

Correlation between EQ and measures of leadership style, effectiveness, and self-efficacy in the workplace

Vidhu Gaur

Strategy and General Management
Management Development Institute Gurgaon, India

Keywords

Emotional Intelligence, self-efficacy, leadership style, Effectiveness, Teacher

Abstract

Many of today's most successful companies recognise emotional intelligence as a key indicator of long-term professional success. Emotional intelligence relies in large part on one's ability to shift and change in response to new information and circumstances. The purpose of this research is to determine how secondary school teachers' emotional intelligence affects their sense of professional competence, leadership style, and classroom performance. Results demonstrated a favourable relationship between emotional intelligence and female instructors' sense of competence, leadership style, and students' achievement. The first step in cultivating educators with high emotional intelligence is for teacher preparation programmes to craft their curricula with this end in mind, with the intention of assisting educators in becoming more effective, with the inclusion of various strategies for improving leadership style, and with the comprehensive coverage of all necessary teaching skills.

Introduction

Emotional intelligence is increasingly being recognised as a key indicator of future professional success by many of today's most prestigious employers. Emotional intelligence is helpful for problem solving since it makes use of reason, intuition, and adaptability in many settings. Success in life may be linked to intelligence just around 20% of the time. Emotional intelligence is responsible for the remaining 20%. (Goleman, 1998). Due to busy syndrome, it is difficult for us to plan ahead for social and professional engagements. We may be short-tempered due to our vulnerability to stress and the persistent pressures of daily life and work. Because of these disparities, we need to be nimble and flexible in our messaging. The need to be more persuasive and composed is on the rise as are rudeness, a propensity to blame and take advantage of subordinate employees, poor role models, uncertainty about the future, employee pessimism, and escapism, demands for more work to be done with fewer resources, and the need to do more with the same number of resources. This highlights the expanding need for emotional acuity.

Teachers' professional life are under constant stress. They have to cope with a wide range of students, from those who are easily distracted to those who are chronic complainers, pessimists, or escapist in the classroom. With their high level of emotional intelligence, they are able to respond to difficult students with finesse and care. Emotional intelligence refers to one's social and environmental competence (Goleman, 1995).

It is therefore essential that both students and teachers "cultivate emotional sensitivity, emotional memory, emotional processing, and emotional learning capacities," which together form the foundation of emotional intelligence. "Leadership style, instructional effectiveness, and emotional intelligence among teachers at higher education institutions" was the focus of the current study.

Emotional intelligence: definition and history

The concept of social intelligence introduced by E.L. Thorndike in 1920 serves as the foundation for emotional intelligence. Psychologists have primarily divided intelligence into three categories: abstract intelligence (the ability to comprehend and work with mathematical and verbal symbols), concrete intelligence (the ability to comprehend and work with tangible objects), and social intelligence (the ability to comprehend and interact with others). According to Thorndike (1920), social intelligence is the capacity

to comprehend and regulate "men and women, boys and girls," as well as the ability to conduct appropriately in interpersonal relationships. Goleman's (1995) theory of multiple intelligences encompasses interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. These two intelligences comprise social intellect. He defined interpersonal intelligence as the capacity to understand others, including their goals, ways of operation, and collaborative abilities. Individuals with high interpersonal intelligence are likely to be successful in sales, politics, education, medicine, and religious leadership.

Intelligence is a broad concept that encompasses a variety of cognition-related domains. The bulk of specialised subskills studied in this century include the processing of linguistic, geographic, and logically related information (Coladarci, 1992). This type of processing is often referred to as "cold" to signify that it includes little to no ego or self-interest (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). In addition to "hot" and "self-related" processing, information processing also involves emotional processing. Emotional intelligence is the intelligence of the moment. It can be viewed as part of a new class of potential "hot" intelligences that also includes "non-verbal perception skills, social intelligence, practical intelligence, personal intelligence, non-verbal perception skills, emotional creativity, and practical intelligence" (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Thorndike, 1920). Allinder (1994). (1994). Each of the aforementioned concepts is a coherent field that, while some overlap with emotional intelligence, divides human capacities in distinct ways.

In 1997, Mayer and Salovey attempted to develop a way for objectively comparing individuals' emotional comprehension and expression. Certain individuals were shown to be more proficient than others at identifying their own emotions, identifying those of others, and resolving emotional conflicts. Due to Daniel Goleman, the term "emotional intelligence" initially achieved global recognition in 1995.

A. *The Operational Meaning of the Used Terms*

- "Emotional intelligence is the capacity to feel and express emotions, to comprehend the emotions of others, to control your own emotional outbursts, and to manage how others feel."

- "The subject of this study's use of the term occupational self-efficacy is teacher self-efficacy. It has been described as a teacher's belief in his or her ability to positively influence student learning. It is associated with a range of crucial educational outcomes, such as teacher tenacity, passion, dedication, and instructional conduct, as well as student outcomes, such as success, motivation, and self-efficacy beliefs.

- "Leadership Qualities: The beginning structure and consideration are two characteristics of leadership behaviour for which this expression has been employed. Establishing structure refers to a leader's efforts to define his or her relationship with group members and to establish clearly defined organisational structures, lines of communication, and task fulfilment procedures. Consideration refers to behaviours that demonstrate warmth, trust, and friendliness in interactions between the group's leader and members.

- "Teaching Effectiveness: This research refers to teacher effectiveness with this phrase. An outstanding educator is one who fosters the development of a student's essential skills, comprehension, suitable work habits, desired attitudes, value judgement, and personal adjustment.

Literature review

Emotional intelligence

In order to determine the effects of a teacher-centered EI training on teachers' EI in Israel, Dolev and Leshemb (2016) conducted research. The research tracked a two-year EI programme at one school that included both group seminars and one-on-one coaching. The study's mixed methods included semi-structured interviews as well as pre-and post-EQ-i tests. The twenty-one teachers who took part in the training—4 men and 17 women, aged 33 to 64—were all research participants. All of the teachers were seasoned professionals who had spent at least five years at the institution. The results show that the participants believed the training programme had improved their EI abilities according to the Bar-On model. The majority of participants changed their EI-related behaviours and incorporated these competences into their personal, professional, and group identities.

Sharma, K. (2015) investigated the relationship between prospective teachers' attitudes about teaching and emotional intelligence. A sample of 231 aspiring teachers from different Navi Mumbai B.Ed. institutions participated in the survey. Shubra Mangal's (2008) Teachers' Emotional Intelligence Inventory and J.C. Goyal's Teacher Attitudes Scale were the instruments utilised to gauge the study's variables (2004). The

study also discovered a negative correlation between the traits of emotional intelligence and teaching philosophy.

In research published in 2014, Adilogullari, Ulucan, and Senel examined the connection between teachers' degrees of professional burnout and emotional intelligence. The 563 high school teachers working in Kirsehir Province's city centre made up the sample. The Turkish version of the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale, developed by David Chan and Maslach.

In research done in 2014 by Farzadnia, the conflict management philosophies of Tehran high school teachers were discovered along with the association between emotional intelligence (EI) and conflict management approaches. 108 educators participated in quantitative research. Two questionnaires – "Siberia Shrink" for emotional intelligence and "Robbins" for conflict management styles – were used to collect the data. According to the Pearson Product Moment correlation findings, teachers most often used the cooperative style of conflict resolution, which had a strong and favourable link with emotional intelligence.

Occupational self-efficacy

In 2015, Khan, Fleva, and Qazi performed research on the influence of self-worth and overall efficacy on teachers' effectiveness in primary schools. The sample consisted of 200 elementary school teachers who worked in government-run primary schools. Three surveys were used: the Bandura-developed "teachers' efficacy scale," the "general self-efficacy scale", and the "self-esteem scale". According to the findings, "there is a strong correlation between teachers' efficacy and their overall self-efficacy and self-esteem. It was discovered that low self-esteem and low overall self-efficacy contributed to low teacher efficacy and, as a result, poor student achievement. On the other hand, strong teacher efficacy was a reflection of high overall self-efficacy and self-esteem".

In their study, Aurah and McConnell (2014) surveyed "168 Kenyan and 189 US pre-service teachers using a cross-sectional survey research methodology to assess and compare primary pre-service teachers' perceptions of science teacher effectiveness. The STEBI-B scale, an inventory created by Enochs and Riggs (1990), was used to gather the data. The reported Cronbach's Alpha values for Personal Science Teacher Efficacy (PSTE) and Science Teacher Outcome Expectancy (STOE) were 0.90 and 0.76, respectively. PSTE and STOE scores served as the dependent variables". The gender and nationality of the individual were independent factors. The results show that gender and country interact significantly. Country had a major influence, but not gender. "The PSTE results showed a statistically significant difference, with the USA scoring higher on average, and the STOE results showed a statistically significant difference, with Kenya scoring higher".

McKinnon and Lamberts (2014) conducted research in order to ascertain if informal educational organisations, such as "science centres, may provide professional development that impacts pre-service and in-service primary school teachers' attitudes about their ability to teach science". In Australia, a cohort of 13 in-service teachers and eight final-year pre-service teachers took part in an 18-month study. The findings of this study demonstrated that "four hours of professional development workshops offered by science centres could increase the self-efficacy of all participants – all but three – in terms of teaching science", with effects that could be seen for at least 11 months after the workshops were over. The seminars were cited by the participants as having a favourable impact on their scientific teaching and serving as a significant source of inspiration and motivation.

Hofman and Kilimo (2014) looked at variables that affect teachers' attitudes toward students with disabilities, their perceptions of their own competence, and the challenges they faced while implementing inclusive primary education in Tanzania. A sample of 100 teachers from ten Dar es Salaam inclusive schools participated in the research. Three components make up the questionnaire used for this investigation. The questions in Section A focused on the teacher's history, school features, and the types of disabilities of the students who are enrolled in the teacher's class.

Leadership styles

In Tanzanian secondary schools, Nyenyembe, Maslowski, Nimrod, and Peter (2016) investigated the connection between teachers' work satisfaction and the leadership styles used by school heads. 180 teachers from 10 secondary schools in Tanzania's Songea District provided the study's data. The "Elementary

Teachers' Perception of Job Satisfaction and Retention" questionnaire served as the basis for the scale used in this research to measure teachers' job satisfaction. The "Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)" was modified to measure leadership styles. The most important outcome of this research was that school leaders who closely collaborate with teachers by mentoring them and caring about their personal wellbeing increased teachers' job satisfaction. This research argues that effective leadership includes both "transformational" and "transactional" approaches; "this research questions the applicability of transformational and transactional leadership in Tanzanian schools".

Using both final grades and baccalaureate simulation grades, Laura-Sonia, Ana-Maria, Adrian-Vicentiu, and Cristian-Cătălin (2015) performed research to examine the effects of "teachers' perceived leadership styles (transformational/transactional) and students' learning techniques (deep/surface)". In their research, 243 11th and 12th graders took part. "A 24-item measure modified from Bass and Avolio's (1990; also, Tepper and Percy, 1994) Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire was used to evaluate the perceived teachers' transformational and transactional leadership styles (MLQ). The two primary learning approaches – a deep approach and a surface approach – were evaluated using the Revised Learning Process Questionnaire (R-LPQ-2F; Biggs, Kember, & Leung, 2001)". Participants thought that their teachers' leadership styles were more transactional than transformative. Additionally, the results demonstrated "a strong and favourable relationship between math teachers' leadership philosophies (both transformational and transactional philosophies) and math achievement" t.

In their research, Urlick and Bowers (2014) employed latent class analysis to categorise various kinds of principals throughout the United States. They used the 1999–2000 Schools and Staffing Survey because it offered a unique chance to examine the various kinds of U.S. principals since it included leadership metrics that weren't available in previous national surveys. The investigation includes a final sample of 7,650 administrators and public schools. It was discovered that the distinctions between principal types were characterised by the level of principle and teacher leadership as opposed to idealised leadership styles, indicating discrepancies in practise. The three significantly different principal types – "integrating, frequent principal leadership, as well as a high degree of leadership shared with teachers" – were also predicted by the context of the school and the principal, which included factors like "school size, urbanity, accountability performance, and principal background". They recommend that, depending on their history and the circumstances of their schools, principals engage in several leadership behaviours at once.

In their research, Adeyemi and Adu (2013) examined the leadership styles of headteachers and teachers' work satisfaction in primary schools in Ekiti State, Nigeria. The 694 elementary schools in the state made up the study population for the correlational investigation. A sample of 350 elementary schools was chosen from among them using a straightforward random sample procedure. 1,260 teachers were chosen for the research out of the 7,562 teachers that worked in the schools using the stratified random sample method. A questionnaire termed "head teachers' leadership style (HTLS) and teachers' job satisfaction questionnaire" was the tool utilised to gather data for the research (TJSQ). It was shown that there was a substantial correlation between teachers' work satisfaction in the schools and the democratic leadership style of the head teachers.

Teaching Efficiency

Suvarna (2015) did research on "secondary school science teachers' emotional intelligence and personality types in connection to their efficacy as teachers". The study's population consisted of science teachers from secondary schools in the Mandya District. 610 science teachers were on hand to serve as the study's sample. Umme Kulsum's "Kulsum Teacher Effectiveness Scale," the investigator's "Teachers Emotional Intelligence Scale," and Hans Eysenk's "Eysenk Personality Inventory" were utilised to gather the necessary data. The relationship between a high school science teacher's effectiveness and their emotional intelligence was found to be mostly positive.

In order to thoroughly investigate the studies on two psychological traits "(self-efficacy and personality) and evaluations of teaching effectiveness", Klassen and Tze (2014) undertook a study ("evaluating teaching performance and student achievement"). An analysis of 43 studies with a total of 9216 individuals found a significant but modest $r=.10$ relationship between general psychological traits and

successful instruction. The “relationship between self-efficacy and assessed teaching performance had the largest impact”, with $r=.28$.

In an interview study done by Henderson, Turpen, Dancy, and Chapman (2014), 72 physics professors were asked to explain how they and their organisations evaluate classroom performance. The findings revealed that institutions often rely on the majority or whole of their judgments on the efficacy of their teaching on student evaluations. On the other hand, teachers rely on the majority or all of their evaluation of the success of their instruction on how well students do on exams and during unstructured formative evaluations. Assessment strategies recommended in the academic literature are seldom used by institutions or teachers. In contrast to the procedures used by their institutions to assess their teaching, teachers are often far more positive about the methods they utilise. By using more standardised measures based on how well students are learning and putting more emphasis on systematic formative assessment, both teachers and institutions might benefit from using a variety of assessment sources to evaluate how well teachers are doing.

Malik and Malik (2014) performed research to determine the differences in teaching efficiency between male and female teachers in rural and urban settings. On the basis of the random selection procedure, 600 teachers (300 male and 300 female) from different senior secondary schools located outside Rohtak were selected as a sample. “The teaching efficacy of teachers was evaluated using the Teaching Effectiveness Scale developed by Dr. P.K. Mutha and D.N. Mutha”. The study's results showed that “both male and female teachers were equally effective because there was no discernible difference between their mean teacher effectiveness scale scores; and (ii) both rural and urban teachers were equally effective because there was no discernible difference between their mean teacher effectiveness scale scores”.

Method of study

“It is a quantitative study. Causal comparative and correlational survey method of descriptive research have been used to conduct the present study”.

Population and sample

“The population of the present study includes higher institutes teachers of Delhi/NCR. The sample consisted of 100 teachers .50 male and 50 female”.

Tools used

“Test of Emotional Intelligence: School Teacher Form by Prof. K.S. Misra”.

“Teachers’ sense of Efficacy Scale by Megan Tschannen-Moran and Anita Woolfolk Hoy(2001).”

“Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire- Self by Andrew W Halpin(1951) :Adapted form was used to assess the leadership style of the teachers”.

“Teacher Effectiveness Scale by Dr. Pramod Kumar and Dr. D.N. Mutha(2018)”.

Analysis

For the processing of data “SPSS has been used. Product moment co-efficients of correlation, ANOVA and T-ratio were used to analyse the data”.

H1 “There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy of teachers”

TABLE I
"Emotional Intelligence and Professional Self-Efficacy"

"S. No.	Groups	N	Values of Correlation"
1.	"Male teachers"	50	.281**
2.	"Female teachers"	50	.443**

***Significant at .01 level"

As seen in the table above, the association between emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy for male and female teachers is -.281 and .443 respectively. Both are statistically significant at the 0.01 level. Therefore, it may be stated that "while emotional intelligence is positively associated with occupational self-efficacy among female teachers, it is negatively associated among male instructors." In other words, it may be argued that male instructors with a high level of occupational self-efficacy have a lower emotional quotient. On the other hand, strong occupational self-efficacy may enhance the emotional intelligence of female instructors. Therefore, male teachers with a high level of professional self-efficacy may lack emotional intelligence. On the other hand, strong occupational self-efficacy may facilitate the emotional intelligence development of female teachers.

The relationship between emotional intelligence and numerous characteristics of occupational self-efficacy, including "effectiveness for instructional methods, effectiveness for classroom management, and effectiveness for student engagement," was explored.

It was hypothesised that "there is no correlation between instructors' ability in implementing instructional strategies and their emotional intelligence." Product moment coefficients of correlation have been obtained to verify this idea. The findings are shown in the table below.

TABLE II
correlation- "emotional intelligence and efficacy for instructional strategies"

"S. No.	Groups	N	Values of Correlation"
1.	"Male teachers"	50	-.174
2.	"Female teachers"	50	.583**

***Significant at .01 level"

The association between emotional intelligence and the effectiveness of teaching strategies is -.174 for male instructors and .583 for female teachers, as seen in the table above. The latter is significant at the .01 level, but the former is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, it can be inferred that there is no correlation between emotional intelligence and the efficiency of teaching strategies among male educators. However, there is a correlation between emotional intelligence and the effectiveness of instructional practises among female teachers. In other words, neither high effectiveness for instructional approaches nor low efficacy for instructional strategies diminishes or improves emotional intelligence in male teachers in a meaningful manner. The emotional intelligence of female educators may increase if their instructional strategies are highly effective. Therefore, highly effective teaching practises may aid in the development of emotional intelligence in female instructors.

The emotional intelligence of teachers with high, moderate, and low occupational self-efficacy does not differ.

Researchers explored the relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their levels of job self-efficacy. It was hypothesised that "there was no difference between teachers with high, moderate, and low occupational self-efficacy and emotional intelligence." This hypothesis was evaluated independently for male and female teachers. On the basis of "mean + SD (Mean = 195.44 and SD = 22.546)," male instructors were categorised into three occupational self-efficacy groups: high, moderate, and poor. Male instructors with occupational self-efficacy scores of 173 or less were classified as having low occupational self-efficacy, whilst those with scores of 218 or more were classified as having high occupational self-efficacy. The group of male educators with moderate occupational self-efficacy is comprised of those with a score between 173

and 218. ANOVA was used to compare the emotional quotient of male teachers in these three groups. The results are displayed in the table below.

TABLE III
ANOVA- "male with different level of occupational self-efficacy"

"Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio"
Between group	2	224.243	121.171	5.231**
Within group	47	3154.606	23.263	

***Significant at .01 level"

The table above summarises the results of an ANOVA that indicated variations in "emotional intelligence among male teachers with high, moderate, and low occupational self-efficacy." According to the table above, the F-ratio value (=5.231) is significant at the .01 level. Therefore, the hypothesis cannot be supported. It suggests that the emotional intelligence of male teachers differs based on whether they have a "high, moderate, or low degree of vocational self-efficacy."

TABLE IV
LSD test - "male with different level of occupational self-efficacy"

"Group No.	Level	Mean	Difference Between Means"
1.	"High"	21.23	3.123*
2.	"Moderate"	24.47	1.887
3.	"Low"	23.23	1.236

***Significant at .01 level"

The table above depicts the outcomes of the LSD test, which found differences in "emotional intelligence among male instructors with high, moderate, and low occupational self-efficacy." The mean emotional intelligence scores of male instructors with high, moderate, and low levels of occupational self-efficacy were 21.23, 24.47, and 23.30, respectively. According to significant matched comparisons obtained using the LSD test, "men instructors with moderate occupational self-efficacy showed more emotional intelligence than male teachers with high occupational self-efficacy." Therefore, male educators with moderate occupational self-efficacy are more likely to develop emotional intelligence.

Mean plus standard deviation were used to generate three categories for female educators (Mean = 177.52, SD = 32.276). Those female instructors who scored below 145 on the "occupational self-efficacy measure" were assigned to the low occupational self-efficacy group, while those who scored over 210 were assigned to the high occupational self-efficacy group. The group of teachers with moderate occupational self-efficacy consisted of female instructors who scored between 145 and 210 on the occupational self-efficacy scale. ANOVA was used to compare the emotional quotient of female teachers in these three groups. The results are displayed in the table below.

TABLE V
ANOVA- "female with different level of occupational self-efficacy"

"Source"	df	Sum of squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio"
"Between group"	2	1238.547	646.273	22.419**
"Within group"	47	4831.819	27.165	

"**Significant at .01 level"

The table above summarises the results of an ANOVA that indicated variations in "emotional intelligence among female instructors with high, moderate, and low occupational self-efficacy." This indicates that the F-ratio result (=22,419) is statistically significant at the .01 level. Therefore, the hypothesis cannot be supported. It suggests that the emotional intelligence of female teachers differs according to whether they have a high, moderate, or low level of vocational self-efficacy. Using the LSD test, additional investigation was undertaken.

TABLE VI
LSD TEST - "female with different level of occupational self-efficacy"

"Group No."	Level	Mean	Difference Between Means"
1.	"High"	27.68	4.173*
2.	"Moderate"	22.27	8.506*
3.	"Low"	18.12	4.415*

"*Significant at .05 level"

The table above depicts the outcomes of the LSD test, which found differences in "emotional intelligence among female instructors with high, moderate, and low occupational self-efficacy." According to the statistics, the mean emotional intelligence scores of female instructors with "high, moderate, and low levels of occupational self-efficacy" were 27.68, 22.27, and 18.18, respectively. Female instructors with high occupational self-efficacy showed more emotional intelligence than those with moderate or low levels, according to significant matched comparisons obtained using the LSD test. The emotional intelligence of female instructors with moderate occupational self-efficacy was greater than that of female teachers with low occupational self-efficacy. This shows that, as demonstrated by the results of the current study for female teachers, "there is a positive association between emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy in female instructors." This leads us to the conclusion that high and moderate levels of occupational self-efficacy may facilitate the development of emotional intelligence.

H3 "There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership style of teachers".

Product moment co-efficient of correlation have been computed to test this hypothesis. Results have been depicted in Table below.

TABLE VII
CORRELATION- "emotional intelligence and initiating structure"

"S. No.	Groups	N	Values of Correlation"
1.	"Male teachers"	50	.037
2.	"Female teachers"	50	.332**

***Significant at .01 level"

In the table above, the correlation between emotional intelligence and starting structure for male and female teachers had values of .037 and .332, respectively. While the latter is significant at the .01 level, the former is not significant at the .05 level. In contrast to female instructors, therefore, male teachers do not display "a favourable link between emotional intelligence and starting structure." In other words, it may be argued that emotional intelligence in male instructors is neither overdeveloped nor undeveloped as a result of high or low starting structure. If they have a solid foundation, female teachers' emotional intelligence may increase. Therefore, a solid foundation may assist female educators in enhancing their emotional intelligence.

TABLE VIII
CORRELATION- "emotional intelligence and consideration-"

"S. No.	Groups	N	Values of Correlation"
1.	"Male teachers"	50	.072
2.	"Female teachers"	50	.328**

**Significant at .01 level

According to the preceding table, the values of the connection between "emotional intelligence and consideration for male and female teachers" are .072 and .328, respectively. The latter is significant at the .01 level, but the former is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, it may be concluded that despite the fact that "emotional intelligence is not associated with respect for male professors," it is positively associated with respect for female teachers. In other words, it may be argued that the emotional intelligence of male teachers does neither rise nor decrease disproportionately with the level of attention. Female instructors' emotional intelligence may increase if they hold a great regard for others. Therefore, having great consideration may support the growth of emotional intelligence in female teachers.

H4: "There is no difference in emotional intelligence amongst teachers with different leadership styles."

It was hypothesised that "emotional intelligence did not differ across teachers with high, moderate, and low initial structures." This theory was evaluated independently for male and female teachers. Male

teachers were grouped into three groups based on the mean + standard deviation (Mean = 48.82 and S.D. = 9.746): "high, moderate, and low initiating structure groups." The results of the initiating structure scale, which varied from 39 to 59, were used to split male educators into groups with low and high levels of starting structure. The group of male teachers with moderate commencing structure comprised of those with scores between 39 and 59 for initiating structure. ANOVA was used to compare the emotional quotient of male teachers in these three groups. The results are displayed in the table below.

TABLE IX
ANOVA- "male with different level of initiating structure"

Source	Df	Sum of squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio"
Between group	2	7.073	3.536	0.152
Within group	47	964.865	20.531	

The F-ratio value (=0.152) is not statistically significant at the .05 level, as shown in the table above. Thus, the idea is accepted. This suggests that the emotional quotients of male teachers with high, moderate, and low starting structures are identical. This implies that there is no association between beginning structure and emotional intelligence among male teachers. The recent research has also demonstrated this about male educators. In other words, it may be argued that emotional intelligence in male instructors is neither overdeveloped nor undeveloped as a result of high or low starting structure.

In addition, three groups were established for female educators based on mean + SD (mean = 44.29, SD = 8.654) On the initiating structure scale, female teachers who scored below 36 were assigned to the low initiating structure group, while those who scored above 53 were assigned to the high initiating structure group. The group of teachers with a moderate initial structure consisted solely of female educators with initial structure scores between 36 and 53. ANOVA was used to compare the emotional quotient of female teachers in these three groups. The results are displayed in the table below.

TABLE X
ANOVA- "female with different level of initiating structure"

"Source	Df	Sum of squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio"
Between group	2	1479.421	739.710	23.747**
Within group	47	4051.197	86.196	

**Significant at .01 level

According to the table, the F-ratio value (= 23.747) is significant at the .01 level. Therefore, the hypothesis cannot be supported. It suggests that the emotional quotients of female teachers differ depending on whether their initial structure is high, moderate, or low.

TABLE XI
LSD TEST - "female with different level of initiating structure"

"Group No.	Level	Mean	Groups Difference Between Means"
1.	"High"	22.38	1.679
2.	"Moderate"	24.36	6.515*
3.	"Low"	16.96	7.839*

*Significant at .05 level

According to the table above, the mean emotional intelligence scores of female teachers with high, moderate, and low levels of starting structure were 22.38, 24.36, and 16.96, respectively. Using the LSD test, significant matched comparisons revealed that female teachers with high or moderate initiating structures possessed greater emotional intelligence than those with a low initiating structure. The development of emotional intelligence in female instructors is encouraged by both high and moderate levels of initial structure.

TABLE XII
CORRELATION- "emotional intelligence and teaching effectiveness"

"S. No.	Groups	N	Values of Correlation"
1.	"Male teachers"	50	.165
2.	"Female teachers"	50	.283**

**Significant at .01 level

As seen in the table above, the correlation between emotional intelligence and teaching effectiveness for male and female teachers is .165 and .283 respectively. The latter is significant at the .01 level, but the former is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, it may be stated that "emotional intelligence is not linked with teaching success in male teachers but is positively associated with teaching success in female teachers." To put it another way, it may be argued that emotional intelligence does not significantly predict whether male teachers have high or low teaching effectiveness. If female teachers have exceptional teaching efficacy, their emotional intelligence may increase. Therefore, possessing strong teaching skills may assist female educators in developing their emotional intelligence.

H5: "There is no correlation between emotional intelligence and the instructional efficacy of teachers."

To validate this theory, correlation product moment coefficients have been obtained. The findings are shown in the table below.

TABLE XIII
CORRELATION- "emotional intelligence and teaching effectiveness"

"S. No.	Groups	N	Values of Correlation"
1.	"Male teachers"	50	.165
2.	"Female teachers"	50	.272**

**Significant at .01 level

As seen in the table above, the association between emotional intelligence and teaching effectiveness for male and female teachers is .165 and .272 respectively. The latter is significant at the .01 level, but the former is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, it may be stated that "emotional intelligence is not linked with teaching success in male teachers but is positively associated with teaching success in female teachers." In other words, it may be argued that emotional intelligence does neither improve or decrease significantly among male teachers with good or low teaching effectiveness. If female teachers have exceptional teaching efficacy, their emotional intelligence may increase. Therefore, possessing strong teaching skills may assist female educators in developing their emotional intelligence.

Findings

"Emotional intelligence is positively associated with occupational self-efficacy in female teachers, but negatively associated with it in male teachers.

Emotional quotient was higher among male educators with moderate versus high self-efficacy in the workplace.

Emotional intelligence is higher among female educators with high occupational self-efficacy compared to those with moderate or low levels.

Emotional intelligence was higher among female educators with moderate versus low vocational self-efficacy.

Neither a high- nor a low-initiating structure significantly affects emotional intelligence in male educators. If female educators have a strong initiation framework, their students may develop greater emotional intelligence.

Neither high nor low consideration has a disproportionate effect on male teachers' emotional intelligence. Female educators' emotional intelligence might improve if they are treated with respect.

Female educators with high, moderate, and low levels of starting structure have different levels of emotional intelligence.

A male educator's emotional intelligence is influenced by his level of occupational self-efficacy, which can be high, moderate, or low.

Male educators who have low confidence in their own abilities in the classroom still tend to have high emotional intelligence. It follows that male educators with a middle ground level of self-efficacy in the workplace are more likely to develop their emotional intelligence.

It has been found that high, moderate, and low levels of job self-efficacy among female instructors are associated with varying degrees of emotional intelligence.

Female educators who score high in both emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy have more success in their profession.

Female educators benefit more from high and moderate levels of starting structure, while male educators benefit equally from either high or low levels of initiating structure.

Conclusion and suggestions

The self-efficacy, leadership style, and teaching effectiveness of female teachers are positively connected with emotional intelligence, according to this study. It would go a long way towards producing emotionally intelligent teachers if teacher training institutions ensured that their curricula supported teachers in developing their efficacy in the right direction, incorporated various leadership development techniques, and covered all necessary teaching techniques. The teacher candidates have the non-cognitive talents, competencies, and skills necessary to adapt to external demands and pressures. Administrators, supervisors, and selection committees should choose and advance emotionally intelligent teachers. Institutions should hold periodic orientations, workshops, refresher courses, and seminars on improving self-efficacy and teaching effectiveness.

The institution's planning would give teachers ample freedom to take initiative, be creative, be free, and try new things. They would be able to demonstrate their administrative and leadership abilities, boosting their sense of self-efficacy. The greatest influential element on people's behaviour is their surroundings. Organizational leaders should make an effort to foster an environment where teachers can demonstrate their psychosocial abilities. Consequently, their self-efficacy, initiative, consideration, and instructional effectiveness will all improve. This will result in the application of emotional reasoning to comprehend and manage one's own and others' emotional responses.

References

- Allinder, R. M. (1994). The relationships between efficacy and the instructional practices of special education teachers and consultants. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 17, 86-95.
- Adeyemi, T.O. and Adu, E.T. (2013). Head teachers' leadership styles and teachers job satisfaction in primary schools in Ekiti State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Academic Research in Economics and Management Sciences*, 2(2).
- Adilogullari, I., Ulucan, H. and Senel, E. (2014). Analysis of the relationship between the emotional intelligence and professional burnout levels of teachers. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 9 (1), 1-8.
- Aurah, C. M. and McConnell, T. J. (2014). Comparative study on pre-service science teachers' self-efficacy beliefs of teaching in Kenya and the United States of America; USA. *American Journal of Educational Research*, 2(4), 233-239.
- Coladarci, T. (1992). Teachers' sense of efficacy and commitment to teaching. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 60, 323-337.
- Dolev, N and Leshemb, S (2016). Teachers' emotional intelligence: The impact of training. *The international journal of emotional education*. 8(1), 75-94.
- Farzadnia, F. (2014). The relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles among teachers. Unpublished Thesis, Kharazmi University, Tehran, Islamic Republic of Iran.
https://www.academia.edu/2999699/The_Relationship_between_Emotional_Intelligence_and_Conflict_Management_Styles_among_Teachers
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with Emotional Intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Henderson, C., Turpen, C., Dancy, M. and Chapman, T. (2014). Assessment of teaching effectiveness: Lack of alignment between teachers, institutions, and research recommendations. *Physical Review ST Physics Education Research*.
- Hofman, R.H. and Kilimo, J.S. (2014). Teachers' attitudes and self-efficacy towards inclusion of pupils with disabilities in Tanzanian schools. *Journal of Education and Training*, 1(2).
- Halpin, A.W. (1957). *Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire*. Mimeo. Columbus: The Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research.
- Khan, A., Fleva, E. and Qazi, T. (2015). Role of Self-Esteem and General Self-Efficacy in Teachers' Efficacy in Primary Schools. *Scientific Research Publishing*, 6, 117-125.
- Klassen, R.M. and Tze, V.M.C. (2014). Teachers' self-efficacy, personality, and teaching effectiveness: A meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review*, 12, 59-76.
- Laura-Sonia, Ana-Maria, Adrian-Vicentiu & Cristian-Cătălin (2015). The influence of teachers' perceived leadership styles and students' learning approaches on academic achievement. *Education and Development, Research and Practice*, 2(1), 9-21.
- Malik, U. and Malik, P. (2014). Study of teaching effectiveness in relation to their gender and locality. *International Educational E-Journal*, 3(2), 193-197.
- Mayer, J.D. and Salovey, P. (1997). What is Emotional Intelligence, In Peter Salovey and David Sluyter *Emotional Development and Emotional Intelligence: Educational Implications*, 10-11.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2000). Models of emotional intelligence. In R. J. Sternberg (Ed.). *Handbook of Intelligence*, 396-420. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

- McKinnon, M. and Lamberts, R. (2014). Influencing science teaching self-efficacy beliefs of primary school teachers: A longitudinal case study. *International Journal of Science Education, Part B: Communication and Public Engagement*, 4(2), 172-194.
- Misra, K.S. (2007). Stress among emotionally intelligent student teachers. *Emotional Intelligence: Concept, Measurement and Research*. Association for Educational Studies, Allahabad.
- Nyenyembe, F.W., Maslowski, R., Nimrod, B.S. & Peter, L. (2016). Leadership Styles and Teachers' Job Satisfaction in Tanzanian Public Secondary Schools. *Universal Journal of Educational Research* 4(5), 980-988.
- Ruisel, I. (1992). Social intelligence: Conception and methodological problems. *Studia Psychologica*, 34(4-5), 281-296.
- Pramod, Kumar & Naik, Pramod kumar & Mani, Usha. (2018). Study the teacher effectiveness of secondary school teachers in relation to gender, type and locality. 10.13140/RG.2.2.28522.36800.
- Sharma, K. (2015). A study of correlation between Emotional Intelligence and Attitude towards Teaching of Prospective teachers. <http://www.dypatil.edu/a-study-of-correlation-between-emotional-intelligence-and-attitude-towards-teaching-of-prospective-teachers/>
- Suvarna, V.D. (2015). A study of teacher effectiveness in relation to emotional intelligence and personality type of secondary school science teachers. Thesis, University of Mysore. <http://ir.inflibnet.ac.in:8080/jspui/handle/10603/94017>
- Thorndike, E.L. (1920). Intelligence and its uses. *Harper's Magazine*, 140, 227-235.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing and elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 783-805.
- Urick, A. and Bowers, A.J. (2014). What are the different types of principals across the United States? A latent class analysis of principal perception of leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 50(1), 96-134.