Leaders' Emotional Intelligence as a Predictor of Leadership Effectiveness in Ethiopia First-Generation Universities

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Abstract

The purpose of the present study was to examine university leaders' emotional intelligence as a predictor of their leadership effectiveness. To this end, a quantitative method with correlation design was employed. Five out of the total nine first-generation universities that are found in the five regions of the country were taken through stratified random sampling. Management committee members, academic commission and department council members were participants in the study as they are immediate subordinates of university presidents, deans, and department heads respectively. As a result, a total of 770 five-point Likert scale-type questionnaires were distributed, out of which 84.2% were successfully completed and returned. To analyze the data, cross-tabulation, frequency counts, Mean, standard deviation, Pearson's correlation, linear and multiple regressions were employed. The findings revealed that university leaders' emotional intelligence doesn't only show a strong positive relationship) with their leadership effectiveness, but it also significantly predicts their leadership effectiveness. Besides, the partial correlation results inform the existence of weak but negative correlation between leaders' leadership experience and emotional intelligence and between experience and leadership effectiveness. Moreover, from the results of multiple regression analysis, it is found that, except for social awareness, all the emotional intelligence dimensions were significant predictors of university leaders' effectiveness. Finally, it can be concluded that leaders' perceived emotional intelligent can be considered as one significant factor for the ineffective leadership practice. Thus, it is recommended that standardized emotional intelligence test need to be used when recruiting university leaders while series and tailor-made emotional intelligence trainings should be provided for those who are in the position.

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Introduction

Emotional intelligence as a construct is first introduced by Salovey and Mayer (1990) who defined the term as the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions. It is also conceptualized by Goleman (1998a) as the capacity for recognizing one's own feelings and those of others for managing emotions well in relationships. Bar-On and his associates define emotional intelligence as an array of emotional and social abilities, competencies, and skills that enable individuals to cope with daily demands (Bar-On, Tranel, Denburg & Bechara, 2003). It is the extent to which a person is attuned to his or her own feelings and to the feelings of others. Emotional intelligence is generally used with reference to the ability to perceive, understand, and manage the emotions of both the self and others to accomplish personal and collective goals (Brown & Moshavi, 2005). From these definitions, it is possible to understand that emotional intelligence is one's ability to realize his/her emotional status and the emotions of others in a

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particular situation and his/her ability to manage his/her own emotions to create a suitable environment for achieving the desired objectives.

Unlike emotional intelligence, the term leadership has been in existence since the late 1700s (Stogdill, 1974). As leadership is used in multiple contexts, literature indicates that there is no universally agreed definition for the term. For instance, Yukl defines leadership as "the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives" (2010, p. 7). For Northouse (2012, p.3), it is "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal". However, leadership is commonly defined as the process of influencing subordinates towards achieving organizational goals. The term often indicates the leaders' ability to persuade, motivate, and initiate followers so that they can exert their maximum effort to realize the shared vision. Thus, it should be clear that leadership is comprised of the leader (his/her ability to influence), the followers and the common goal as inseparable aspects. Leadership also implies the process of transforming the organization or some part of it in a new direction to solve the problems it faces and to improve the quality of its outcome (Davis, 2003). Mignonac and Herrbach (2004) state that in the eyes of the subordinates, leadership is everything that leaders do in the work place which directly or indirectly affects the organization's objectives and their well-being. Along that line, educational leadership can be conceptualized as the process of influencing stakeholders to successfully achieve educational objectives.

A true leader isn't about having a certain job, title, or position, rather it is about achieving results and building a team that produces. Thus, in any normal situation, organization's failure or success is related to the leadership that exists there. Even if there are no universal criteria for measuring effective leadership, scholars and researchers in the field agree that effective leadership is a key to organizational performance and success (e.g., Bass & Avolio, 1995; Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Empirically, Durga and Prabhu (2011) found that organizational success is predominantly dependent on the leader's personal traits, skills and approach of leadership.

According to Yukl (2010), leader's characteristics are one of the major determinants of leadership effectiveness. For Yukl, common characteristics of effective leaders include motives, personality, values, confidence, optimism, integrity and influence tactics. Besides, as of Armstrong (2009), trustworthiness, vision, flexibility, self-awareness, being goal oriented, and self-confidence are identifiable characteristics of effective leaders. Other authors (e.g., Appleton, 1999; Holden, 2003) give emphasis to the emotional elements as characteristics of effective leaders regardless of the organization they lead. These elements include self-confidence, strong determination, emotional stability, and trustworthiness. Thus, leaders who demonstrate such behaviors in their work are likely to easily influence their subordinates which in turn help them to achieve organizational goals. For instance, being emotionally stable and mature can help leaders deal appropriately with any situation in an organizational setting.

Moreover, Yukl (2010) underlies that emotional intelligence, social intelligence, and meta-cognition are recently identified important competencies of effective leaders. Among these competencies, emotional intelligence has been considered by many researchers as a crucial aspect of leadership effectiveness. Being aware of, and then managing one's own emotions has paramount

importance both in a person's social and organizational life (Bar-On et al., 2003). Particularly emotional intelligence plays a significant role for leaders' effectiveness due to the multiple responsibilities they have. According to Goleman (1998a), most effective leaders are alike in that they all have a high degree of emotional intelligence. He further claimed that "emotional intelligence is the sine-qua none of leadership" (p. 93). For him, "a person can have the best training in the world, an incisive analytic mind, and an endless supply of smart ideas, but without emotional intelligence, he still won't make a great leader" (Ibid).

Even though emotional intelligence is a relatively recent concept in the area of leadership, many studies indicate that it contributes a lot to leaders' effectiveness and organizational success. Furthermore, studies found emotional intelligence as an important predictor of effective leadership (Caruso, Mayer & Salovey, 2002). More specifically, researchers like Ayiro and Sang (2012) and Hebert (2011) revealed a strong positive correlation between leaders' emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness in educational settings. Equally, one can assume that those higher education leaders who demonstrate emotional intelligence conceivably are effective in their leadership activities. Having such a quality would help university leaders in Ethiopia to effectively address their organizational missions: teaching-learning, research and dissemination, and community services (FDRE Proclamation, 2009) which in turn enable them to achieve the major goals of their institutions.

Statement of the Problem

Despite the increased emphasis the Ethiopian government has been giving to universities in order to enhance their contribution to transform the country (MoE, 2016/17), studies done in relation to universities' performance (e.g., Behailu, 2011; Mulu, 2012) and their leadership (e.g., Asres & Dejene, 2017; Befekadu, 2012) revealed that most of the institutions and their leaders are less effective. These studies identified various problems that obstruct the successful achievement of organizational goals. A study by Behailu (2011) on three first-generation universities (Addis Ababa, Hawassa, and Mekele) found that the Business Processing Reengineering (BPR) structures indicated a common departure from collective to strong executive leadership ideals that are not often recommended in educational institutions due to staff professionalization. Furthermore, MoE's (2016/17) comprehensive inspection report disclosed that most of the Ethiopian public universities have limitations in integrating their work with the country's strategic goals (e.g., ESDP V, & GTP II); in efficient utilization of resources; in effective management of the different campuses (they usually emphasized only on one, probably the main campus); and in balancing local politics with the university's mission.

Thus, the studies and the MoE's report clearly indicate the discrepancy between the rhetoric and the reality in public universities of the country. In spite of the reality existed on the ground, university leaders were expected to be a model for others in effectively handling the different challenges they face, in being strategic and in employing appropriate decision-making approaches than preferring a power distance and making themselves busy in daily routines.

Even though transformational leadership style has a strong positive effect on leadership effectiveness, university leadership was found very near to laissez-faire and far from being

transformational (Befekadu, 2012). According to this study, though there is a high institutional readiness for change, academic staff was dissatisfied with the existing leadership effectiveness. Added to this, the absence of professionally capable, motivated, and committed leadership were among the major challenges in the Ethiopian universities to assure quality education (Mulu, 2012).

Despite the expectations of the society, the studies exposed that university leaders are not in a position to effectively discharge their responsibilities to address their institution's mission and to transform the country. However, it is expected that university leaders can be archetypal in using contemporary leadership styles such as, transformational, distributed and collegial leadership (Bolden, Petrov & Gosling, 2009). They were also expected to be exemplary in their motivation, commitment and capability to effectively discharge their responsibilities and to make their institution internationally competent.

Therefore, even though it is difficult to exclusively attribute all university problems to leaders' emotional intelligence and their leadership effectiveness, studies (e.g., Druskat, Fabio & Gerald, 2006; Goleman, 1998b) indicate that leaders who consistently employ emotional intelligence in the workplace better manage and solve the various problems existed in their organizational setting. The contribution of emotional intelligence to leadership effectiveness in an educational setting can be explained through various aspects. For instance, some studies revealed that a high level of emotional intelligence leads to high job satisfaction and sense of commitment (Long & Kowang, 2015), contributes to quality decision making (Watkin, 2000), and guides to preferred conflict resolution strategy (Jordan, Ashkanasy & Ha' rtel, 2002). Similarly, it is reported that leaders' emotional intelligence reduces turnover and enhances productivity in the organization (Tesluk, Vance & Mathieu, 1999); it increases motivation (George, 2000) and creativity of workers (Singh, 2006); it facilitates interpersonal relationship and overall performance of leaders (Bar-On et al., 2003).

More specifically, studies conducted in higher education institutions indicated that leaders with a high level of emotional intelligence have better self-leadership, flexibility, people skills, use participatory decision-making, (Kamran, 2011) and build positive relationships with stakeholders (Gering, 2012). Emotional intelligence also enables higher education academic leaders to manage complex situations, to respond effectively to various organizational stakeholders both inside and outside their respective institutions (Coco, 2011). Besides, leaders' emotional intelligence positively and significantly correlates with organizational effectiveness, interpersonal sensitivity, and teamwork (Coco, 2011; Hebert, 2011).

Therefore, all these witness that, as Yukl stated, "emotional intelligence can help leaders solve complex problems, make better decisions, plan how to use their time effectively, adapt their behavior to the situation, and manage crises" (2010, p.213). It could be then argued that university leaders (presidents, deans and department heads) who consistently demonstrate emotional intelligence in the workplace are likely to achieve their organizational goals better than those leaders who have not.

However, in spite of the significant role that emotional intelligence plays in leadership effectiveness, the area has not yet been adequately researched in the Ethiopian context. Furthermore, even though organizations in developed nations have recently begun to assess

leaders' and managers' emotional intelligence during employment, selection and promotion (Caruso, et al., 2002; Kasapi & Mihiotis, 2014), there are limited studies on leaders' emotional intelligence in the context of Ethiopia in general and Ethiopian public universities in particular. As a result, the present study targets to examine university leaders' (presidents', deans' and department heads') perceived emotional intelligence as a predictor of their leadership effectiveness. Since leaders' experience is repeatedly reported for having a significant relationship which again affects both emotional intelligence and effectiveness (Bar-On et al., 2003; Goleman, 1998a; Konya, Magic and Pavlovic, 2016; Kumar, 2016; Shukla, Mishra & Dubey, 2014), its correlation was given special attention in this study among others.

Thus, the study addresses the following research questions: (1) What is the relationship between the consistency that leaders in first generation universities show emotional intelligence and the frequency they demonstrate leadership effectiveness? (2) To what extent does the leaders' work experience is correlated with their emotional intelligence? (3) To what extent does the leaders' work experience is related with their leadership effectiveness? (4) To what extent do the four emotional intelligence dimensions predict university leaders' leadership effectiveness?

Conceptual Framework of the Study

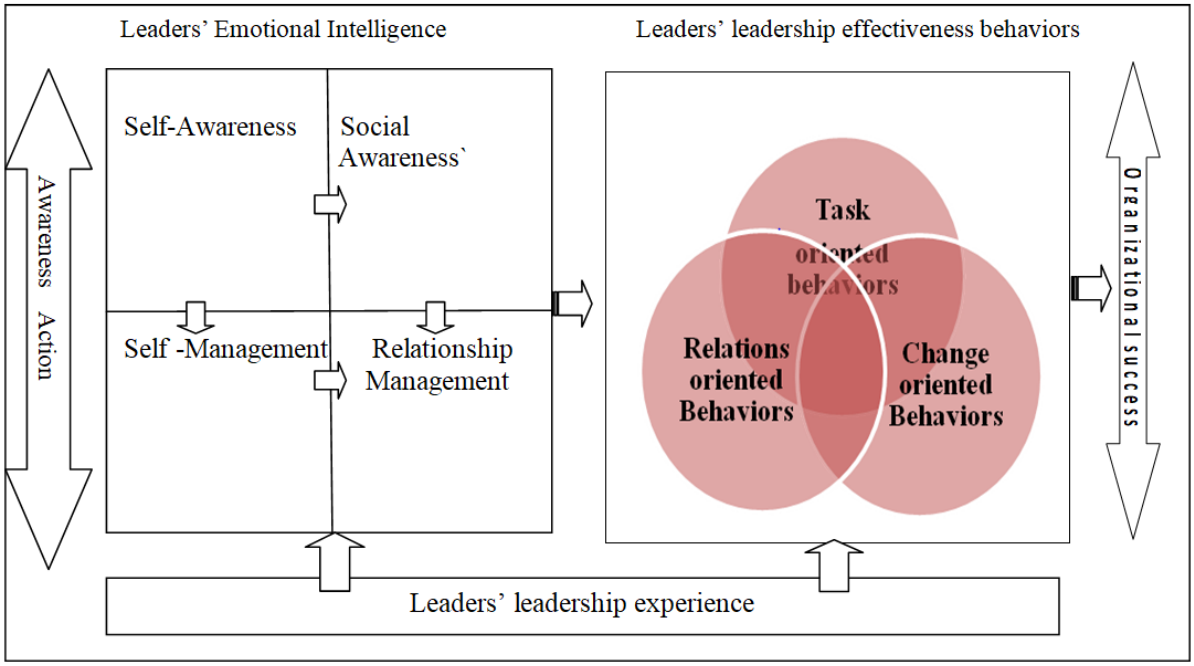
Studies that have rooted in quantitative paradigm are expected to have certain relations with theories or models. With regard to leadership effectiveness, so many models and theories have been developed by different scholars since the Great Man theory was first employed. Among the contemporary leadership approaches, transformational leadership is often recommended for service oriented public organizations (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Somewhat related to transformational leadership, but more inclusive than transformational leadership, is the three-dimensional leadership behavior model. As to Yukl (2010), even if the components are not repeated word for word, the three-dimensional leadership model comprises all the components of transformational leadership and some additional components. Besides, the three-dimensional leadership effectiveness model can also be appropriate to situations in which high competition among organizations and rapid socio-economic and technological changes are common events (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991). Thus, for the purpose of the present study, the three-dimensional (task-oriented, relations-oriented and change-oriented) leadership effectiveness model was adapted and then used for developing the conceptual framework. This is because I found it more appropriate to assess university leaders' effectiveness.

Likewise, though there are different models of emotional intelligence that are resulted from the different conceptualization of the term among the proponents, the mixed emotional intelligence model, particularly the Emotional Social Competence Inventory (ESCI) is used. This model has been chosen not only because it is recommended by many researchers (e.g., Babu, 2016; Bajaji, 2013) but also because it is not a complicated measurement of emotional intelligence. Furthermore, unlike others, the ESCI enables to gather data from multiple raters (360-degree feedback) such as supervisors, peers, subordinates, and so on (Korn Ferry, 2017). Therefore, the conceptual framework used in this study is adopted from this model, because it is more applicable and better match with the three-dimensional effective leadership behaviors.

Figure 1 shows that self-awareness and social-awareness dimensions are very much related to realizing one's own emotional status and the emotions of others around him/her in any particular situation respectively. On the other hand, self-management and relationship management dimensions go beyond realizing the emotional status. These dimensions are very much related to one's capacity to manage or control his/her own emotions and then create a suitable situation to build smooth relationships with others. All these emotions are often reflected either directly or indirectly when leaders are communicating, working, discussing and so on with others. Even though emotional intelligence can be classified into four dimensions, the dimensions are not basically separated concepts. In the actual situation, one dimension may function as a base for the other. For example, to effectively manage one's own emotion the leader needs to realize his/her emotional status first. In the same manner, before trying to respond to others, he/she needs to be aware of others emotional status.

Figure1

Conceptual Framework of the Study



Sources. The emotional intelligence model is adapted from Korn Ferry, 2017 ESCI and the effective leadership behaviors model is adapted from Yukl, 2010, three factor model of effective leadership

Figure 1 also indicated that the framework encompasses three major leadership effectiveness behaviors. Here, it should be noted that unlike managerial grid theory and other earlier models of leadership, the three-dimensional leadership effectiveness model is used to classify specific leadership behaviors rather than to categorize leaders and managers themselves in terms of their general concern for tasks and relationships. Similarly, unlike categorical models,

the three-dimensional model (as a multidimensional model) is more important when various leader behaviors can contribute or affect more than one objective (Yukl, 2010). Therefore, though the leadership behaviors can be classified as task-oriented, relations-oriented and change-oriented according to their primary functions, in some aspects a particular leadership behavior can contribute to achieve objectives from other categories (Yukl, 2010). This is indicated by the three circles in the framework. In general, the framework indicates that if university leaders demonstrate emotional intelligence in the work place, they would be effective in their leadership activities which in turn contribute for organizational success as indicated by the arrows. In this causal relationship, leaders' leadership experience likely affects one or both of the constructs unless it is controlled.

The present study is expected to contribute a lot to informing the status of university leaders' emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness, which in turn will have a significant effect on the institutions' performance. This again helps the Ministry of Education and the government at large to bridge the gaps through special and relevant training so as to enhance the investment returns. The study is also hoped to inform the concerned officials at the different hierarchies of the ministry and in the universities about the relevance of emotional intelligence in leadership effectiveness. This may initiate university leaders themselves both to take and then to cascade emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness training in the future.

Methods

Research Design

A quantitative research approach with a correlation research design was followed in this study. This approach was chosen with the basic assumption that it can provide a better understanding of the research questions raised (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007; Creswell, 2012). More specifically, this study was informed by previous related studies (e.g., Ayiro & Sang, 2012; Babu, 2016) which used a survey questionnaire to assess leaders' emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness in the education sector.

Population, Samples and Sampling Techniques

Out of the nine first-generation universities (those inaugurated/established and proclaimed with the level of the university before 2005) which are found in five regions of the country, five first-generation universities (Mekele, Bahir Dar, Addis Ababa, Haramaya and Dilla) were selected using stratified random sampling (one from each). There are 11 colleges commonly existed in these sample universities. Thus, six colleges were randomly selected from each university. This includes the college of education and behavioral sciences, social sciences, language studies, business and economics, natural and computational sciences, and the college of agriculture and environmental sciences. Once the sample colleges were selected, representative sample departments were randomly taken from these colleges in each of the universities. Accordingly, a total of 137 leaders (5 presidents, 30 deans, and 102 department heads) were considered as the unit

of analysis. However, the leaders' emotional intelligence and their leadership effectiveness were assessed from the perception of their immediate subordinates (management committee, Academic commission, and Department council members) respectively.

The researcher prefers to assess the leaders' emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness from their immediate subordinates' perspective mainly because such approach yields less subjective results compared with self-rated tests (Bajaj, 2013). Moreover, subordinates' perspectives are indicated as better predictors of the leaders' effectiveness than others (Zakariasen & Victoroff, 2012). Hence, the leaders' immediate subordinates (management committee members, AC members and DC members respectively) were taken as primary data sources for the survey questionnaire.

To determine the minimum sample size, particularly for AC and DC members, a 95% level of confidence was used (Cohen et al., 2007). Therefore, 210 AC members (out of the total 320) and 510 DC members (out of the total 1224) were selected using proportional stratified random sampling. In this case, colleges and departments were used as strata so as to take appropriate representatives based on the total number members found in each of them. On the other hand, a comprehensive sampling technique was used for selecting 50 management committee members (10 from each university) as immediate subordinates of the university presidents. In sum, multi-stage, simple random, proportionate stratified random and comprehensive samplings were employed in the study.

Instruments

The Likert scale type items range from 1 representing never to 5 representing consistently or equivalent scales were employed to gather data. The standardized Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI) instrument (with 40 items, ten for each dimension) proposed by proponents of the mixed model (Korn Ferry, 2017) was customized and then employed to assess leaders' emotional intelligence while self-developed questionnaire (with 30 items, ten for each dimension) was used to assess their leadership effectiveness. To enhance the acceptability, an attempt was made to confirm whether the instruments fulfilled the various validities expected. As a result, the face validity, the content validity, the convergent validity, the discriminate validity as well as the construct validity of the instrument were adequately checked using various mechanisms. For instance, content validity ratio (Messick, 1994; Lawshe, 1975), factor loadings (Burke & Larry, 2014; Randall & Richard, 2004) and average variance extracted (Sabine & Brian, 2004*),* cross-loadings (Randall & Richard, 2004) and maximum shared variance (Messick, 1994) were used to check the content, convergent and discriminant validities respectively.

Likewise, the instrument's reliability was checked through a pilot study conducted (with 120 respondents) in two of the first-generation universities (Hawassa and Arba Minch). The results of the Cronbach's alpha indicate that the emotional intelligence dimensions namely self-awareness (0.820), self-management (0.834), social-awareness (0.828), and relationship management items (0.846) have a good level of reliability. Similarly, the leadership effectiveness dimensions namely task-oriented (0.784), relationship-oriented (0.822) and change-oriented items (0.832) were found reliable too.

Data Analysis Techniques

Data which were collected through survey questionnaires were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics with the help of SPSS and AMOS version 23. Percentage and cross-tabulations were used in analyzing data related to respondents' background characteristics. Mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) were primarily used to assess the extent university leaders consistently demonstrate emotional intelligence. Similarly, Mean and standard deviation were also employed to examine how often leaders show effectiveness in the workplace (Burke & Larry, 2014). To interpret the mean score, the level of agreement used were [1.00-1.49] = never, [1.50-2.49] = rarely, [2.50-3.49] = sometimes, [3.50-4.49] = often and [4.50-5.00] = consistently in the case of leaders' emotional intelligence. Similarly, in the case of their leadership effectiveness the level of agreement [1.00-1.49] = rarely, [1.50-2.49] = once in a while, [2.50-3.49] = sometimes, [3.50-4.49] = usually and [4.50-5.00] = almost always were used. Such classifications were employed because in the number line the interval scale does not stand only for itself (there are lower and upper real limits for it) (Gravetter & Larry, 2007).

Besides, Pearson correlation was used to examine the various relationships (Cohen et al, 2007). On the basis of the direction and the strengths of the correlation coefficient from Pearson's r results, both linear and multiple regression analyses were also made (Burke & Larry, 2014; Sabine & Brian, 2004). Besides, to control the influence of leaders' experience from the correlation between the two main variables, both zero-order correlation, and partial correlation were conducted. Side by side, appropriate effect size indicators were used to test the strength of the statistical significance identified.

Ethical Considerations

The issue of consent, confidentiality, and anonymity were sufficiently addressed in the study. Consent from all respondents was obtained when they were requested to participate in the study. All selected participants were informed about the purpose of the research during questionnaire distribution.

Results and Discussion

To sufficiently address the basic questions, a total of 770 Likert scale-type questionnaires were distributed to 50 management committee members, 210 academic commission (AC) members, and 510 department council (DC) members as immediate subordinates of university presidents, college deans, and department heads respectively, and out of which 648 (84.2%) questionnaires (36 management committee, 165 AC, and 447 DC members) were successfully completed and returned.

Characteristics of Respondents (Subordinates)

In addition to the characteristics of leaders and the situation, the respondents with whom the leader is working (i.e., characteristics of subordinates) either facilitate or obstruct the leader's

effectiveness (Yukl, 2010). Moreover, these days higher education leadership is expected to be highly collegial and follow distributed leadership (Bolden et al., 2009). Therefore, it is important to present and then see the influence subordinates' characteristics have on the target leaders.

Data from respondents' characteristics indicate that female respondents account for only 16 percent across the three levels (department, college, and overall university level) which inform that department council, academic commission, and management committee members are primarily males. This in turn indicates that group decisions made on various aspects of the leadership process in these levels of the university lack the contribution of females who are considered as more concerned with consensus building, inclusiveness, and interpersonal relations than their male counterparts (Yukl, 2010). Furthermore, in service sectors, female employees were found more emotionally intelligent than their male counterparts (Kumar, 2016). On the other hand, 34 percent (220) and around 45 percent (288) of the respondents were found between 20 to 30 and 31 to 40 years old respectively. Overall, data about the age of respondents show that university presidents' immediate subordinates are relatively older as compared to immediate subordinates of deans and department heads. However, studies indicate inconclusive evidence on the contribution of age to workers' performance. It is reported that unless it is equipped with work experience, subordinates' age alone neither has a significant contribution to their work performance (Shukla, Mishra & Dubey, 2014) nor has an impact on their emotional intelligence (Kumar, 2016). On the contrary, Bar-On and associates (2003) and Goleman (1998a), reported that when people grow older over the years their competencies also increase.

It is also found that about 53 percent of the respondents have served less than three years in their current position, and just about 26 percent of them have served 4 to 6 years in their current position. It is also disclosed that presidents and deans have relatively better experienced subordinates compared with department heads; this may be because being a DC member does not require being engaged in a position while being a management committee and AC member requires a position that ties to terms of responsibility. From this, it is possible to understand that presidents and deans had relatively experienced subordinates in handling problems and in consulting during decisions making because experience plays a significant role to effectively perform different duties and responsibilities (Shukla et al., 2014). Moreover, in a certain position, experience enables employees to better understand and adopt the values of the organization as well as to harmonize those values with their own values and goals (Konya et al., 2016).

With regard to respondents' academic rank, around 65 percent (422) and 28 percent (183) of the respondents were lecturers and assistant professors respectively. Comparatively, the percentages of lecturers decrease as one moves from department councils to university level management while the reverse is true for associate professors. It is expected that a person with a better academic rank accommodate more experience and knowledge to have a better look at the scientific world than the one with less academic rank. Furthermore, employees' level of education has a strong correlation with their work performance and with organizational commitment (Pala, Eker & Eker, 2008). In general, from respondents' characteristics, it was clear that leaders did not have well-experienced subordinates who better consult and support how to handle normative

problems. In addition, they lack the opportunity of getting females' perspectives on various decisions.

The Relationship between Leaders' Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Effectiveness

Table 1

Partial Correlation between Leaders' Emotional Intelligence, Leadership Effectiveness, and their Work Experience in the Current Position

	Variables	1	2	3	M	SD
	1. Emotional intelligence	_			3.06	0.56
	2. Leadership effectiveness	.662**	_		2.98	0.60
	3. Work experience	-.134**	-.084*	_	2.47	1.03
Controlled Work experience	Emotional intelligence	1.000	.659**			
	Leadership effectiveness	.659**	1.000			

Note. ** shows correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Shows correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 1 displays the correlation results between the consistency that leaders demonstrate emotional intelligence and the frequency they exhibit leadership effectiveness both by controlling and not controlling the leaders' leadership experience. In Table 1, first, the zero-order correlation results between the three variables are displayed. Then, the correlation result between the leaders' emotional intelligence and their leadership effectiveness was presented after partial out leaders' work experience. As can be seen from Table 1, the correlation leaders' work experience has with both their emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness was found weak (r = -.134 and r = -.084 respectively). In other words, as the r^2 is considered, leaders' work experience accounts for only 1.8% of the variation in leaders' emotional intelligence and it accounts for only 0.7% of the variation in leaders' leadership effectiveness. In addition, Table 1 manifests that leaders' work experience, though it is very week, negatively correlated with both leaders' emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness and this is quite contradictory with what Kumar (2016) and Shukla and associates (2014) reported. It is also not consistent with what Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002) contended that over the course of a career emotional intelligence tends to be strengthened.

On the other hand, if one can see the correlation results (Pearson's r) between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness before and after partial out leaders' work experience, the difference is negligible (only 0.003). Therefore, in the present study, it is found that leaders' work experiences in their current position do not have a considerable influence on the correlation between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. Somewhat consistent with the result from the present study, Cook (2006) reported that gender, age, and years of experience do not have a significant effect on emotional intelligence (F (3, 109) = *1.00*, p = .392). In short, the present study informed that there was a weak negative partial correlation between leaders' emotional

intelligence (M = 3.06, SD = 0.56) and their leadership effectiveness (M= 2.98, SD = 0.60) controlling for leaders' work experience in the current position, r (645) = 0.13, p = 0.001. Nevertheless, results of the zero-order correlation yielded that there was a strong positive correlation between leaders' emotional intelligence and their leadership effectiveness and leaders' work experience, r (645) = 0.66, p < 0.01, indicating that controlling for leaders' work experience in their current position had little effect on the strength of the relationship between the two variables while empirical literature shows inconclusive results.

Another very important result indicated in Table 1 is the consistency that leaders demonstrate emotional intelligence in their workplace, and the frequency they exhibit leadership effectiveness when performing the various duties and responsibilities given to them. Leaders demonstrate emotional intelligence only occasionally (M = 3.06, SD = 0.56) which in turn indicate that they have limitations in consistently/regularly demonstrating emotional intelligence when they were performing various leadership activities such as, negotiating, communicating and dealing with various stakeholders in their organizational setting. Likewise, university leaders exhibit leadership effectiveness only sometimes (M= 2.98, SD = 0.60) which also informs that first-generation university leaders' were not often effective in leading their institutions.

In sum, the study indicates that university leaders are inconsistent in demonstrating emotional intelligence which in turn influences their leadership effectiveness and the reverse is also true. A number of studies found out consistent results with the present study that emotional intelligence positively correlates with leadership effectiveness (Caruso et al., 2002). Again, leadership is positively related to a number of emotional intelligence attributes such as, self-confidence, conviction, self-control, ability to handle conflict, and tolerance for stress (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). Leaders with high emotional intelligence are able to recognize, appraise, predict and manage emotions in a way that enables them to work with and motivate team members (George, 2000).

Since it is difficult to control the different extraneous variables, a slight to moderate relationship (.35 to .50) is quite acceptable in the educational setting (Burke & Larry, 2014). Furthermore, it is recommended that correlations that range from 0 .66 to 0.85 can function for a good prediction that can result from one variable to the other (Creswell, 2012). Therefore, based on the results obtained above, linear regression analysis was conducted to examine the predictability of leaders' emotional intelligence to their leadership effectiveness in the present study.

Table 2

Linear Regression Results of Leaders' Emotional Intelligence on their Leadership Effectiveness

Model Summary[b]

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	SE.	R^2 Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.662[a]	.438	.437	.44817	.438	502.747	1	646	.000**

Note. a indicates predictors: (constant), leaders' emotional intelligence
b. indicates dependent variable: leaders' leadership effectiveness
** indicates p<0.01

As manifested in Table 2, the model summary indicates that the value for the predictor variable is .662 and this is quite the same value with the correlation between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness indicated in Table 1 above. Likewise, there exists a negligible difference between the R square and the adjusted R square and this is due to the large sample size the study used (Gravetter & Larry, 2007).

Table 3

Coefficients of Linear Regression Results

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			
		B	Std. Error	B	T	Sig.	95.0% CI of β
1	(Constant)	.824	.098		8.430	.000**	[.632, 1.016]
	Leaders' EI	.705	.031	.662	22.422	.000**	[.643, 0.767]

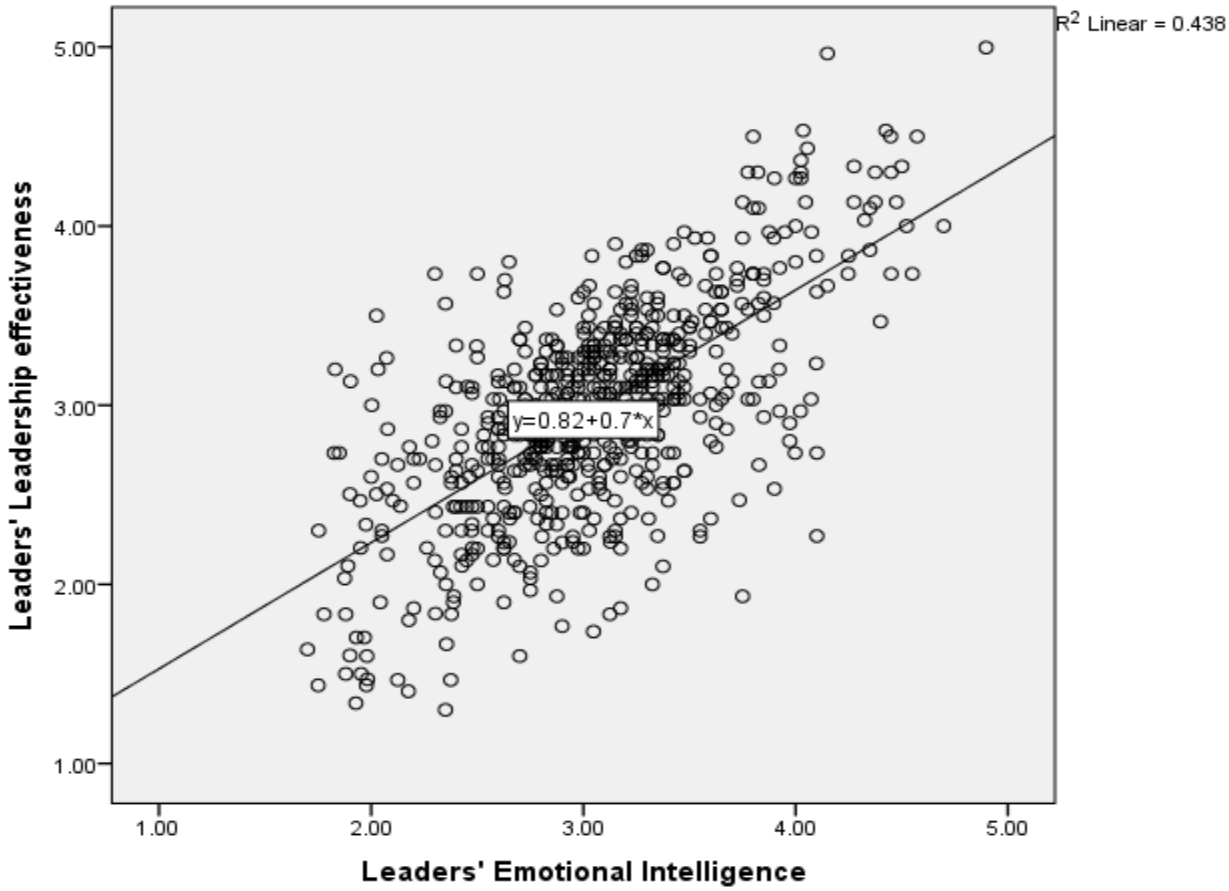
Note. .a shows the dependent variable: leaders' leadership effectiveness
EI = Emotional intelligence, CI = confidence interval β
** indicates $p<0.01$

On the other hand, as displayed in Table 3, the unstandardized coefficient (B) indicated that for every one unit increase in the leaders' emotional intelligence, the leadership effectiveness increases by .705. Moreover, Table 3 indicates that the model is significant at 95% confidence interval. This means, it is possible to be 95% confident that the model is significant with the ranges indicated in the lower and upper bound.

Furthermore, the linear regression line indicated in Figure 2 below clearly illustrates what level of regularly the leaders show leadership effectiveness in the workplace with increased consistency in demonstrating emotional intelligence. As can be seen in Figure 2, the regression line indicates that $y=0.82+0.7*x$. In other words, the frequency that university leaders demonstrate leadership effectiveness will change on a standard 0.7 (approximately) times with the change in the consistency (increase) they demonstrate emotional intelligence in their workplace by one point.

Figure 2

Scatter Plot on Leaders' Emotional Intelligence Predicting their Leadership Effectiveness Overall



In addition, Figure 2 shows that approximately 44% (when R square is considered) of the variance of the frequency of university leaders demonstrating leadership effectiveness is accounted for by the consistency they exhibit emotional intelligence in the workplace. This is because when there is one predictor variable in a regression analysis (linear) the beta is equal to the correlation coefficient (r) (Gravetter & Larry, 2007).

Generally, a significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 646) = 502.747$, $p<0.01$) with R^2 of .438 and the results from the Pearson correlation coefficient and the linear regression analysis inform that the consistency that university leaders demonstrate emotional intelligence does not only positively correlated to the frequency they show leadership effectiveness in their workplace, but also it predicts their frequent utilization of leadership effectiveness. Approximately 44% of the variability in the frequency university leaders show leadership effectiveness is accounted for by the consistency they exhibit emotional intelligence in the workplace. Having this cumulative result in mind, the next section presents multiple correlation results which help to identify the relative predictability of each of the dimensions of emotional intelligence to leaders' effectiveness.

Multiple Correlations between Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Effectiveness

As discussed in detail, emotional intelligence is a construct resulted from four major domains or pillars (Goleman, 1998a). Goleman also reported that these domains are not mutually exclusive. As displayed in Tables 2 and 3, the main construct emotional intelligence is found as a predictor of leaders' effectiveness. Thus, it is better to examine the relative predictive value of each dimension in addition to the linear regression made above with the main construct only. Conducting multiple regression helps to identify which of the emotional intelligence dimension better predicts the construct leadership effectiveness compared.

Table 4

Multiple Regression between Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Effectiveness

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			
		B	SE	B	T	Sig.	95.0% CI
1	(Constant)	.761	.100		7.603	.000**	[.565, .958]
	Self-awareness	.177	.036	.182	4.875	.000**	[.106, .249]
	Self-management	.119	.037	.136	3.199	.001**	[.046, .192]
	Social awareness	.061	.036	.075	1.682	.093	[-.010, .131]
	Relationship management	.367	.035	.421	10.472	.000**	[.298, .436]

Note. Predictors: Relationship management, self-awareness, self-management, social awareness
Criterion variable: Leaders' Leadership effectiveness
R= .682; R^2 = .465; R Square Change = .465; Adjusted R Square = .462, F = 139.771
** indicates p<0.01 with n=648, df = 4, 643

According to Table 4, multiple regression analysis results indicate the emergency of a significant model (F (4, 643) = 139.771, p < 0.01). The Adjusted R square was also found at R^2= .462. Moreover, the standardized Beta coefficients (β) presented in Table 4 inform that each of the emotional intelligence dimensions contributes to the model with a statistically significant value (p<0.01) except for social awareness. One can observe that, relative to each other, relationship management exerted the greatest influence (.367) on the frequency that leaders demonstrate leadership effectiveness while social awareness (.061), exerted a small and statistically insignificant influence on the frequency that leaders demonstrate leadership effectiveness, and the remaining two variables, self-management and self-awareness, contributed less than relationship management significantly in their right order.

In short, the linear combination of the four (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) emotional intelligence dimensions was significantly related to the frequency of leadership leaders show effectiveness in their workplace (F (4,643) = 139.771, p < 0.01). The multiple correlation coefficient was .682, and it indicates that approximately 46% of the variance of the leaders' effectiveness can be accounted for by the linear

combination of the competencies of the four emotional intelligence dimensions. This shows that the present finding is consistent with previous studies (e.g., Ayiro & Sang, 2012; Hebert, 2011) which were conducted in educational settings.

Conclusions and Implications

Individuals internal derive and behavioral attributes can be often disclosed during their day-to-day interaction with other people. It is assumed that university leaders' emotional intelligence competencies can be directly and indirectly manifested to other people who have close interaction with them in their organizational setting. Thus, the present study assessed university leaders' (presidents', deans' and department heads') emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness from their immediate subordinates' points of view. Accordingly, overall results from the study indicate that university leaders do not have good level of emotional intelligence (M=3.06, SD=0.56) that can be easily reflected (to their immediate subordinates) in their work-related interactions. Similarly, it is found that university leaders were not effective (M=2.98, SD=0.60) in performing their leadership duties and responsibilities.

The study found out that the degree of consistency university leaders show emotional intelligence has a strong and a positive relationship with the frequency they demonstrate leadership effectiveness in the workplace. Moreover, the leaders' perceived emotional intelligence significantly predict their leadership effectiveness.

Thus, it can also be concluded that emotional intelligence is one of the significant contributing factors for university leaders' ineffective leadership practice. This in turn implies that, like in developed nations, the government and concerned officials (the Ministry and Boards) should design merit-based selection criteria that include standardized emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness tests and then strictly follow it. Besides, series, up to the standard (appropriate) and tailor-made emotional intelligence training should be provided for university leaders who are in the position at present so as to bridge the gaps.

Areas of Further Research

As a limitation, this study targeted only first-generation university leaders' emotional intelligence and their leadership effectiveness with particular reference to presidents, deans, and department heads. Therefore, further research needs to be conducted in the future at all public universities in the country which encompasses the rest of the leaders in the university hierarchy.

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