into the emotional effect for women of operating in a masculine administrative culture were revealed by Oplatka's (2002) interviewed female Israeli principals ( $n = 6$ ), who regarded the emotional care of students, staff, and stakeholders to be a source of burnout. Despite their emotional fatigue, these female principals reported that they did not allow themselves to exhibit negative emotions or lack of caring outwardly. Instead, they directed the negative influence of burnout inward and experienced emotional fatigue that could manifest externally in displays of impatience and anger. A third article on gendered socio-cultural power relations' effect on school leaders' emotions focused on sex-roles. Gmelch and Chan (1995) classified 646 U.S. educational administrators as either feminine or masculine, regardless of their biological gender. Feminine-classified administrators coped less effectively with the stress of boundary-spanning challenges and more effectively with conflict challenges than were androgynous and masculine-classified administrators, demonstrating sex-role's significance for educational leaders' perceptions of stressors. Fourth, in a qualitative study, Blackmore (1996) found that the image of "good leadership" that dominates the educational market is based on a masculine model that distances emotions from school management and values rationality and efficiency. In Blackmore's study, female principals expressed distress as a result of external competition and the perceived abandonment of care as a central goal. Additionally, women principals reported intense emotional stress because they experienced their colleagues' disappointment with their managerial actions. Fifth, in a later study, exploring Australian educational reforms, Blackmore (2004) found that female principals increased their use of self-regulation over time, due to gendered scripts of work conduct during times of reform, which considered displays of negativity and anger as illegitimate.

Two other articles examined how the hegemonic occupational culture prescribes emotional labor rules of rationalistic "professionalism." Beatty and Brew (2004), analyzing feedback from 42 Canadian master's students in educational leadership, found that educational leaders adopt an "emotionless" perspective of professionalism where they "silence" their emotions in order to adapt to perceived emotional-labor rules regarding appropriate feelings. This perspective fosters leaders' misconception

that their emotional experiences are idiosyncratic and are not shared by others holding equivalent leadership roles. Similarly, Crawford's (2007b) interviews of five head teachers in the UK revealed that leaders emphasize the need to be perceived as rational. Moreover, leaders reported that emotions such as anger on the one hand and shame and embarrassment on the other play a role in this self-regulation. Crawford discovered, however, that surface acting can be not only draining but also simultaneously exciting for leaders.

Some evidence related to the macro-context appeared to shed light on how training and socialization processes can cause these emotional norms to take root. First, in their narrative study, Johnson, Aiken, and Steggerda (2005) found that six interviewed U.S. leaders viewed leadership training and socialization as delegitimizing emotions at the workplace by marginalizing and linking them with gender, race, or sexual orientation. They acknowledged that such emotion rules are internalized, shaping their feelings and emotional expressions. Second, interviewed leaders in the aforementioned Sachs and Blackmore's (1998) study stated that they experienced socialization to "emotion rules" when entering the teaching profession. These emotion norms encouraged them to suppress expressions of emotion that may indicate inappropriate, unprofessional lack of control, such as the negative emotions of frustration and even anger that they experienced. The interviewees also described the physical costs of emotional labor, such as exhaustion and illness.

The implementation of systematic neoliberal policies, which increase principals' accountability and competition between schools, seems linked to leaders' negative emotions. Blackmore's (1996, 2004) findings showed that performativity policies had negative emotional implications for leaders. Principals reported dissonance between their performativity demands and their professional commitment or even moral calling to act on behalf of students' interests. This dissonance led some principals to feel dishonest vis-à-vis staff, thereby intensifying their emotional distress. School leaders expressed frustration, desperation, anger, and grief concerning operative changes in the schools. Concurrently, principals described significant emotional investment in their work, with increased individual accountability, because the school's success was closely identified with the principal's success. The effect of such emotional dissonance on leaders' performance was explored in 544 U.S. public school principals in Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2004). Principals' work alienation (i.e., lack of pride, or meaning in their work) was negatively related to their sense of efficacy ( $r = -$

.49).

***Micro-contextual factors.*** Seven articles were related to three micro-level contextual factors: administrative supervision style toward leaders, organizational climate, and situational influences, that is, crises. Three articles demonstrated that supervisors' style toward leaders, if manifested as a lack of support and autonomy on the one hand and as pressure to perform on the other, is associated with leaders' negative emotions. Carr (1994) analyzed 31 Australian school principals' dream recollections and conscious accounts of stressors. In total, 80% of identified stressful situations were work-related, such as perceived lack of support by the education department and a highly demanding employer, and the remaining 20% were personal. Similarly, Beatty (2000) explored past recollections to examine five Canadian administrators' emotional reactions in leadership situations. The leaders recalled experiencing insecurity, fear, anxiety, anger, and desperation due to operating under pressure to succeed without sufficient autonomy or support and, likewise, due to working under threatening and over-controlling supervisors. Evidence from one article suggested that decreases in empowerment elements (which can be interpreted as related to the administration's supervision style toward leaders) may affect leaders' emotions. In their study of 103 vice-principals in Germany, Schermuly, Schermuly, and Meyer (2011) found that a decrease in four psychological empowerment dimensions led to the educational leaders' emotional exhaustion (i.e., chronic state of emotional depletion). Of these four dimensions, decreases in self-determination (i.e., sense of control over work) and impact (i.e., sense of ability to meaningfully influence work processes and outcomes) were found to predict leaders' emotional exhaustion.

Findings in the reviewed articles also indicated that a supportive organizational climate, manifested in subordinates' collaboration and in recognition received from subordinates, promotes leaders' positive emotions, whereas a non-supportive climate is associated with negative emotions. Friedman (2002) found that teachers' lack of cooperation and support were the foremost predictors of 821 Israeli principals' emotional exhaustion. In a complementary manner, qualitative evidence from the aforementioned Beatty (2000) study and from Brennan and Mac Ruairc (2011) showed that leaders identified staff support and collaboration as stimulating leaders' positive emotions. Furthermore, staff recognition involving demonstrations of appreciation and respect was found to be linked with leaders' positive emotions, whereas lack of staff recognition was linked with leaders' negative emotions. For

instance, Beatty (2000) reported that subordinates' validation and positive feedback given to leaders were associated by those leaders with positive emotions such as passion, excitement, satisfaction, and joy. Likewise, Gronn and Lacey's (2004) qualitative analysis of feelings among 21 aspiring school principals in Australia using a weekly e-journal (dairy) found that collegial recognition was associated with descriptions portraying such emotions as joy.

Finally, one article suggested that situational influences such as crisis can affect leaders' emotions. Ackerman and Maslin-Ostrowski (2004) found that U.S. educational leaders ascribe strong negative emotions such as helplessness, loneliness, and fear to crisis experiences (also called "wounding" experiences). Leaders reported that times of crisis exacerbate specific, different types of fears that characterize leadership experiences: fear of failure, fear of change or stagnation, fear of being criticized, fear of being dismissed, and fear of losing one's professional identity. Other studies suggested that crisis situations may raise a wider range of negative emotions in leaders than do other situations; for example, Beatty (2000) reported that administrative events like downsizing elicit leaders' grief, sorrow, and sadness.

***Summary of contextual factors.*** The current literature review demonstrated that a variety of contextual and situational factors influence school leaders' emotions. First, studies in educational leadership and emotions focused primarily on gendered power relations, out of possible socio-cultural power relations (e.g., race, social class, poverty, ethnicity, and age). Findings indicated that gendered social-cultural power relations are perceived as shaping educational leaders' emotional experiences and emotional displays by promoting culturally acceptable modes of attention and inattention. The masculine rational-oriented discourse that dominates the management field (Collinson & Hearn, 1996) and is also present in educational organizations appears to marginalize the feminine emotional-oriented discourse. Thus, under masculine work rules, educational leaders and especially women are pressured to regulate their emotional experiences and expressions in order to be perceived as rational professionals. Findings also suggested that educational leaders' emotion labor, specifically women's, increases as neoliberal reforms advocate masculine emotion norms. Moreover, leaders noted that gendered social-cultural emotion rules are promoted informally and formally in the educational workplace through a combination of socialization and training.

Second, findings indicated that neoliberal macro policies based on

accountability and competition cause educational leaders to experience negative emotions such as fear and anger, characterized by high arousal and unpleasantness. Reports also suggested that leaders facing neoliberal policies often experience growing emotional investment coinciding with increasing personal responsibility. Furthermore, neoliberal policies cause leaders to experience emotional stress because the reforms stimulate conflicts between the formal demands and the leaders' or the staff's moral perceptions of education.

Third, findings showed that educational leaders' emotions are influenced by administrative supervision style. When supervisors do not grant leaders a sufficient level of professional autonomy or sufficient support in their leadership efforts, leaders report negative emotions. These findings are consistent with previous research demonstrating that others' autonomy-supportive behaviors may be linked to individuals' fulfillment of their psychological needs for autonomy and competence, and that these psychological needs have emotional implications (Assor, Roth, & Deci, 2004). Furthermore, supervisors' pressure to perform exerted on leaders seems to affect leaders in the same manner, perhaps because excessive pressure to perform greatly limits one's perception of autonomy and reflects a low evaluation of current performance.

Fourth, our review suggested that organizational climate significantly shapes leaders' emotions. The group's positive feedback and recognition of leaders' efforts create a supportive work climate (Noe, 1986), helping leaders feel more secure and enthusiastic about leadership endeavors. By contrast, non-supportive work climate encourages leaders' negative emotions.

Fifth, findings showed that organizational crisis situations can have a substantial negative effect on educational leaders' emotions. Possibly, moderating characteristics such as self-efficacy come into play and influence leaders' emotions (Sayegh, Anthony, & Perrewé, 2004).

**Leadership role factors.** In the review of studies on educational leaders and emotions, we identified leadership role factors as a second sub-theme of leaders' emotional experiences and displays. In total, 13 reviewed articles explored possible chronic emotional effects related to the leadership role in comparison to other roles in the education system, and addressed the unique characteristics of leadership roles in educational organizations (i.e., structural isolation, process dependence, and workload).

Three quantitative studies compared educational leaders' emotional exhaustion with those of teachers. Gursel, Sunbul, and Sari (2002) found no significant differences in emotional exhaustion (burnout) experienced by 80 head teachers versus 210 teachers in Turkish high schools, using *t*-test and variance analysis. Similar results emerged in a later study in Turkey; Sari (2004) found no significant differences in burnout between 33 head teachers and 262 teachers in a special school system. Kokkinos (2007), who studied 329 teachers and 118 head teachers and deputy head teachers in primary schools in Cyprus in order to examine the relationships between personality characteristics, job stressors, and burnout, found that administrative status contributed least to predicting emotional exhaustion. Overall, the evidence seemed to indicate no effect of holding a designated in-school leadership position (versus a school teaching position) on chronic emotional exhaustion.

Findings in our review highlighted school leaders' unique structural isolation as linked to the emergence of leaders' negative emotions. James and Vince's (2001) study of 14 primary school head teachers in a UK leadership development program indicated that isolation in the headship role leads to negative emotions such as anger. Moreover, head teachers described how their overdeveloped sense of personal responsibility leads to stress, owing to their own self-expectations for flawless performance and to their stakeholders expectations. Two articles suggested that the emotional effect of isolation is experienced at its most extreme during difficult decision-making situations, which are frequent in educational leadership roles. In Whitaker's (1996) interviews with nine U.S. principals, they linked their emotional exhaustion to a sense of being alone in a world of conflict, particularly because their role involves resolving problems. Brennan and Mac Ruairc (2011) also reported that principals reported intensive emotional unease at times of difficult decisions. Moreover, they noted that female principals experienced a more intense sense of role isolation when making difficult decisions than their male counterparts.

One article highlighted that leaders' attempts to break out of the emotional difficulty of their role's isolation were also associated with negative emotions. Beatty and Brew (2004) found that leaders viewed candid discussion of emotions with supervisors and colleagues as placing them in a vulnerable position. Moreover, the notion of engaging emotionally with others in the workplace was deemed inappropriate for leaders. Leaders nevertheless reported their desire to be emotionally authentic in work interactions. They recognized the complexity of attempts to break

out of the structural isolation of leadership and acknowledged the possibility that their desire to create an emotionally secure environment was potentially hurtful and perhaps aggravated their experience of vulnerability.

Two articles explored how educational leaders' process dependence on multiple stakeholders may affect their emotions. In Kelchtermans, Piot, and Ballet's (2011) study, interviewed Flemish-Belgian educational leaders reported feelings of high emotional stress because they acted as school gatekeepers who needed to balance multiple stakeholders' demands, leading them to feel torn between different interests. They experienced ethical dilemmas because they were caught in a web of conflicting loyalties, especially when aggravated by unreasonable external stakeholders. For instance, Friedman (2002) identified interactions with demanding and unreasonable parents as a key predictor of principals' emotional exhaustion.

One article suggested that not all educational leaders experience dilemmas of conflicting loyalties as a key role challenge because the administrative role type seems to affect their viewpoint on these dilemmas. Gmelch and Chan (1995) found that principals were significantly more concerned with conflict-mediating stress than superintendents were. Thus, the type of administrative role may differently shape the dependence between leaders and stakeholders, which may be the ground underlying conflicts.

Three articles indicated that internal workplace conflicts are linked to leaders' emotional experiences. Crawford (2004) explored four UK primary school head teachers using critical incident interviews, to understand how they experienced the management of emotion in the school routine and how that experience related to their perceptions of leadership. Crawford found that leaders' recalled mainly negative emotional experiences linked with interpersonal interactions, focusing on situations in which the leaders' interests were hindered. Brennan and Mac Ruairc's (2011) mixed-method study in Ireland revealed that conflicts emerging between principals and staff due to value-based disagreements (conventionally reflecting conflicting goals) negatively affect principals' emotions and are perceived as emotionally demanding. Similarly, Johnson et al. (2005) found that, in work conflicts, leaders identify a clash between their own and others' value-driven emotions. Leaders nevertheless reported that they did not emotionally detach from situations and that they therefore crossed emotional boundaries, often leading to experiences of "woundedness" characterized by anger, frustration, anxiety, and sadness.

Finally, the reviewed articles pinpointed leaders' workload as affecting their emotions. Gmelch and Gates (1998) found that administrative task overload and lack of time were among the most significant factors predicting 656 U.S. public school administrators' burnout (495 principals and 161 superintendents). Similar findings emerged in articles described above for Israel (Friedman, 2002) and for Cyprus (Kokkinos, 2007). Workload and the constraints imposed by shortages of time have caused many principals to take their work home, which may be responsible for Whitaker's (1996) finding that lack of a clear end of the workday contributed to principals' emotional exhaustion.

***Summary of leadership role factors.*** Although the reviewed articles offered no support for a chronic emotional effect of leaders' specific role versus other educational roles, evidence indicated that leaders' emotions may be influenced by several key characteristics of the educational leadership role: structural isolation, process dependence, and workload. Leaders' isolation elicits negative emotions such as stress, exacerbated during times of complex decision making. Some leaders' attempts to feel less isolated by candidly discussing their emotions with staff increased their sense of vulnerability. Moreover, leaders' process dependence on a variety of partners and stakeholders was found to promote negative emotions. Often conflict emerges between various actors and interests, whether created by external demands of parents or by internal disagreements with staff, and educational leaders find themselves caught in the cross-fire, experiencing stress and burnout. Furthermore, the educational leaders' workload – task burden, lack of time, and in some cases unlimited work hours – leads to increased emotional exhaustion.

**Mission-related factors.** In our review of the literature, we detected six articles pertaining to several mission-related influences on leaders' emotions – the third sub-theme. Two aspects of the leadership mission emerged: social justice challenges and student/teacher performance.

Three studies found that social injustices as well as community resistance and other obstacles to social justice efforts are linked with leaders' negative emotions, whereas successful influences of social justice efforts on students' progress and welfare were linked with positive emotions. For example, Zembylas (2010) conducted an ethnographic case study of a Greek-Cypriot elementary school principal attempting to change his school into an ethnically and culturally diverse one. The findings demonstrated ambivalent positive and negative emotions linked to social



justice challenges. The principal described emotions of sorrow and anger elicited by his sensitivity to social injustices and his commitment to promote social justice. The principal also asserted that despite the adaptive role that negative emotions may play in mobilizing one to action, at high levels they could become unproductive and paralyzing. Furthermore, the principal portrayed constant feelings of guilt due to his overwhelming sense of personal responsibility. In addition, when the leader's efforts to eliminate injustices remained fruitless, emotions of disappointment and frustration as well as perceived personal inadequacy emerged. Moreover, resistance on the part of community members, who often expressed bigoted racial opinions, seemed to exacerbate the principal's emotional exhaustion. At the same time, the principal reported on the positive power of care in relationships with students and members of the oppressed group, and feelings of joy when witnessing a positive transformation in students' learning and inclusion in school.

Another qualitative study investigated leaders' emotional experiences when facing resistance and obstacles in their pursuit of equity and social justice. To this end, over a school year, Theoharis (2008) conducted interviews and observations with seven U.S. principals committed to social justice and equity. Findings indicated that social justice efforts were perceived as emotionally exhausting work because of numerous obstacles, resistance, and long hours involved. Principals felt they were constantly expected to fix everybody's lives, which created a heavy sense of responsibility and affected their emotional well-being. In many cases, principals did not succeed in effecting changes soon enough or at all, resulting in experiences of frustration and burnout.

At the same time, one article seemed to suggest that working in an environment characterized by relatively high social injustice challenges can cause some leaders to develop the resilience necessary to succeed in their role, albeit at a price of emotional fatigue. Using in-depth interviews and questionnaires, Pratt-Adams and Maguire (2009) explored nine successful UK urban primary head teachers' motives for continuing to perform their complex role in such a difficult environment. Findings indicated that head teachers developed emotional resilience by combining assertiveness and determination, which facilitated their survival in the highly demanding headship role. However, they reported that this resilience impaired their ability to express self-doubt or emotional vulnerability, increasing the experience of emotional burnout.

Three studies revealed that students' and teachers' performance influences leaders' emotions. Kelly, Carey, McCarthy, and Coyle (2007) used a mixed-method design to survey 74 principals and interview 12 principals of special schools. Two thirds (66%) of the principals perceived incidents of challenging student behavior to be stressful. This finding was consistent with Kokkinos's (2007) report that student misbehavior was one of the most influential job stressors in predicting leaders' emotional exhaustion.

Using questionnaires, Yariv (2009) investigated five individuals in each of 40 public elementary schools in Israel: the principal and two above-average and two below-average performing teachers. Findings showed that principals expressed highly positive emotions toward the high-performing teachers, including pride, appreciation, gratitude, happiness, and hope. Moreover, the high-performing teachers held positive feelings toward their principals. Interestingly, the low-performing teachers experienced similar positive feelings of pride, gratitude, happiness, and hope toward their principals, but the principals experienced mixed emotions toward the low-performing teachers. Principals' scores on emotions toward low-performing teachers were low on both sides of the emotional spectrum, indicating that the principals distanced themselves emotionally from these teachers and tended to maintain the status quo in order to avoid an escalation in their relationships (given that dismissing a teacher in Israel is hardly possible). The main negative emotion that principals felt toward low-performing teachers was frustration, followed by sadness and compassion. Less frequent emotions such as anger toward low-performing teachers indicated aggression or guilt, whereas shame indicated that the principals perceived themselves as responsible for the teachers' low achievements.

***Summary of mission-related factors.*** Empirical evidence in the reviewed literature highlighted two key mission-related factors as influencing educational leaders' emotions: social justice challenges and students' and teachers' performance. Encounters with social injustice, community resistance to leader-initiated equalizing interventions, and failures in such efforts were all associated with leaders' negative emotions. Success in leaders' proactive efforts to advance the development and the social reality of students from disadvantaged backgrounds was linked with leaders' positive emotions. Furthermore, an educational context characterized by overwhelming social injustices sometimes led to leaders' development of resilience, which may be helpful in the short term but may contribute to emotional fatigue in the

long term.

The second mission-related factor influencing leaders' emotions involved on the one hand students' misbehavior incidents, which were perceived as stressful, and on the other hand low-performing teachers, who evoked leaders' negative emotions (e.g., frustration, sadness) and emotional distancing characterized by low arousal. High-performing teachers were associated with leaders' positive emotions characterized by high arousal (e.g., pride and appreciation).

### *5.2 Theme Two: Leaders' Behaviors and Their Effects on Followers' Emotions*

Educational leadership behavior has been pinpointed as a key element in school improvement because of its influence on school culture, teachers' commitment and attitudes, as well as student achievement and engagement (Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Marks & Printy, 2003). Although the general organizational literature contends that leaders' behaviors influence employees' emotions in the workplace, in the educational context the influence of principals' behavior has barely been mentioned in studies examining teachers' emotions (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). The organizational literature has typically shown that favorable leader behaviors involving supportive, just, and cooperative elements correlate with followers' positive emotions; by contrast, unfavorable leader behaviors involving mistreatment, injustice, and uncooperative elements correlate with followers' negative emotions (Gooty et al., 2010). In examining this theme, we identified two sub-themes for educational leader behaviors in the articles reviewed: relationship-oriented behaviors and mistreatment behaviors.

**Relationship-oriented behaviors.** Leaders' relationship-oriented behaviors "focus on the socioemotional: showing consideration for subordinates' feelings, acting friendly and being personally supportive of them, and being concerned for their welfare" (Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta, & Kramer, 2004, p. 7). Leaders' emotionally supportive behaviors (high or low) appear to be particularly important because they affect the emotions of others. In our review of the literature, we detected eight articles pertaining to this sub-theme of relationship-oriented behavior. Cherkowski (2012) used a qualitative case-study design in a small elementary school in Canada to explore how the principal promoted a culture of learning in the school community. Findings indicated that the principal's compassionate, caring behaviors toward teachers affected their passion for their job. In a focus group conducted by Slater (2005), Canadian

teachers reported that principals adopt emotionally supportive behaviors based on care and respect toward the staff and community, which reduces fears and anxieties, enabling collaboration.

Two articles emphasized that leaders' emotionally supportive behaviors tend to emerge in an organizational climate characterized by the ethics of care. In their qualitative study, Marshall, Patterson, Rogers, and Steele (1996) found that U.S. career assistant principals ascribed great significance to relationships of care and perceived care ethics as linked to leaders' attentiveness to others' needs and to leaders' caring responses to those needs. Roffey (2007) studied six Australian schools over 6 months to investigate the effect of principals' values and styles on establishing a caring and inclusive school community (also termed emotional literacy). Results showed that in interactions with students and staff, the principals' modeling of care in words and actions contributed to their schools' development of a culture of care. Some principals reported a "personal cost" of physical and emotional fatigue due to their constant modeling of caring.

An opposite example, emphasizing leaders' poor relationship-oriented behavior as influencing followers' emotions, emerged in Harris's (2004) case study focusing on emotional tensions and issues arising from the process of organizational change in a small multiracial UK high school. Findings showed that the new head teacher, appointed to the task of turning the school around, used a top-down change strategy and encouraged teachers to become involved in the change without fully understanding its goals. This approach resulted in teacher alienation rather than engagement. The mistrust between parties grew when the head teacher was perceived as displaying low emotional care for the staff. These findings highlight the effect of emotions on trust and, in turn, on followers' resistance to change.

Furthermore, two studies reported about the effect of more general supportive leadership behaviors (social and autonomy support) on teachers' emotions. Brackett, Palomera, Mojsa-Kaja, Reyes, and Salovey (2010) found that principal support played a mediating role in the relationships between 123 UK secondary school teachers' emotion regulation (ER) ability (i.e., ability to regulate their own and others' emotional processes) and the teachers' job satisfaction and burnout (specifically, the personal accomplishment component of burnout). Thus, principals' supportive behaviors appeared to mediate the effectiveness of teachers' ER ability for their emotional well-being. Fernet, Guay, Senécal, and Austin (2012) used a repeated-

measures design to examine a motivational model of intra-individual changes in burnout among 433 Canadian teachers. Changes in teachers' perceptions of students' disruptive behaviors and principal's leadership behaviors (from autonomy-supportive and competence-supportive to more controlling and depreciative) were related to changes in teachers' self-efficacy, which in turn predicted negative changes in burnout, including its emotional exhaustion component.

Moreover, educational leaders' general supportive behaviors were linked with group emotional climate. Hoy and Woolfolk (1993) used a sample of 179 U.S. teachers to investigate schools' organizational health. Of the six health dimensions (school integrity, principals' influence on supervisors, principals' consideration of teachers' input, resource support, staff members' morale and affection toward each other, and academic emphasis), principal's consideration showed the highest correlation with staff morale.

***Summary of relationship-oriented behaviors.*** The articles in our review showed that leaders' high level of relationship-oriented behaviors, focusing on supporting others and promoting their needs and welfare, affected followers' emotions – increasing teachers' passion toward their job and reducing their fears. Moreover, some findings suggested that these behaviors lead to outcomes not only at the individual level but also at the organizational level because they promote a culture of care in schools. By contrast, leaders' low relationship-oriented behaviors, like inattention to followers' emotional needs at times of organizational change, were associated with teachers' emotional alienation. Qualitative findings suggested that principals' relationship-oriented behaviors may mediate the effect of teachers' ER ability on their emotional well-being. Also, changes in principals' leadership behaviors (from supportive to controlling) were found to affect teachers' emotional exhaustion via teachers' self-efficacy. Principals' consideration of teachers' input was linked to staff morale and emotional climate.

**Mistreatment behaviors.** Two articles addressed principals' mistreating behaviors. Mistreatment may range from indirect aggressive behaviors such as discounting teachers' needs and isolating them; through direct escalating aggressive behaviors such as spying, overloading, and criticizing teachers; to severely aggressive behaviors such as threatening teachers, unfairly evaluating them, and preventing their promotion (Blase & Blase, 2003). In the first reviewed article, Blase and Blase (2002) interviewed 50 teachers from the U.S. and Canada who were subjected to long-term

mistreatment by school principals. Their findings attest to the harmful effects of principals' abusive behaviors on teachers' emotions. Teachers' early emotional reactions to principals' mistreatment included feelings of astonishment, embarrassment, isolation, and guilt. The long-term effects of chronic principal's mistreatment led teachers to feel fear, anxiety, anger, powerless, loneliness, and depression. These negative emotions harmed teachers' personal and professional relationships with colleagues, lowered their ability to manage classroom learning, and negatively affected their decision-making ability.

Later, Blase, Blase, and Du's (2008) study of 172 mistreated U.S. teachers found that the principal's mistreatment had negative effects on teachers' emotional well-being. The most commonly reported emotional effects were stress (90.7%), resentment (80.8%), anger (75%), anxiety (65.7%), and bitterness (64%). Interestingly, teachers with union contracts reported a higher frequency of negative emotions than teachers with non-union contracts.

***Summary of mistreatment behaviors.*** Qualitative findings showed that mistreatment by educational leaders is initially associated with teachers' emotional reactions of astonishment, embarrassment, and guilt and later associated with anxiety, anger, and depression. Similarly, quantitative findings linked leaders' mistreatment with teachers' stress, anxiety, and aggression. These outcomes coincide with the general organizational literature suggesting that employer mistreatment affects employees' emotions similarly (Wu & Hu, 2009) and that victims attempt to cope with the negative emotions resulting from others' behaviors (Aquino & Thau, 2009).

### *5.3 Theme Three: Leaders' Emotional Abilities*

In recent years, there has been a renaissance in the exploration of emotions, particularly around the concept of EI. There are three accepted ways to conceptualize EI: trait, ability, or mixed (Frederickson, Petrides, & Simmonds, 2012). Trait-EI conceptualizes EI as collection of emotional self-perceptions located at "the lower levels of personality hierarchies" (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007, p. 283). Ability-EI conceptualizes EI as concrete emotion-related abilities that can be assessed by performance tests (Caruso, Mayer, & Salovey, 2002). The most commonly referenced model of ability EI, by Mayer et al. (2000), includes four abilities: (a) to perceive emotion in oneself and others; (b) to use emotions to facilitate thinking; (c) to understand emotions and emotion processes; and (d) to manage the experience and

expression of emotions in oneself and others (also known as emotion regulation [ER]). Mixed EI, in addition to EI abilities, includes aspects of personality not directly related to emotion or intelligence (Caruso, Mayer, & Salovey, 2002). Goleman's (1998) popular mixed model of EI is a good example because it combines traits with social behaviors and competencies (such as communication and conflict management) and includes four domains: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management.

Empathy and ER constructs, which dominate most EI models, have a theoretical and empirical basis that is independent of the EI framework, and they are often discussed separately in the literature. Empathy involves one's ability to identify, understand, and experience another person's emotions (Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972). Evidence shows that empathy is linked with social sensitivity and prosocial behaviors (Findlay, Girardi, & Coplan, 2006). Another construct widely discussed in the literature is ER, defined as an attempt to influence the type of emotions one experiences, their experience, and their expression (Gross, 2002). Because in certain situations emotions automatically stimulate a tendency toward action that overrides one's goals, some may attempt to self-regulate their emotions. ER involves various strategies and can be directed inward, at one's own emotional processes, or outward, toward another person's emotional processes (Gross & Thompson, 2007). The former is termed in the literature self-emotion regulation; the latter – interpersonal emotion regulation, extrinsic emotion regulation, or emotion management (Gross & Thompson, 2007; Niven, Totterdell, & Holman, 2009).

Within the third core theme of our research review, we identified four sub-themes: (a) leaders' general EI abilities, (b) leaders' empathic abilities, (c) leaders' self-regulation of emotion, and (d) leaders' interpersonal emotion regulation. The first sub-theme concerning leaders' general EI abilities draws on comprehensive frameworks of emotional abilities, and thus may overlap somewhat with the remaining three sub-themes. Nevertheless, we found it necessary to differentiate between the evidence concerning general EI abilities and that dealing with specific emotional abilities affecting inter- and intra-personal aspects, because the latter draw on independent rich knowledge bases not reflected in general EI frameworks.

**General EI abilities.** Two quantitative studies explored leaders' general EI abilities, which were suggested as important antecedents of leaders' behaviors and desired work-related outcomes. Using self-reports, Hackett and Hortman (2008)

found that 46 U.S. assistant principals' EI (assessed by Emotional Competencies Inventory-University Edition) correlated positively with their transformational leadership behaviors. Social awareness and relationship management domains (such as service orientation, developing others through change, acting as a change catalyst, and managing conflicts) were the strongest positive correlates of transformational leadership behaviors.

Moreover, another study's findings suggested that educational leaders' EI may be linked to subordinates' satisfaction. Wong, Wong, and Peng (2010) explored the effect of EI among mid-level leaders and teachers on the teachers' job outcomes in schools. In the first study, 107 teachers were asked to list the characteristics of successful mid-level leaders they know in their schools (defined as senior teachers responsible for administrative duties). Two independent judges identified roughly 60% of responses as somewhat related to EI. Thus, the researchers concluded that most teachers perceive the EI of mid-level school leaders as significant to the leaders' success. In the second study, 3,866 school teachers and mid-level leaders (71% ordinary frontline teachers and 29% teachers holding administrative positions) reported on their own EI (using Wong & Law's 2002 self-report scale) and job satisfaction. The results of hierarchical regression analyses revealed that mid-level leaders' EI had a significant effect on teachers' job satisfaction even after controlling for teachers' EI and mid-level leaders' job satisfaction (which researchers suggested may represent organizational climate).

**Summary of general EI abilities.** Leaders' EI abilities are perceived as greatly overlapping the abilities of successful leaders. Moreover, leaders' EI abilities appear to be associated with higher transformational leadership behaviors and followers' job satisfaction, even after controlling for followers' own EI abilities and for job satisfaction climate. Although these findings are revealing, these studies used trait and mixed-trait approaches that conceptualize individuals' EI as self-perceptions of their emotional abilities (see Joseph & Newman, 2010). These non-ability definitions of EI have been repeatedly criticized as offering insufficient conceptual clarity because they describe a broad array of constructs (some of them overlapping with personality traits) whose only common denominator is that they are non-cognitive (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; Joseph & Newman, 2010; Livingstone & Day, 2005).

**Empathic abilities.** Six articles addressed educational leaders' empathic abilities, including four qualitative studies. In Cliffe's (2011) study of seven female



UK secondary school head teachers, they acknowledged the significance of empathetic abilities for the headship role, specifically in emotionally charged situations. Crawford (2007a) conducted a yearlong qualitative case study of five UK primary school head teachers to explore the emotional dimensions of school leadership. The author reported that leaders' emotional understanding of others in the school community can change schools' emotional context. One specific emotionally charged situation in which the leaders' empathy is valuable is social justice transformation. Also over a period of a year, Jansen (2006) explored how two white South African principals acted to transform their white high schools into racially diverse communities in a mostly unsupportive environment. Findings from interviews and observations indicated that leaders' empathy allowed them to touch others and be touched and thus balance continuity and change. Slater (2005) found that not only principals recognized the importance of educational leaders' emphatic listening but also assistant principals, teachers, and parents.

One mixed-method study sheds some light on the prevalence of principals' empathic abilities. Robinson and Le Fevre (2011) investigated complaint interactions between principals and parents, and the principals' effectiveness in these interactions. Thirty newly-appointed school principals in New Zealand participated in the study, which used a written complaint scenario as a background for simulated interaction, with a trained actor playing the parent. Findings showed that the principals were more accomplished at presenting their own point of view than in learning and understanding the parent's position. Only one third of principals progressed beyond inquiring about factual information to uncover the parent's emotions in regard to the problem. Principals who, in the interaction, demonstrated a deeper level of interest in the parent's emotions and in listening were perceived as more respectful by the actor.

One article highlighted that educational leaders' empathic abilities can be developed to a certain extent. In a series of intervention studies, Smith, Montello, and White (1992) explored the effect of interpersonal skill and group management training on the perceived empathic abilities of school administrators (principals and assistant principals). Findings indicated that after receiving 50 hours of training over 8 months, the behavior of nine educational leaders in role-playing scenarios was rated by judges as more empathic than in the course of the pre-training assessment. In another study, the researchers compared the empathic ratings of eight acting school administrators with those of a control group (11 educational leadership students acting as teachers or

in various leadership roles). The administrators received 12 hours of interpersonal skill and group management training, and the students' control group received 12 hours of class instruction training. The two groups' empathy ratings (assigned by "blind" judges in role-playing scenario), which did not significantly differ at the pre-training stage, did significantly differ after training. Administrators' empathy scores were significantly higher.

**Summary of empathic abilities.** The reviewed articles accentuated that educational leaders and stakeholders recognize the importance of leaders' empathic abilities. Moreover, practicing educational leaders do not display greater empathic behaviors than education administration students, but such behaviors can be developed by training. Although differences could be expected between practicing educational leaders and aspiring leaders because of the former's experience with parent interactions and because of spontaneous learning on the job, the evidence suggests that experience in the field does not contribute to the perception that educational leaders display empathic behaviors.

**Self-regulation of emotion.** Twelve studies reported on various strategies that educational leaders use to regulate their emotions, including emotional impression management, cognitive disengagement, behavioral distraction, cognitive engagement, and behavioral engagement. One key strategy that educational leaders apply to manage their emotions is emotional impression management, which focuses on the regulation of emotional responses and expressions. Drawing on two previous research projects conducted in Australian schools, Niesche and Haase (2012) explored the ethical selves of principals and teachers and the part that emotions play in these identities. Findings showed that principals attempted to hide and suppress their emotional expressions in order to appear in control. This emotional effort was motivated by the principal's ethical telos (i.e., vision) of a good principal and by external expectations. Similar findings regarding educational leaders' application of impression management by surface acting – motivated by the intention to communicate control over the self and situation – repeatedly emerged in the reviewed studies (Brennan & Mac Ruairc, 2011; Cliffe, 2011; Crawford, 2007a).

Rhodes and Greenway (2010) expanded on the use of emotional impression management. The researchers interviewed 10 UK primary school heads to explore everyday leadership enactment of identity performance in schools. Findings indicated that leadership enactment requires leaders to manage their displayed emotions by

careful choice of language and emotional expressions. Non-confrontational performance that promotes cooperation involves the suppression of aggressive emotions when these arise. Positive performance aimed at motivating teachers to pursue a vision often requires leaders to mask their fears. Similarly, Crawford (2004) reported that leaders sometimes use emotional expressions to influence others' behaviors.

Impression management is also used to promote leaders' careers. Gronn and Lacey (2004) discovered that as aspiring principals apply for a position they continually manage their professional exposure while building relations with prospective employers. Specifically, as the aspirants become experienced in the application process and in the selection procedure, especially interviews, their recognition of the significance of impression management grows.

A second self-regulation strategy used by educational leaders is cognitive disengagement from the emotion-eliciting situation, as shown in three articles. Beatty (2000) reported that while interacting with an aggressive parent, some leaders chose to be "emotionally shut down" – to disengage from the situation to retain power and control. Brennan and Mac Ruairc (2011) also found that principals use emotional detachment to manage their emotions. Ackerman and Maslin-Ostrowski (2004) identified a similar phenomenon: Participants described themselves as growing "scar tissue" after a certain time in the leadership role, to protect them from events having negative emotional potential, especially when dealing with criticism. Moreover, educational leaders also disengaged from the emotion-eliciting event by attributing the origin of the problem to some external agency's interests that were not relevant to educational work.

A third emotion regulation strategy used by leaders is behavioral distraction. At times leaders spend time alone or take a break from work to disengage from emotion-eliciting events and to recharge their emotional batteries (Brennan & Mac Ruairc, 2011; Johnson et al., 2005).

A fourth self-regulation strategy used by educational leaders is cognitive engagement. Two variations of cognitive engagement emerged in Zembylas's (2010) case study focusing on social justice leadership. First, principals seem to use daily self-reflection on goals and on small successes in order to experience positive emotions that support their engagement. Second, principals use cognitive reframing to cope with their negative emotions. For example, a principal experiencing constant

guilt because of an overwhelming feeling of personal responsibility reported a reduction in negative emotions when he changed his philosophy on social justice from an individual quest to a communal one.

A fifth and last emotion regulation strategy used by leaders that emerged in the review is behavioral engagement. For example, educational leaders share their emotions with other trusted individuals in order to engage with these emotions. Brennan and Mac Ruairc (2011) described how leaders' behaviors of genuineness and openness in interactions with others helped them cope with their negative emotions. Roffey (2007) and Pratt-Adams and Maguire (2009) indicated the importance of supportive colleagues in the management team, such as a deputy or counselor, and showed that principals often turn to them for emotional support at difficult times. Similarly, Zembylas (2010) found that principals regulate emotions by talking with colleagues and close friends. It has been suggested that this behavioral engagement strategy keeps the emotions that emerge in professional life in perspective.

***Summary of self-regulation of emotion.*** The empirical studies reviewed suggest that educational leaders use a variety of strategies to regulate their emotions. Employing emotional impression management, leaders suppress expressions of aggression and fear and present a role façade – in order to appear in control of the self and the situation and even in order to succeed instrumentally in career application and selection procedures. Moreover, leaders apply cognitive disengagement in confrontations with aggressive or critical stakeholders. Some leaders use behavioral distraction by taking a relaxing break in stressful circumstances. Leaders also choose to cope with the emotion-eliciting event through cognitive engagement, by reflecting on their goals and small successes and by resorting to cognitive reframing of the event. In behavioral engagement, leaders share their emotions with trusted individuals. To broadly generalize from the self-regulation strategies reviewed, it seems that educational leaders, because of their role, cannot behaviorally disengage from situations that elicit negative emotions (see Parkinson & Totterdell, 1999); therefore, they choose either evasive or proactive strategies. Leaders may partially disengage from their emotions during events, either by managing their emotional expression to avoid losing their situational control or by disengaging cognitively from situations and thereby avoiding the emotional experience. Other emotion self-regulation options involve leaders' proactive responses by cognitively or behaviorally engaging with the emotion and the situation.

**Interpersonal emotion regulation.** Leaders' interpersonal emotion regulation is defined as intervention in others' emotional processes in order to alter their emotions (Thompson & Meyer, 2007). In our review of studies on educational leaders and emotions, we discovered six articles on this sub-theme. Educational leaders emerged as a key source in facilitating followers' coping with negative emotions (Crawford, 2007a). In Hanhimäki and Tirri's (2009) study, eight interviewed teachers from four urban schools (two elementary and two secondary) in Finland reported perceiving their principals' leadership characteristics as important for teachers' coping with the emotions arising during critical, ethically provoking school incidents. In particular, the researchers reported that teachers described 36 of the 90 incidents that emerged in the interviews as having been addressed by principals. Similar validation of the importance of leaders' interpersonal emotion regulation in moral dilemmas was provided by Blackmore's (2004) study. Blackmore found that in a context of system restructuring, leaders emerged as a central factor in managing teachers' emotions linked with the dissonance between professional commitment to students based on equity and performativity demands based on efficiency. Moreover, the results showed that, at times of change or reform, principals are particularly expected to manage teachers' and parents' negative emotions, which are perceived as indicators of poor leadership. Consistent with the above results, Brennan and Mac Ruairc's (2011) mixed-method study, which addressed the ethical aspect of leaders' emotion management, found that principals disagree about the ethicality of emotion management in school leadership. Whereas some principals viewed it as negative and manipulative, others regarded it as necessary and motivational.

Two interpersonal emotion regulation strategies emerged from the review – cognitive engagement and behavioral engagement – which educational leaders used as key strategies to facilitate others' coping with negative emotions. With regard to cognitive engagement, Crawford (2007a) found that leaders often promote others' awareness of negative emotions as a first step in initiating a positive change in their emotional experience. Also, Hanhimäki and Tirri (2009) reported another type of leaders' facilitation that promotes cognitive engagement by encouraging emotional reframing or reappraisal. Principals have been described as assisting teachers in controlling their negative emotions by helping them adopt a positive perspective toward situations.

Second, leaders use a different strategy, based on behavioral engagement, to

help others deal with their negative emotions via initiation of a shared and open discussion of emotions (Beatty, 2000). Leaders reported that such discussions have a negative emotional effect on their own affective state. Crawford (2007a) found that leaders portrayed themselves as “receptors” of others’ negative emotions in such conversations. A similar description was presented by Gronn and Lacey (2004), who found that individuals aspiring to become educational leaders described themselves as becoming “containers” for junior colleagues’ feelings, to assist these colleagues’ control over emotions. Subordinates seem to expect leaders not to be negatively affected by this emotional containment, but leaders reported that it has a negative emotional effect on them nevertheless (Crawford, 2007a).

***Summary of interpersonal emotion regulation.*** The empirical studies reviewed suggest that educational leaders perceive themselves and are perceived by others as facilitating others to regulate their own negative emotions and change them into more positive ones. Some evidence showed that such affect-improving strategies (see Niven et al., 2009) are central in times of neoliberal restructuring, while leaders assist teachers in bridging their emotional dissonance between professional commitment and performativity demands. Such facilitation is not necessarily purely altruistic, and might be also driven instrumentally, as negative emotions reflect negatively on leaders’ leadership skills. Although leaders were found to debate the ethicality of managing others’ emotions, leaders did emerge as practicing interpersonal emotion management. Two interpersonal emotion regulation strategies were commonly employed by educational leaders in facilitating others to manage their emotions. The first aims to facilitate cognitive engagement by promoting others’ awareness of their negative emotions and suggesting a positive perspective on emotion-eliciting situations, so as to encourage emotional reframing. The second aims to facilitate behavioral engagement by initiating shared discussion about emotions as leaders seek to contain others’ negative emotions. This topic appears to be underexplored, as the psychosocial literature suggests a much broader range of interpersonal emotion regulation strategies that include not only strategies aimed at improving affect but also those aimed at worsening it (Niven et al., 2009).

## **6. Recommendations and Directions for Future Research**

The review featured in this paper focused mostly on journals in educational administration and educational psychology. As such, it did not include all published

and unpublished empirical studies and books on educational leaders and emotions. It would be unreasonable to include all relevant works addressing educational leaders and emotions that are published in numerous managerial, psychological, and sociological journals. The current review showed that the field is still in its early developmental stage, as we identified in the reviewed empirical works only a relatively limited range of research foci and measures. Nevertheless, the present paper presents a comprehensive narrative review of empirical studies conducted in the last 21 years on educational leaders and emotions. Below we outline several methodological recommendations and underexplored issues on the topic of educational leaders and emotions that we recommend for investigation in future research.

### *6.1 Methodological Recommendations*

Our review brought to the surface several methodological issues to be addressed in future research. First, the design of many studies included in this review showed a strong inclination toward perceptual exploration (i.e., subjective judgment) of the factors related to educational leaders' emotions, their behaviors related to subordinates' emotions, and their emotional abilities. This trend emerged both in the quantitative and qualitative studies reviewed. We concur with Boyd, Dess, and Rasheed's (1993) claim that perceptual investigation is more limited in its validity and generalizability. Many of the quantitative studies in the review were based on teachers' individual perceptions of educational leaders and on leaders' perceptions of their own behavior, role, and environment. Issues of validity and generalizability were also identified in one third of the qualitative studies reviewed because they contained a phenomenological perspective and used strictly narrative interviews. Although the notions of validity and generalizability seem at odds with qualitative research, in the last decades they (or their equivalent) have become a legitimate requirement in the qualitative research discourse (see Schofield, 2002; Whittemore, Chase, & Mandle, 2001).

At the same time, we acknowledge that perceptual investigation can be of value when exploring issues or emotional-cognitive processes. Yet some research designs and statistical remedies can minimize validity and generalizability limitations (see Van Sell, Brief, & Schuler, 1981). For example, we recommend that future quantitative studies aggregate perceptions when using leaders' reports on role factors related to

their emotions, or when using subordinates' reports on leaders' behaviors. We also recommend that researchers attempt to validate leaders' self-reports on their emotions by using co-workers' reports on the leaders' emotional expressions. Furthermore, if quantitative researchers aspire to investigate environmental factors related to leaders' emotions, we suggest incorporating non-perceptual objective measures into research. Some relevant suggestions to improve the rigor of qualitative research can be found in the literature (Krefting, 1991; Schofield, 2002). For example, to promote transferability, future qualitative studies should address participants' representativeness and use triangulation of data collection methods when investigating educational leaders and their emotions.

Second, the design of some of the reviewed studies may be open for criticism with regard to participant selection. Several studies assumed that educational leaders' administrative affiliation (district level, school level) or role type (superintendents, principals, deputy principals) would be linked to variance with regard to leaders' emotions, emotion-related behaviors, or emotional abilities. Yet the literature suggests that individuals are attracted to organizational environments that fit their interests and personality (Schneider, Smith, & Goldstein, 2000) and that selection processes in educational administration encourage homogeneity among leaders (Blackmore, Thomson, & Barty, 2006). In light of these claims, it seems logical that differences in leaders' hierarchical position and in their roles are differently related to some emotional variables, because these variances are linked to different expectations and responsibilities (Firestone & Shipps, 2005). We therefore recommend that researchers pay special attention in their sample design and analysis to issues of leaders' administrative affiliation and role type.

A final note on the issue of sampling emerged regarding three studies that examined educational administration students.<sup>2</sup> Although managerial research at times uses students in managerial preparation programs to represent the general

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<sup>2</sup> One study used educational administration students as a comparison group for acting principals (Smith et al., 1992), whereas the other two used students as indicative of the general educational leader population. In Beatty (2000), most participants had relevant educational leadership experiences; however, in Beatty and Brew (2004) only about one third of participants held formal leadership responsibilities in educational organizations.



managerial population (Scandura & Williams, 2000), this design decision may affect studies' generalizability. We therefore recommend that researchers target acting leaders when they are interested in exploring leader-related phenomena, and if they choose to add students to the sample, they should include only those with relevant leadership experience. Adequate justification should be provided if researchers incorporate inexperienced students and expect homogeneity in the variables of interest. These methodological issues aside, we see great promise in further exploration of emotional aspects related to educational leaders, as key questions still remain unanswered and require additional work to deepen understanding of the relevant phenomena.

### *6.2 Directions for Future Research*

**How widespread are emotions in educational leadership and how widespread are emotional abilities among educational leaders?** A promising first line of research would be determining the prevalence of emotions and emotional abilities in leaders, to fully understand how emotional educational leaders are. Next, we outline four valuable topics for future investigation under this research line.

***Classification of work events and emotions.*** The reviewed empirical findings indicate that various work factors affect educational administrators' emotions, but information remains unavailable about the frequency of events related to these factors. A methodical classification of work events and associated emotions among educational leaders can help uncover what types of events most commonly produce positive and negative emotions (for such a classification, see Basch & Fisher, 2000). Specifically, researchers should explore work events related to negative emotions that can lead to chronic emotional stress and emotional exhaustion. Policy makers may be able to use such results to improve the quality of educational administrators' emotional life.

***Affective empathy, care, and hope.*** Three emotions are repeatedly listed in the theoretical literature as the defining drivers of educational leadership: affective empathy, care, and hope. It has been suggested that affective empathy, that is, one's experience of another individual's emotions, is a key element in educational and development processes (Hargreaves, 2001), as well as in educational leadership (Zorn & Boler, 2007). Educational leaders are also believed to embrace care, which is needed for developing other individuals and cultivating a school community (Beck,

1992). In contrast to other organizational settings, in which care is a means to promote organizational transformation (Bass, 1985), in educational organizations care is viewed as an independent goal (Shields, 2004). Furthermore, successful educational leaders are said to feel optimism and hope, as hope is considered to be an essential component of transforming a learning community (Walker, 2006). Affective empathy, care, and hope are fundamental to successful educational leadership and therefore deserve special attention. Emotions are said to have “different patterns of valence, arousal, uncertainty, other-responsibility, individual control, threat, goal-obstruction and others” (Gooty et al., 2010, p. 980). It is necessary, therefore, to explore how and when leaders experience affective empathy, care, and hope.

***Evidences of leaders’ EI abilities.*** Despite the claims that high EI is crucial to successful educational interactions and leadership (Cai, 2011; Zorn & Boler, 2007), there is no evidence (other than that based on self-perceptions) to support the notion that educational leaders have high EI abilities that enable them to better read other peoples’ emotions or better regulate their own. Thus, we recommend that future researchers explore leaders’ EI using EI-ability measures such as the MSCEIT (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002), which covers an array of EI abilities, or the DANVA test of facial expressions (Nowicki & Duke, 2001), which can be used to explore leaders’ cognitive empathy. Because EI-ability measures indicate one’s mental emotional abilities rather than performance (Cai, 2011), we also recommend exploring leaders’ EI as manifested in actual performance. For example, educational leaders’ empathy as experienced by followers can be investigated using the Interactive Empathy Scale (Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2006).

***Leaders’ individual characteristics as antecedents to emotions.*** We found no studies exploring how leaders’ stable individual characteristics are related to the emotional arousal and valence of their experiences. Personality traits have been found to associate with individuals’ emotions (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998) and with their preferences for self-emotion regulation strategies (Gross & John, 2003); therefore, researchers would do well to investigate these traits. Furthermore, given that self-control was relevant to educational leaders’ emotions in various themes identified here, we suggest exploring the role of leaders’ core self-evaluation traits related to control, as antecedents to emotions. These may include self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (Judge & Bono, 2001). Subsequent research should examine leaders’ individual characteristics as antecedents to their

emotions.

**Can knowledge about emotions help make a better leader?** A second line of research that seems worth pursuing is linked with the impact of educational leaders' emotions and emotional abilities on intrapersonal, interpersonal, and organizational outcomes. Expanding our empirical data to these topics seems crucial to adequately assess the importance of emotions for leadership in education. Next, we describe five focal topics recommended for exploration in this regard.

***Ethical decision making.*** Emotions are known to influence leaders' judgments and decision making. Lakomski and Evers (2010) argued that educational leaders' emotions can influence their decision making, especially when decisions are complex, few elements are known, and the perceived risk and ambiguity are high. The authors maintained that in such decision situations, leaders tend to base their decisions on emotional intuition. Thus, emotions highly influence moral judgment (Haidt, 2001). Educational leaders experience ethical dilemmas between different choices that may conflict ethically. Research indicates that leaders' critique, care, and profession were the values leaders adopted most to solve ethical dilemmas (Eyal, Berkovich, & Schwartz, 2011). There is consensus about the need for ethically practiced educational leadership; hence, researchers must uncover how ethical dilemmas stimulate emotions, how emotions influence educational moral judgment, and what emotions result from different ethical decisions. For example, researchers could ask whether a leader who experiences high arousal and negative emotions (such as anger) with regard to ethical issues will show higher ethical awareness when encountering ethically precarious situations. It would also be beneficial to explore the implications of professional emotion norms (that encourage suppression of negative emotions) on leaders' ethical awareness and behaviors.

***Improving leaders' well-being and task performance.*** We suggest that the intrapersonal outcomes of leaders' self-emotion regulation should be explored in two areas: leaders' well-being and the promotion of leaders' task performance. Different self-emotion regulation strategies have different degrees of effectiveness because strategies activated early in the emotion-generative process have been found to be more adaptive than those activated later (Gross, 2002). Hence, researchers should explore which strategies educational leaders choose for everyday use to regulate their emotions, and how their well-being is affected as a result.

Regarding task performance, emotions seem to play a key role. Scholars argue

that individuals prefer to improve their emotions as positive emotions are always an individual's first choice (Larson, 2000), and that positive affect contributes to task performance (Tsai, Chen, & Liu, 2007). Yet recent studies indicate that in some situations individuals intentionally choose to self-regulate their emotions in order to experience a negative affect that may better assist them in performing and promoting their goals (Tamir, 2009). For example, leaders may choose to increase their anger before a confrontational conversation with a teacher or a parent in order to promote their objectives in the conversation. This knowledge can be useful in assisting leaders to understand that in some situations it is productive to experience and embrace negative emotions. This issue is relevant for women leaders because often the socio-cultural emotion norms of femininity encourage women to avoid and suppress aggressive emotions (Gardiner, Enomoto & Grogan, 2000). Future empirical work should therefore seek to investigate more complex models that explore the effect of educational leaders' self-emotion regulation on task performance.

***Quality relationships.*** Boler (1999) argued that emotions are a space in which differences are communicated and negotiated. Despite some preliminary findings on the effect of leaders' EI on collaboration, empirical information is not yet available on the circumstances under which leaders' EI is crucial for promoting quality relationships. Hargreaves (2001) suggested that there are five such situations, which he labeled "emotional geographies." He argued that these interpersonal differences of socio-cultural, moral, professional, physical, and political characteristics between individuals can decrease the emotional understanding required to promote the collaboration needed for successful educational processes. Therefore, we recommend that future research investigate how leaders' EI helps bridge emotional geographies and assists leaders in developing quality relationships with various stakeholders.

***Increased positive emotions and well-being of stakeholders.*** Despite the claims that leaders' positive effect on others' emotions and well-being is essential to successful leadership (Beatty, 2000), our knowledge about leaders' interpersonal emotion regulation is scarce, and many interpersonal emotional influence processes documented in the literature have not yet been explored in relation to educational leadership. Future research should explore not only the interpersonal emotion regulation strategies leaders use to help others with their emotions, but also the interpersonal strategies used to worsen affect (see Niven et al., 2009), which can increase the stakeholders' negative emotions and impair their well-being.

Specifically, it may be helpful to focus on identifying the situations in which leaders' interpersonal emotion regulation is applied, the behaviors that are related to them, and the manner in which stakeholders' emotional experiences and displays are affected – to obtain a more complex picture of the leaders' interpersonal emotion regulation and the well-being of stakeholders.

Furthermore, the educational leadership literature has not yet explored the processes of emotion contagion (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994) in which one individual “catches” the other individual's emotions. Such a phenomenon has been reported in leader-follower interactions (Barsade, 2002). There was one attempt to explore it in teacher-student interactions (Frenzel, Goetz, Lüdtke, Pekrun, & Sutton, 2009), but it remains unclear if and how educational leaders transmit their emotions to teachers and students.

***Improved organizational outcomes.*** A great lacuna exists in the knowledge base regarding the effect of educational leaders' emotional abilities on organizational outcomes in such work-related follower attitudes as motivation, commitment, and job satisfaction. It is also unclear whether leaders' EI abilities can significantly promote desired organizational outcomes such as care climate and school performance (i.e., students' achievements) (Cai, 2011). Therefore, future research should seek to investigate the effect of leaders' emotions and emotional abilities on followers' attitudes and behaviors and on organizational outcomes. Moreover, the literature on management and emotions suggests that the effect of leaders' EI on outcomes is mediated by their behaviors (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005). Despite these theoretical claims, we discovered that, to date, the research on educational administration and leaders' EI did not present mediation models that incorporate leaders' EI, behaviors, and outcomes. The types of leader behaviors that are candidates for study in relation to leaders' EI include broad leadership behaviors aimed at promoting organizational effectiveness and specific behaviors aimed at promoting leaders' emotional influence.

Transformational and instructional leadership theories are among the most popular in the educational leadership field, and they have been discussed in relation to leaders' EI (Cai, 2011). Nevertheless, we found only one study (Hackett & Hortman, 2008) that used transformational leadership theory with reference to leaders' EI, and no study has applied instructional leadership theory to leaders' EI. The literature also indicates that leaders' attempts to use emotional influence, such as instrumental

emotional manipulations, are designed to elicit others' emotions and to stimulate them to act (Austin, Farrelly, Black, & Moore, 2007). We found no research on this topic. We suggest examining educational leaders' instrumental manipulative efforts to shape subordinates' emotions, which has been considered beneficial in promoting leaders' goals (Huy, 1999).

Researchers should also consider leaders' effect on followers' emotion regulation and on followers' emotions when attempting to explain the effect of leaders' EI and behaviors on followers and on organizational outcomes. Findings indicate that leaders' interpersonal emotion regulation is linked to changes in followers' emotions and predicts various performance aspects of followers (Thiel, Connelly, & Griffith, 2012). Results also indicate that followers' emotions of frustration and optimism mediate the relationship between leaders' behaviors and followers' performance (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). Therefore, future researchers would do well to explore the effect of leaders' behaviors on followers' emotion regulation and emotions. Specifically, they should compare the emotional effects of transformational and instructional behaviors on followers' emotional dynamics, given that instructional leadership is generally task-oriented, as it primarily aims to affect curriculum and instruction, in other words, student outcomes (Hallinger, 2000, 2003). By contrast, transformational leadership is more relationship-oriented, aiming to affect student outcomes indirectly through its effect on staff (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005, 2008).

**How do educational leaders' selection and development processes relate to leaders' emotional abilities and their emotions?** A third potentially valuable line of research is investigating how human resource management is linked with the emotionality of educational leaders. Knowledge resulting from this line of study can help practically translate our current understandings regarding the possible importance of educational leaders and emotions into supportive human resource policies. Next, we suggest two topics worthy of focus.

**Selection.** It has been assumed that a fit of values between candidates and organizations affects attraction and selection processes (Schneider et al., 2000). Namely, educational organizations aspire to be more emotion- and care-oriented (Beck, 1992; Noddings, 1996); therefore, individuals selected by these organizations should have higher emotional capabilities and exhibit more care-orientation than employees outside the educational system. We do not know whether recruiting and

selection procedures attempt to assess candidates' EI capabilities and whether the procedures formally or informally communicate the importance of emotion language and behavior on the job. We identify the need for additional empirical work that focuses, for example, on leaders' cognitive empathy (i.e., ability to understand another's perspective; Davis, Hull, Young, & Warren, 1987) as a criterion for leadership candidates' selection because it is a crucial basis for affective empathy and for displaying emphatic behaviors. Furthermore, we recommend investigating which stakeholders are involved in hiring and how policy makers communicate the importance of emotion-related characteristics to other stakeholders and candidates. Such communications and negotiations can provide insight into how socio-cultural power relations concerning the issue of emotions shape the selection of educational leaders.

**Training.** The idea of developing the emotional abilities of leaders and practical knowledge about them is present in the business leadership development literature (Boyatzis & Saatcioglu, 2008; Boyatzis, Stubbs, & Taylor, 2002; Tucker, Sojka, Barone, & McCarthy, 2000). Thus, it is quite puzzling that we found only one reported training intervention, from two decades ago, in the educational leadership literature (Smith et al., 1992). We recommend planning additional interventional studies that better explore how leaders' EI abilities can be developed through use of vignettes, role playing, and other techniques. Furthermore, future research would benefit not only from exploring the development of aspiring leaders' EI but also from longitudinally examining training effects on leaders' caring behaviors, on their ability to cultivate a caring orientation toward staff, and on promoting a caring culture.

Moreover, as findings indicated that gendered socio-cultural power relations promote masculine emotional norms, it would be beneficial to explore whether training focused on identity work (see Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb, 2011) can overcome the socio-cultural socialization of emotion norms. If so, empiricists should scrutinize how much of the successful effect of such training with regard to emotion norms would be related to group composition (in term of gender or sex-role).

## **7. Conclusion**

In the current paper, we reviewed the empirical literature on educational leaders and emotions that was published between 1992 and 2012 in peer-refereed educational administration and educational psychology journals. We explored knowledge about

the sources of educational leaders' emotional experiences, the effects of leaders' behavior on followers' emotions, and leaders' emotional abilities. Although interest in educational leaders and emotions seems to be in its early stages, the field has great potential for academic researchers. There is growing recognition among the general public, policy makers, and educational professionals that emotions play a key part in educational processes. Educational organizations are increasingly being advised to select leaders who have high emotional abilities and to develop leadership behaviors that have positive emotional effects on followers in order to promote desired educational outcomes (Carr & Fulmer, 2004; Lovely, 2004; Painter, 2005). Because the field of educational leadership and emotions is a broad one, the topic should appeal to scholars with psychological, administrative, and sociological orientations.



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