THE EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERSHIP QUALITY OF SCHOOL HEADS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

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Abstract

The paper takes into account the changing context of intelligence in educational leadership. It mainly explored and reflected on the relationship between school heads' emotional intelligence and leadership quality and their variant factors. A descriptive-correlational research design was adopted covering the randomly selected 55 public school heads in the division of Negros Occidental. The Emotional Quotient Metrics (EQM) and domain 1 of the 2010 National Competency-Based Standards for School Heads (NCBS-SH) were administered and respectively utilized to gauge emotional intelligence (EI) and leadership quality (LQ) index of the respondents. Statistical average mean, standard deviation, Mann Whitney U, and Kruskal Wallis H, and regression analysis were utilized for the treatment analyses of data. The public school heads showed a high level of EI and LQ. Age and years of leadership experience resulted in a significant difference in their EI and LQ. Nevertheless, sex was inconsequential to such variation. EI and LQ were linearly correlated. Leaders with high EI subsequently demonstrated a high level of leadership quality. Understanding the value of emotional intelligence in leadership may serve as a criterion for hiring, promotion, and succession planning.

Introduction

The bureaucratic-rational conception of the role of school heads has dramatically and rapidly changed over the years. From an efficient administrator following orders and ensuring that they were obeyed by those below, a school head is now seen as a collaborative leader who focuses on developing the culture of the school. Demands on school heads narrowed from broad expectations for effective and efficient school operations to a more specific focus on establishing an academic climate that sets high academic expectations and benchmarks; and fosters a healthy and safe school culture for both teachers and students. Accordingly, these requirements now transform and expand the responsibility of school heads and ratchet up the pressure to provide the leadership that will bring about significant gains in overall school performance.

As a starting point, leadership requires developing and applying intelligence in the governance and management of people and the organization as a whole. A technically adept leader, expectedly, is ahead of his or her followers, making quick and informed decisions (Lashway, 1995; Shah, 2018). As an instructional leader, the ideal school head uses intellect to define school mission, set clear goals, and coordinate, supervise curriculum and instruction. On top of these attributes, he or she functions as an expert mentor, counselor, or coach. In large part, this belief has fostered a pervasive belief that it is a conceptually or technically proficient school head who can bring an educational institution to the pinnacle of success.

Literature today, however, acknowledges the insufficiency of intelligence quotient (IQ) as a predictor of leadership effectiveness. For example, Sternberg (2002) suggests that the predictive value of intelligence may be effective in predicting academic and certain other kinds of performance but not leadership performance. He expounds that an adequate conceptualization of this construct comprises other aspects more than the analytical or intellectual aspect of intelligence. The study of Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2013) also found that emotional intelligence or EQ is twice as important as technical skills and IQ for jobs at all levels. They also reported that emotional intelligence plays an increasingly important role at the highest levels of a company. Interestingly, Cooper and Sawaf (1996) posit that science is proving that it is the Emotional Quotient (EQ), more than Intelligence Quotient (IQ) or raw brainpower alone, that underpins many of the best decisions, the most dynamic businesses, and the most satisfying and successful lives.

Drawing from the ground-breaking behavioral research and integrated working models from experts, the paper explored and reflected on the relationship between the emotional intelligence and leadership quality of school heads; and further tested the possible variant factors to both constructs. More specifically, it determined the levels and relationship between school heads' emotional intelligence and leadership quality under study and further identify if age, sex, and years of leadership experience contributed to the variation in these qualities.

Framework of the Study

The trait and behavior paradigms of leadership provide a strong underpinning in bearing out the relationship between EI and LQ. The trait model proposed by Petrides et al. (2007) was based upon the premise that emotional intelligence represents a cluster of self-perceptions that induce behavioral dispositions and characteristics. Subsequent studies have also established that individual characteristics, such as demographics, skills, and abilities, and personality traits, predict leadership effectiveness (Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002; Judge, Colbert, & Ilies, 2004; Mumford, Campion, & Morgeson, 2007). While the trait theory focuses more on the inherent traits, the behavior theory gives greater credence to the belief that leaders are made and not born. The behavioral theorists focus on the specific behaviors a leader must learn and develop that can, later on, serve as significant predictors of his or her leadership effectiveness (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004)

The leadership quality domain can be conceptualized along trait and behavior dimensions which holistically define a leader's emotional makeup. Emotional intelligence can either be an element of trait or behavior, innate or acquired, and may involve thinking or feeling. The leadership quality domain can be conceptualized along trait and behavior dimensions which holistically define a leader's emotional makeup. Emotional intelligence can either be an element of trait or behavior, innate or acquired, and may involve thinking or feeling.
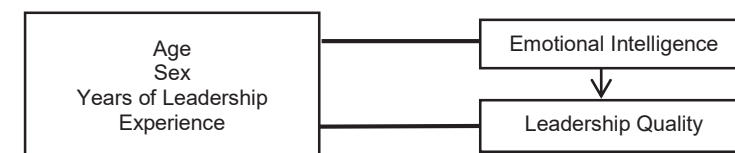

Figure 1. Schematic diagram illustrating the framework of the study

Methods

Research Design

The study primarily utilized detailed quantitative data providing an accurate description of the characteristic or attribute being measured without manipulation of experimental variables. Given the nature of the research problem, the study adopted a descriptive-correlational research design.

Study Site and Respondents of the Study

The study was conducted in one division in the province of Negros Occidental, with 67 randomly selected public school heads representing 82.71% of the total 81 public school heads as respondents of the study. Classified according to age, 20 belonged to the 42-47-year-old group, 27 to 48-53-year-old group, and 20 to 54-59-year-old group. Twenty-one of them were male and 46 were female. Grouped according to years of leadership experience, 19 had 1 to 5 years of leadership experience, 17 had 6 to 10 years, and 31 had 11 to 17 years of leadership experience.

Research Instruments

The researcher used the Emotional Quotient Metrics (EQM) to index the EQ of the school heads. The instrument demarcated five measurable parameters – self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship management, and situation management. Each parameter consists of five sub-components describing the behavior, intention, and disposition of the respondents in dealing with a specific situation relating to the performance of his or her organizational function. The EQM was pilot-tested to twenty-four school designees of a state college as an experimental group. The same group took the EQ Map developed by Robert Cooper and Aywan Sayaf (1997). The two sets of scores (EQM versus EQ Map scores) were correlated using the Pearson Product Moment Coefficient of Correlation. The generated result of 0.87 for the two EQ tests established the concurrent validity of the proposed EQ scale. To ensure the internal consistency of the EQM, the examinees' scores were subjected to Cronbach's Alpha computation which gave out the computed value of 0.93.

Finally, the paper adopted domain 1 of the 2010 National Competency-Based Standards for School Heads (NCBST-SH) to obtain values that will represent the leadership quality of the school heads under study. The instrument provides values that essentially reflect the ability of the school head in developing and communicating the vision, mission, goals, and objectives (VMGO), carrying out data-based strategic planning, demonstrating problem-solving skills, building high-performance teams, and coordinating with others.

Mode of Analyses

The descriptive problems on the level of emotional intelligence and leadership quality of the school heads when taken as a whole and when grouped according to age, sex, and years of leadership experience necessitated the use of statistical average mean and standard deviation. The test for significant differences based on sex employed the Mann-Whitney U test, while the grouping based on age and years of leadership experience used the Kruskal Wallis H test. The regression analysis was applied to explore the relationship between the level of emotional intelligence and the leadership quality of the school heads.

Ethical Considerations

At the outset of the data gathering activity, the researcher and the enumerators identified themselves. They informed the respondents of the purpose, procedure, and type of information that the EQM will generate. Respondents participated in the research voluntarily and freely. The researcher and enumerators likewise assured them of their rights to privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality. The researcher and enumerators also informed the participants of the future benefits of the research. To the highest degree, the researcher observed accuracy in data gathering, processing, and reporting.

Results and Discussion

Level of Emotional Intelligence

The school heads generally demonstrated a high level of emotional intelligence (*M=3.78, SD=0.47*). Specifically, the school heads earned a high level (*M=4.26, SD=0.64*) of self-awareness, self-management (M=3.73, SD=0.48), social awareness (*M=3.82, SD=0.61*), relationship management (M-3.72, SD=0.58), and an average level of situation management (*M=3.36, SD=0.48*). The results indicate that the school heads possessed the capability to

understand, manage and leverage their own emotions and weaknesses, their people, and the immediate surrounding situations.

Taken by variables, the school heads classified in the 42-47-year-old group gave out an average level of EI (*M=3.48, SD=0.45*) while those classified in the 48-53 and 54-59 age groups exhibited a high level of EI (*M=3.87 and M=3.96*). Grouped according to sex, there was a demonstration of a high level of EI for both groups of school heads - male *(M=3.77)* and female (*M=3.78*). Finally, the school heads with 6-10-year and 11-17-year leadership experience had a high level of EI (*M=3.77* and *M=4.03*.

The measure of the school heads' EI moved from the awareness of personal emotions to a broader vision of understanding other people's dispositions and the place of work that they oversee and direct. The concept of emotional intelligence relates to the awareness of all facets of relationships and sensitivities that exist around some areas of diversity in the workplace (Crawford in Coleman & Glover, 2010), which enables a leader to strategically motivate and manage oneself, create a climate that keeps the people energized and inspired to do their work, and positively impact the internal and external systems (Fazio, 2018).

Bodies of literature assented that a high level of emotional intelligence goes with age, sex, and the breath of life experience. Nazari and Mostafa (20012) claimed that older groups score significantly higher than younger groups in most EI scales. Studies by Mayer and Geher (1996), Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999), Mandell and Pherwani (2003), and more recently Cakan and Altun (2005) found that women are more likely to score higher on measures of emotional intelligence than men, both in professional and personal settings. Davis (2011) also acknowledged that emotional maturity is an experience-driven perspective.

The differential patterns of school heads based on age, sex, and years of experience introduce the idea of furthering the analysis of the study through a deeper comparative inquiry. More importantly, the abovementioned concepts provided the researcher a changing perspective of EI and triggers efforts to explore the influencing factors of EI.

Table 1

The Level of Emotional Intelligence of the School Heads when taken as a Whole and when Grouped According to Age, Sex, and Years of Leadership Experience

Variables	Self-Awareness		Self-Management		Social Awareness		Relationship Management		Situation Management		Whole	
	$\overline{x}$	SD	$\overline{x}$	SD	$\overline{x}$	SD	$\overline{x}$	SD	$\overline{x}$	SD	$\overline{x}$	SD
Whole	**4.26**	**0.64**	**3.73**	**0.48**	**3.82**	**0.61**	**3.72**	**0.58**	**3.36**	**0.48**	**3.78**	**0.47**
Age in Years												
42-47	4.05	0.56	3.57	0.62	3.44	0.56	3.28	0.50	3.07	0.35	3.48	0.45
48-53	4.36	0.70	3.83	0.41	3.97	0.69	3.86	0.61	3.33	0.0	3.87	0.47
54-59	4.35	0.60	3.77	0.36	4.00	0.34	3.96	0.36	3.71	0.48	3.96	0.34
Sex												
Male	4.19	0.81	3.69	0.49	3.89	0.75	3.74	0.62	3.36	0.49	3.77	0.55
Female	4.29	0.55	3.75	0.48	3.79	0.55	3.70	0.57	3.37	0.47	3.78	0.43
Leadership Experience in Years												
1-5	3.78	0.70	3.40	0.52	3.28	0.64	3.18	0.47	2.97	0.26	3.32	0.45
6-10	4.37	0.52	3.85	0.60	3.77	0.57	3.52	0.45	3.34	0.36	3.77	0.42
11-17	4.49	0.50	3.87	0.29	4.13	0.37	4.08	0.40	3.59	0.47	4.03	0.28

Description: 4.50-5.00 – Very High; 3.50-4.49 – High; 2.50-3.49-Average; 1.50 2.49-Low; and 1.00-1.49-Very Low

Level of Leadership Quality

In general, irrespective of the variable groupings, the school heads displayed a high level of leadership quality with achieved mean scores ranging from 3.60 (the lowest) to 4.04 (the highest). By comparison, school heads aged who are 54-59 years old (*M=3.99*), female (*M=3.86*), and with 11-17 years of leadership experience (*M=4.04*) were rated the highest in leadership quality. On the other hand, school heads who belonged to the youngest 42-47-age group (*M=3.60*), male (*M=3.85*), and with 1-5-year leadership experience (*M=3.55*) earned the lowest rating.

There is empirical evidence to support the contention that leadership quality can be linked to age, sex, and years of leadership experience. Cagle (1988), Khan (2011), Katozai (2005), and Nsubuga (2009) presented a related view identifying age, sex, and experience as central factors to the leadership styles and efficiency of school heads. Additionally, Green's (2011) meta-analyses included age, sex, education, and leadership experience as demographic variables to leadership preferences. These initial findings prompted the researcher to conduct a comparative analysis of the leadership quality of school heads classified into variable groupings.

Table 2

The Level of Leadership Quality of the School Heads when taken as a Whole and when Grouped according to Age, Sex, and Years of Leadership Experience

Variables	Developing and Communicating the VMGO		Data-based Strategic Planning		Problem-Solving Skill		Building High-Performance Teams		Coordinating with Others		Whole	
	$\overline{x}$	SD	$\overline{x}$	SD	$\overline{x}$	SD	$\overline{x}$	SD	$\overline{x}$	SD	$\overline{x}$	SD
Whole	4.10	0.44	4.00	0.44	3.76	0.38	3.62	0.42	3.82	0.41	3.86	0.37
Age												
42-47 yrs old	3.93	0.45	3.75	0.40	3.49	0.29	3.33	0.35	3.52	0.42	3.60	0.30
48-53 yrs old	4.21	0.49	4.10	0.47	3.85	0.38	3.68	0.39	3.92	0.25	3.95	0.36
54-59 yrs old	4.13	0.29	4.13	0.35	3.90	0.34	3.83	0.37	3.98	0.42	3.99	0.32
Sex												
Male	4.11	0.52	3.94	0.51	3.76	0.40	3.62	0.40	3.82	0.39	3.85	0.41
Female	4.10	0.40	4.03	0.41	3.76	0.38	3.62	0.43	3.81	0.42	3.86	0.35
Years of Leadership Experience												
1-5 years	3.86	0.45	3.66	0.44	3.43	0.34	3.27	0.41	3.52	0.38	3.55	0.34
6-10 years	4.11	0.55	3.94	0.36	3.74	0.23	3.55	0.35	3.78	0.43	3.82	0.35
11-17 years	4.24	0.32	4.22	0.34	3.95	0.32	3.84	0.30	3.99	0.32	4.04	0.26

Description: 4.50-5.00 – Very High; 3.50-4.49 – High; 2.50-3.49-Average; 1.50-2.49-Low; and   1.00-1.49-Very low

Difference in the Level of Emotional Intelligence of the School Heads According to Variables

Age. The analysis of variance reflects a significant difference in the overall EI of the school heads according to age (P=0.00) at 0.05 alpha level. Specifically, the mean difference was notably found in the areas of self-management (p=0.00), social awareness (p=0.00), relationship management (p=0.00), and situation management (p=0.010. These components of EI yielded the p-values not exceeding the 0.01 level of significance; hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

The preceding results express the ability of the older school heads to understand the emotions, needs, and concerns of other people and recognize the power dynamics in a group or organization; and subsequently promote good relationships, teamwork, and healthy conflict management practice. Studies of affective processing across the lifespan suggest that older adults may be more adept at regulating their emotions than younger adults. Fariselli (2006), using the Six Seconds Emotional Intelligence (SEI) Assessment and 405 Americans as respondents confirmed that emotional intelligence (EI) increases slightly with age. Analogous to this, Fariselli, Ghino, and Freedman (2008) opined that adulthood and aging introduce increased needs and opportunities to connect with others and that more senior people in organizations are conferred with the responsibility and opportunity to understand and solve community problems and be a positive example for the other people. The results also confirm Nazari and Mostafa's (2012) claim that highlights the higher tendencies of older

individuals to score higher in EI scales. Carstensen, Pasupathi, Mayr, and Nesselroade (2000), Labouvie-Vief and Medler (2002), and Staudinger et al. (1995) underscored the adeptness of older adults to regulate and manage their emotions and rearrange their environments. Atkins and Stough (2205) found that the extent emotions are used in problem-solving increases across the lifespan. Putting together these findings strengthen the supposition that age is a differential factor in the emotional intelligence of the school heads.

Sex.   As a whole, sex is not a discriminatory issue to the emotional intelligence of the school heads under study. Relative to this, Goleman (1998) asserts that no sex differences in EI exist, admitting that while men and women may have different profiles of strengths and weaknesses in different areas of emotional intelligence, their overall levels of EI are equivalent.

Contrastively, the above findings dispel the idea of demarcating the capacity of women to manifest more empathy and nurturing attitude and generally, a higher EI than men as presented by Tapia and Marsh (2006) and Christov (2014). The study also controverts Dana (2010), Smieja (2014), Frank (2015), and Hertenstein (2011) claims that women have higher emotional intelligence than men. From these results, more research is required to determine whether or not sex differences do exist in emotional intelligence (Nazari & Emami, 2012).

Years of leadership experience. The years of leadership experience resulted in a significant difference in the level of emotional intelligence of the school heads. The p-value (0.00) in all covered components of EI indicates the substantial difference in the mean scores of the three groups. The descriptive data put across the higher mean results for school heads in the 11-17-year leadership than those with accumulated 1-5-year and 6-10-year leadership experience. Emotional intelligence peaked with 11-17-year leadership experience intervals and decreased in the 1-5-year leadership experience. Mature leaders are aware of their emotional patterns and triggers, thus, can suppress impulses and master emotional reactions. Leaders possessing EI can fend off short-term impulses by keeping the long-term in view, and this is what helps them stay in control. Consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected.

There are many assumptions that years of experience relates to EI. Shipley, Jackson, and Segrest (2010) noted that intelligence is positively associated with work experience. Leadership experience is strongly linked to emotion (Crawford, 2009). Leaders help create conditions in which people will want to work to the optimum levels of

their energy, interest, and commitment (Whitaker, 1997). In the process, leaders gain insights about dealing with people in the organization. Perry, Ball, and Stacey (2005) also hinted that emotional intelligence skills could be learned and acquired through experience. Accordingly, Shipley, Jackson, and Segrest (2010) affirmed that intelligence is strongly influenced by work experience. These ideas resolve the connection between the length of leadership experience and emotional intelligence. The aggregate significance values stress the presence of disparity in the EI index of the school heads based on years of experience. As presented in the earlier analysis, a copious amount of empirical investigation and literature would agree the leadership develops significantly through experience.

Summing it up, emotional intelligence implies emotion as a powerful organizer and activator of thoughts and actions. Emotions awaken intuition, reasoning, and rationality, enabling one to deal with difficulties, anticipate uncertainties, and plan for judicial actions. These preceding analyses somehow put forward the idea that EI can be a consequence of the increase in age, sex, and years of leadership experience.

Table 3

Difference in the Level of Emotional Intelligence of the School Heads when Grouped and Compared according to Age, Sex, and Years of Leadership Experience

Variables	Self-Awareness (Mean Rank)	Self-Management (Mean Rank)	Social Awareness (Mean Rank)	Relationship Management (Mean Rank)	Situation Management (Mean Rank)	Whole (Mean Rank)
Age						
42-47 yrs old	29.75	27.95	21.00	19.85	23.33	20.95
48-53 yrs old	3824	38.24	8.98	37.69	32.83	38.17
54-59 yrs old	34.33	34.33	40.28	43.18	46.25	41.43
(p-values)	0.14	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Sex						
Male	33.60	31.79	36.95	35.24	33.36	3.45
Female	34.18	35.01	32.62	33.43	34.29	33.79
(p-values)	0.90	0.49	0.38	0.10	0.84	0.89
Years of Leadership Experience						
1-5 years	21.32	22.18	17.74	16.45	17.84	16.21
6-10 years	36.46	38.73	31.42	27.04	34.54	32.42
11-17 yrs	39.97	38.66	43.79	46.11	42.57	44.24
p-values)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Difference in the Level of Leadership Quality of the School Heads According to Variables

Age. Table 4 denotes the meaningful disparity in the leadership quality of the school heads when they were grouped according to age.

School heads classified in the 48-53-year and 54-59-year age groups exhibited higher mean scores than those in the 42-47-year age group. The yielded p-values in all measured areas (*p=0.00*) led to the rejection of the null hypothesis.

The overall findings of the study appear stereotypical to Sessa, Kabacof, Deal, and Brown (2007) and Kabacoff and Stoffey (2001) findings where older managers were rated higher on dimensions of leadership that emphasize restraint, conservativeness, deference to authority, and approach in dealing with people. In contrast, the current results negate the outcome of Thompson's study (2012), which found no association between age and leadership quality. The results allude to the ability of the school heads to inspire, energize, and direct subordinates in the performance of their tasks and the attainment of organizational vision.

Sex. The male and female categorization of the school heads did not significantly differ in the leadership quality (*p=0.96*) of the school heads under study. The mean difference between the male and female groups in all areas measured was not substantial to establish that the male are better than the female school heads in the performance of the essential leadership functions. In this regard, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Much has been written to show variation between the leadership style of men and women. In the seminal meta-analysis of gender and leadership, Eagly, Johannesen-Schmid, and van Engen (2003) revealed the advantage of female leaders in employing transformational leadership characterized by charisma, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration than their male counterparts. Fletcher and Kaeufer (2008) detailed the female leaders' higher ability to involve people in strategic development. Green (2011) specified the stronger opinions of women on integrity, team-oriented, participative, human-oriented, and diplomatic leadership as the essential aspects of an outstanding leader. Contrariwise, these findings do not support the current result, which divulged the absence of variation in the leadership quality of male and female school heads.

Years of leadership experience. The data revealed a distinguished variation in the leadership of the school heads when they were grouped according to their years of leadership experience (*p=0.00*). The mean ranks for school heads with 1-5-year leadership experience (*MR=18.21*), 6-10-year leadership experience (*MR=31.46*), and 11-17-year leadership experience (*MR=43.51*) posit the noted discrepancy in the leadership quality of the school heads.

Consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected. Experience generally stood out as an essential aspect of effective leadership. Joseph (2017) postulated that a leader's level of experience could bear influence on his or her leadership style. Ejaz, Rehman, and Zaheer (2009) also found that experience was positively related to the leadership dimensions of developing others, developing self, postulated supporting team, the pursuit of excellence and accountability but was not related to the leader's ability to identify follower pain, business acumen, commitment or interpersonal skills. Although the current study focuses on the variation between school heads with longer and shorter leadership experience, the above studies offer strong support to the claim that leadership experience can result in disproportionate leadership quality.

Table 4

Difference in the Level of Leadership Quality of the School Heads when Grouped and Compared according to Age, Sex, and Years of Leadership Experience

Variables	Developing and Communicating the VMGO (Mean Rank)	Data-based Strategic Planning (Mean Rank)	Problem-Solving Skill (Mean Rank)	Building High-Performance Teams (Mean Rank)	Coordinating with Others (Mean Rank)	Whole (Mean Rank)
Age						
42-47 yrs old	25.98	21.93	19.98	20.80	20.08	20.25
48-53 yrs old	38.13	38.74	38.80	35.70	38.04	38.85
54-59 yrs old	36.45	39.68	41.55	44.90	42.48	41.20
(p-values)	0.08	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Sex						
Male	34.86	32.50	34.88	33.76	33.67	34.17
Female	33.61	34.68	33.60	34.11	34.150	33.92
(p-values)	0.81	0.67	0.80	0.95	0.92	0.96
Years of Leadership Experience						
1-5 years	22.13	19.03	17.76	18.71	20.37	18.21
6-10 years	34.58	31.00	32.50	29.54	32.54	31.46
11-17 years	40.23	43.24	43.37	43.96	41.94	43.51
(p-values)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Quality

There was a high correlation between the emotional intelligence and leadership quality of school heads in the public school system (R=0.918$^\alpha$). In terms of the strength of the relationship, the value of the correlation coefficient varies between +1 and -1. The value of 0.918$^\alpha$ indicates a close to perfect degree of association between the two variables. This direct relationship signifies that school heads' level of leadership quality goes with their level of emotional intelligence.

The R^2-value indicates that 84.3% of the variation in leadership quality can be explained by emotional intelligence. The proper identification and management of emotion positively influence social

success (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000) because it is not only general intelligence but also emotional intelligence (EI) that determines success in life (McLin, 2006). In the context of organizational management, a leader as a frontrunner performs essential functions such as human resources planning, recruitment, interviewing, selection, conflict management, management development, client relations, customer service, and decision-making. In the performance of these roles, EI is an important consideration (Nazari & Emami, 2012).

There is empirical evidence to support the contention that a leader's emotional intelligence affects others in an organization and impacts results (Goleman, Boyzatis & McKee, 2001). For example, Mandell (2003), Gardner, and Stough's (2002) findings showed that significantly positive relationships exist between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence. Gardner & Stough (2002) surmised that leaders identified as having high levels of EI are more likely to desire success, work harder, lead an effective team and be more satisfied working with others. It could be inferred then that individuals with particularly low levels of EI would not make effective leaders.

A bevy of research and literature also attest to the relationship between EI and LQ. As Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) and McLin (2006) put it, emotional intelligence determines success. Nazari and Emami (2012) recognized the need for EI in the performance of management functions. Mandell (2003), Gardner and Stough (2002) provided actual evidence to show the positive relationships between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence. Both construed that high EI drives success, hard work, and effective teamwork. Similarly, Caruso, Mayer, and Salovey (2003) and Webb (2011) explored the role emotional intelligence plays in effective leadership and its impact on subordinate performance and attitudes. They reinforced that emotional intelligence inspires and motivates a leader's "people" or "relationship" skills. Strengthening this assertion, Mayer and Salovey (1993), Goleman, Boyatzis, and Mackee (2004), Webb (2011), and Gupta (2014) and stressed how EI acknowledged that effective leadership and ensures an improved group performance.

EI, therefore, is a construct that has been associated with leadership. Simply put, if one possesses characteristics of EI, he/is aware of his/her emotions, able to manage these emotions, aware of the dynamics of relationships, and able to manage himself/herself in service to enhancing group effectiveness (Mayer & Salovey, 1993; Goleman, Boyatzis, & Mackee, 2004). Gupta (2014) emphasized that

an emotionally intelligent organization is based on an organizational strategy to improve group performance. In the realization of this, leaders need emotional competence training focusing on the competencies required most for excellence in a given job or role (Goleman, 1998). Organizations should provide appropriate reinforcements for learning and improving the essential emotional competencies needed for specific jobs (Goleman, 1998; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2001).

The abovementioned studies substantiate EI and LQ as correlates. Perceptibly, the authors apply their model of emotional intelligence to leadership in work organizations and discuss why organizations should consider emotional intelligence in the selection and development of leaders and managers. Leaders are chosen for their functional expertise. If leaders lack emotional intelligence, they may be unmoved by calls for a greater understanding of emotions in the workplace. Putting the concepts side by side, the problem statement of the current investigation raises potentially useful questions that will bring to light the relationship between EI and LQ and the variables influencing such a relationship. The preliminary pages hint that emotion is central to organizational life. The present study, correspondingly, bids that the discussion of emotions in leadership, performance, and productivity is of immense value in the life of an organization. The findings further suggest strategies for enhancing leader behaviors to maximize positive individual-level and organization-level outcomes.

Table 5

Relationship between the Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Quality

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Quality	R	R^2	T	P-value
	0.918$^\alpha$	0.843	18.666	0.000

Conclusions

The concepts and research studies presented support the notion that EI is a successful predictor of leadership quality and school success. There are, however, limited empirical tests conducted to support this assertion. The studies are more directed towards proving how leaders with high EI contribute to organizational success and performance. On the other side, there is a paucity of studies to ascertain the association between EI and LQ of a leader covered in the current study. Nevertheless, the presentation of several definitions, models, and views on EI led to the detection of some missing pieces. There is no expounded distinction between the EI cognitive or

emotional state and intrapersonal and interpersonal dimensions. Subsequently, it reflects the inherent weakness and restriction of some EI instruments that focus only on some facets of the measures. The items on the EI scale should clearly represent a construct within the confines of a study purpose and fit the characteristics of the targeted study group in all particulars.

In the current study, the public school heads demonstrate the desired level of emotional intelligence, which is the epithet of a higher sense of self-awareness, self-regulation, and management, and the ability to connect with others and deal with external strains. Notwithstanding the restricted measures of leadership, they satisfactorily live up to their titular role as administrative or professional leaders responsible for the improvement of teaching and learning. Older and more experienced school heads stand out to possess better personal mastery and show profound adeptness in keeping positive emotions in the realm of organizational life. As educational leaders, they exhibit competence in cognition and embody the attributes of leadership characteristics such as resilience, purpose, commitment, and courage. On top of this, they effectively function as mentors, coaches, guardians, and friends, ever alert to respond to organizational needs and the best interests of their subordinates. To thwart inadequacies among the younger and less experienced school heads, supplementary academic experience and professional exposure are hereby proposed.

There is a meaningful link between emotional intelligence and leadership quality. Given the value of the personal and organizational effectiveness of EI-based capabilities, there is a clear need to incorporate that valuation into the organizations' functions and decisive criteria. Emotional intelligence and other professional expertise and technical skills can be part of a yardstick for hiring, promotion, and succession planning. EI could serve as one major criterion for a leadership position. For prospective school heads, EI can be a major focus for training potentials.

School heads stand amid the flow of pressures and demanding work conditions. The exponentially growing demands bolstered by the expanded expectations and intensified workload do not only call for the application of raw brainpower alone. Emotional intelligence underpins many of the best decisions and the healthiest and most vibrant educational setting. Accordingly, the study prescribes the continued deepening and development of areas of strength across the full range of emotional intelligence attributes and assets.

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