RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN UNIVERSITY TEACHERS’ EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP COMPETENCES: OVERVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The concept of emotional intelligence is steadily gaining importance and is associated with the efficiency of the professional activity of a higher education teacher. The phenomenon of emotional competence includes understanding, management, analysis of one’s emotional state, self-regulation and the ability to understand the emotions of others and act on them, which in the intensive university educational process determines the success of managing a student audience. The article discusses the concept of emotional intelligence concerning the professional competencies of modern university teachers. The quantitative investigation will inspect the University teachers’ instructional leadership competences toward their behavior and beliefs. The article displays the foundation of the investigation, determines the issues this examination endeavors to reply, and portrays professional importance of the examination.

A quantitative review was conducted using various databases, the sources were mainly focused on the following issues: emotional intelligence, the leadership of the learning process and the relationship between these two above-mentioned issues. The considered literature sources were grouped for each issue using the authors’ conclusions and analysis of the current state of knowledge of the research question.

Key words: Emotional Intelligence, University teachers, Higher education, Instructional leadership competence, Emotional competence.

A.D. Burkhanova, G.O. Tazhina
University of International Business, Kazakhstan, Almaty, e-mail: Aisulu.watosu@gmail.com, e-mail: tazhina.g@uib.kz

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN UNIVERSITY TEACHERS’ EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP COMPETENCES: OVERVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The concept of emotional intelligence is steadily gaining importance and is associated with the efficiency of the professional activity of a higher education teacher. The phenomenon of emotional competence includes understanding, management, analysis of one’s emotional state, self-regulation and the ability to understand the emotions of others and act on them, which in the intensive university educational process determines the success of managing a student audience. The article discusses the concept of emotional intelligence concerning the professional competencies of modern university teachers. The quantitative investigation will inspect the University teachers’ instructional leadership competences toward their behavior and beliefs. The article displays the foundation of the investigation, determines the issues this examination endeavors to reply, and portrays professional importance of the examination.

A literature review was conducted using various databases, the sources were mainly focused on the following issues: emotional intelligence, the leadership of the learning process and the relationship between these two above-mentioned issues. The considered literature sources were grouped for each issue using the authors’ conclusions and analysis of the current state of knowledge of the research question.

Key words: Emotional Intelligence, University teachers, Higher education, Instructional leadership competence, Emotional competence.

A.Д. Бурханова, Г.О. Тажина
Халықаралық бизнес университеті, Қазақстан, Алматы қ.,
e-mail: Aisulu.watosu@gmail.com, e-mail: tazhina.g@uib.kz

Университет оқытушыларының эмоционалды интеллекті мен оқыту процессін басқару арасындағы байланыс: әдебиетке шолу
Introduction

The issue of competence of a specialist, professional, employee is becoming more and more acute at the moment. The approach to education itself, reflected in educational standards, has changed: it has become competent, aimed at developing students’ competencies, rather than the traditional arming of their knowledge, skills. Efremova defines competencies as “generalized and deep-formed personality traits, her ability to use and apply her knowledge and skills in the most universal way”; “A combination of knowledge, skills and abilities that allow the subject to adapt to changing conditions ... the ability to act and survive in the given conditions”. Thus, the main competency of a professional is the freedom to use his knowledge, abilities and skills in standard and non-standard situations related to his professional duties.

In the structure of the professional competence of the teacher, emotional competence is especially distinguished. It is understood by researchers as “emotional abilities (empathy, reflection, self-regulation and control of the feelings and emotions of other people)” or the ability to “control one’s emotional state, determine the characteristics of one’s impact, show perceptual abilities, be able to understand the position of others, understand individuality and the originality of another person, empathize and reflect”. (Hakimova, 2014)
The concept of Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is a different type of intelligence. It’s about being ‘heart smart’, not just ‘book smart’ (Segal, 1997).

Awareness of the idea of emotional intelligence (EI) requires two components to be examined as ‘emotion’ and ‘intelligence’. The word ‘emotion’ comes from Latin word ‘emoveo’, which is translated like ‘to move from’. (Phin, 2009). Moreover, the word ‘Intelligence’ according to Cambridge Language Dictionary means ‘the ability to acquire and apply knowledge and skills’. However, during examinations scholars have recognized three influential spheres of mind into cognition, affect, and motivation. Intelligence belongs to the cognitive division, as this sphere includes such functions as memory, reasoning, judgment, combination and abstract thought. Thus, emotions belong to the second sphere, which is affect. Affect in its turn contains such abilities as feelings, states, evaluations, etc. (Mayer et.al., 1997). However, not everything, which connects cognitive sphere and emotion, is Emotional Intelligence. According to the scientists, EI is more general, it highlights not only intelligence and emotions, but motivation as well, which is the third sphere of the mind. (Bracket, et.al., 2004). EI is more specifically defined as ‘the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer, Salovey, 1997)’.

EI has been characterized from various perspectives by numerous researchers. In the most straightforward structure EI is the learned abilities. (Goleman, 2014).

There were a lot of arguments between E.Marleverde, Vandamme and Bridoux who said that EI is an umbrella term that encompasses a scope of abilities that human beings learn more or less naturally and intuitively. The best sellers, communicators, business people, psychologists, etc. generally develop these skills at a high level and utilize them unconsciously. (E.Marleverde, Vandamm, Bridoux, 2003)

The definition of EI has been popularized by Daniel Goleman. According to Goleman’s ‘Emotional Intelligence: Why IQ is important?’ (1995), the idea of EI comprises of various fundamental aptitudes, such as the person’s capacity to manage his own feelings, to comprehend others’ emotions, inspiration and progressed social abilities. Later in his another book Goleman (1998) focused on a workplace applications of emotional intelligence and depicted the construct as an array of positive qualities including political mindfulness, self-assurance, honesty, and accomplishment motives rather than being focused only on an intelligence that could help people solve issues viably. (Bracket, Geher, 2006)

The most recent definition that endeavors to cover the whole construct of EI portrays it as being able and capable to understand, feel, use, remember, describe, identify and explain emotions. (Hein, 2007). Thus, EI can be comprehended as human’s ability to manage emotions and information, act naturally mindful and recognize feelings in others. (Robbins, Judge, 2009).

Major resources regarding Emotional Intelligence come from the Goleman’s books, Salovey and Mayer’s research articles and Bradberry’s ‘Emotional Intelligence 2.0’ (2009). Moreover, there are a lot of internet sources and websites, and all of them share dissimilar viewpoints on EI. However, after analyzing the literature and looking at different perspectives, some questions are still not answered and need some more investigations. The latest exact evidence recommends that EI is a capacity that can be and ought to be created through preparing, programming, and treatment (Bar-On, Parker, 2000). This is the reason the focal point of this paper is the ability model of EI that is utilized in developing a normal EI test, for example, MSCEIT (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, and Sitarenios’s Emotional Intelligence Test). Nowadays, scientists dispute a lot about the concept of Emotional intelligence. However, there currently exist three models of EI (Bar-On, 2001; George, 2000; Humphrey et. al., 2007; Masud Al Noor, 2011; Mayer, Geher, 1996; Neophytou, 2013; Schutte et. al., 1998).

The first can be portrayed as the ability model and mixed model. (Mayer, Caruso, Salovey, 2001). The ability model identifies EI as a standard insight and contends that the construct meets customary criteria for intelligence. Proponents of the ability model measure emotional intelligence as a psychological capacity with execution appraisals that have a model of accuracy (i.e., there are better or worse answers, which are decided to utilize complex
scoring calculations). Mixed models are called mixed because they blend the concept of ability with personal qualities and skills, for example, good faith, confidence, and emotional self-adequacy. (Mayer, et.al., 2001). In contrast to performance assessments, proponents of this approach use self-reporting tools to measure emotional intelligence. (i.e., instead of asking people to show how they understand emotional expression accurately, self-reporting measures ask people to judge and report how good they are to perceive others’ emotions accurately.)

Goleman expanded on Mayer and Salovey’s ideas, by the usage of five major elements of EI:

- Emotional self-awareness
- Self-regulation
- Motivation of emotional factors
- Empathy
- Social skills

According to Goleman, emotional intelligence is not ‘a thing to be looked for, but something that is a part of you and integral part of your inner-self” (Riopel, 2019).

Goleman described IQ and EQ as separate, non-opposing, working skills. (Goleman, 1990) And it means that there are people who are technically smart, but mentally unfit. Thus, it was a big issue discussed in Goleman’s works.

There are different EI measurement scales nowadays. Thus, for this research ESCI tool was selected, as ‘the most pragmatic and generally optimal solution because all information about the relevant facets and related measures would usually be located in a single document (e.g., test manual, journal article) or website’ (Connor, et.al., 2019).

Jusupova and Jusupov (2014) distinguished four basic components of emotional competence: “self-regulation, regulation of relationships, reflection and empathy”. Consequently, two of them (self-regulation and reflection) are related to the personal emotional state of the person, and two other (regulation of mutual relations and empathy) are aimed at external subjects of emotional interaction. Moreover, the components of emotional competence are presented without division into external and internal, which creates an inaccurate idea of the structure of this competency.

Samusenko (2014) and Ostapenko (2018) states that “Emotional Intelligence is the prevention of stress of the subjects of the educational process”, which means that both components of emotional competence need formation and development. Thus, Emotional Intelligence, as the basis for the abovementioned competences, is beginning to be paid attention from the period of university training of a teacher.

Emotional competence is understood as the “resource factor of the teacher”, that is, as a condition that creates the resource base of professional activity (Gasanova, 2010). Resource is “a potential opportunity to be more productive in professional activity”. Emotional stability and the development of emotional competency enable the teacher to achieve more significant results in professional work (Gasanova, 2010).

According to Ostapenko (2018), there are four components of an internal emotional sphere of a teacher:

- the ability to recognize and understand their own feelings and properly evaluate them (reflection);
- the ability to express their emotions;
- the ability to control their feelings as an element of controlling their own behavior;
- the ability to use emotions as a professional tool.

The teacher should strive not only to recognize and understand the feeling, but also to understand the causes of its occurrence, the context in which it was formed. This ability is called “emotional clarity” (Ostapenko, 2018). Emotional clarity can manifest itself in a person to varying degrees, the complete absence of this ability is “sensual blindness, alexithymia” (Samusenko, 2013).

According to Akduman & Yüksekbilgili (2015), Emotional intelligence is the ability to monitor one’s own and others feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions. Several publications have appeared on the subject of emotional intelligence. Thus, it is necessary to find ways to adequately express emotions, in which neither the teacher himself, nor those around him, nor the system of relations established in society will suffer. However, positive emotions (love, affection, etc.) are no less difficult to express.

According to Samusenko (2013), Emotional competence in relation to the external emotional environment includes the ability to understand the emotional states of other people; the ability to influence the emotions of others, regulate them, stimulate those emotions that are currently needed for a more successful professional activity; the ability to use emotions as a professional tool (a component that is the same in both areas) (p.33).

As we can see, the internal and external emotional spheres are closely related. For example, the teacher’s control of his own emotions will contribute to the management of his behavior, which means that it will affect others. For the
teacher, finding a balance between the internal and external emotional areas is especially important, since all his activities are related to interaction with other people – students, colleagues, parents of students, representatives of the administration, etc.

Emotional Intelligence is the basis of career success of a professional, which is especially important at the moment for a teacher of higher education. A teacher with emotional competence is able to better organize interaction with the administration, colleagues and students, which means that his professional growth and, as a consequence, career advancement become faster. Thus, according to Emmadi (2017), “Emotional Intelligence allows people to better understand and manage emotions. It also helps in understanding one’s own conduct as well as relationship with others”. Even psychological studies have shown that understanding and controlling emotions play significant role in gratifying one’s life and work environment. It is considered that employees with higher emotional intelligence will have higher job satisfaction, even there is significant evidence that success of any person depends on social and emotional competencies. After an investigation of the organizational and instructional aspects of the classroom,Brackett, Rivers, Reyes and Salovey (2010) state that ‘there was a direct, positive relationship between classroom emotional climate and conduct that also was mediated by teacher affiliation. Effects were robust across grade level and student gender. We highlight the role of emotionally supportive classroom environments in promoting teacher affiliation and better conduct among students’.

Moreover, some results supported the hypothesized relationships, and the authors found that higher Emotional Intelligence attenuated the positive relationship between surface acting and depressed mood at work and somatic complaints (Prati, et.al., 2009).

The emotional competence of the teacher of higher education has a concrete expression in the learning process, where it acts as a way of motivating the students’ learning activities, a kind of professional tool. Krylova notes among the methods of motivation in a theoretical lesson, “emotional impact — import-effect on feelings: surprise, doubt, pride, patriotism, etc.” (2013, p.252). It means, the only a teacher who himself has emotional competence can be capable of such an impact. The cognitive interest of students is closely related to emotions. If there is a cognitive interest, “the student’s search activity is carried out with enthusiasm, he experiences an emotional upsurge, the joy of good luck” (Krylova, 2013).

Thus, Emotional Intelligence is a “good predictor of a leader’s servant-leader ideology (or approach toward leadership) but may not be a good predictor of servant-leader behaviors as rated by the leaders’ followers” (Barbuto, et.al., 2014).

Furthermore, according to Yuan (2015), intrinsic satisfaction of a job is highly correlated with inspirational experiences, while having a psychological well-being seems to have a positive correlation with inspiration. The two kinds of correlation mentioned above indicate that creativity and inspiration have a close relationship with our emotional responses, which means that the happier an employee feels, and the better well-being s/he has, the greater is the probability that s/he will generate creative ideas.

Dolzhenko (2011) notes: “... The motivation factor is more important for successful studies than the intelligence factor”, and the basis for the formation of positive motivation for learning is precisely “student emotions management”.

According to Ahmed, Emotional Intelligence the best way to understand and measure the impact of emotional intelligence is to listen, observe, and feel (LOF) it. Thus, for each teacher, the ways of emotional stabilization will be different, up to emotional isolation for some time (for example, during the vacation), in order to put emotions in order, learn to understand and feel them again. The ability to stabilize one’s own emotional state is, among others, the most important component of the emotional competence of a teacher (2015).

However, Emotional Intelligence refers to the type of competencies that are most dependent on the personal activity of the individual, on self-reflection. It is the teacher who must develop his own emotional competence, and moreover, do it consciously, well aware that the sphere of emotions is decisive in the organization of interpersonal communication and, first of all, in the professional activity of the teacher (Ostapenko, 2018). Thus, Brown (2003) described three teaching exercises that have proven useful in conveying a sense of basic concepts of Emotional Intelligence to students and in helping students develop skills in emotionally intelligent behaviour.

The concept of Instructional Leadership

This chapter provides a selective overview of teacher leadership research as an intervention for pr
ofessional development and educational reform and is divided into two sections:

What is an instructional leadership competence?

Are their any barriers and supports to develop this very competence?

In the 1980s, as educational leadership appeared as a new structure, some academics challenged its significance and effectiveness as a driving metaphor for school leadership. Nonetheless, recent research reviews largely affirm early hypotheses about the relationship between teaching leadership and student learning. Therefore, despite early forecasts, instructional leadership has demonstrated remarkable staying power as a core concept that drives both academic leadership and management practices (Zahed-Babelan, et.al., 2019; Hallinger 1990).

The question of the Instructional Leadership competence of a teacher, specialist, professional and employee is becoming more and more acute at the moment. The approach to education itself, reflected in educational standards, has changed: it has become competent, aimed at developing students’ competencies, rather than the traditional arming of their knowledge and skills. Efremova defines competencies as “generalized and deep-formed personality traits, her ability to use and apply the acquired knowledge and skills in the most universal way”: “A combination of knowledge, skills and abilities that allow the subject to adapt to changing conditions... the ability to act and survive in the given conditions”.

According to its purpose, this paper defines teacher as a leader, who works in a University. The leader builds instructional capacity aimed at increasing student learning and achievement through interactions with his/her colleagues, principals, and other members of the school community (Mangin & Stoelinga, 2008; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). In this role, teacher leaders have the potential to impact professional learning communities that influence other teachers, to contribute to the development of instructional materials and strategies, and to enhance student achievement (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001).

There were also a lot of arguments about the conceptualization of a leader. (Stoelinga, Mangin, 2008). They said that two trends have resulted in making a concept of the leadership. Firstly, efforts to make teaching more effective. And secondly, emphasis on educational transparency and improved quality of education. Because of these patterns, teachers are regarded as both their own and that of their colleagues as a source of knowledge and a way of affecting academic change. Such focal points of educational reform have prompted scholars to explore the various roles that teachers will take on as leaders.

In an extensive review of teacher leadership literature, teacher leaders’ roles and functions intertwine in three categories:

- Organizational development
- Professional development
- Instructional development

Teachers will affect their students and schools in various ways in these categories. (York-Barr, Duke, 2004). For instance, leaders of teachers may be union representatives advocating fellow teachers and facilitating contract-related conversations. For the purposes of this article, however, it is important to distinguish these teacher leadership roles from those roles that affect instruction more directly.

Teacher leadership which is expected to influence teaching directly can be categorized into three categories: model, facilitator and mediator.

Teachers may influence their peers' instructional development while acting as a model or as an example. It is no longer known that the most competent person is an administrator or external advisor. Alternatively, educators in the classroom can affect educational reform by discussing how to build meaningful curricula and training that integrates high standards with their peers. Teacher leaders should model how to focus on and in their own training, objectively and continuously (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005; Lieberman and Miller, 2004; Schon, 1987).

Another role that the teacher in the classroom may play is to encourage or facilitate. As facilitators, teachers may provide a peer viewpoint and lead academic development-related discussions, providing formal and informal opportunities for professional development. As facilitators, they control the framework of the organisation, undermining the traditional top-down model of information distribution. A facilitator provides an environment where experience does not reside exclusively with the administration or with independent advisors. Alternatively, teacher leaders in the classroom put together teachers and administrators to solve and learn together. Teacher leaders may help facilitate study sessions, develop long-term teacher relationships and direct teacher collaboration on inquiry and critical practice reflection. (Darling-Hummond, et.al., 2005)

Teacher leaders can also serve as mediators between the administration’s priorities and obligations and classroom-level needs. The traditional top-down hierarchy is disrupted by the
classroom teacher leaders who serve as mediators. We are the learning community’s influential members. Linear leadership illustrates how teacher leaders can embrace leadership roles with managers in building school’s educational capacity and building a bridge between managers and teachers in the classroom. It allows skilled training to align policy at federal, state, district, or school level with the needs of classroom-level students and teachers. (Crowther, Kaagen, Ferguson, and Hann, 2002).

According to Espania (2012), as a model, facilitator, or mediator, teachers assume leadership roles that modify schools’ traditional top-down structure and hierarchical existence that have hindered teaching professionalization. Assuming one of these leadership roles would help teachers grow and learn while strengthening training and professional development across the entire system. These positions, however, are not typical across the nation in schools and districts. Thus, teacher leadership is a dynamic activity formed by the different contexts in which teachers work and the cycle of collaboration. According to Gulkan and Gurkan (2012), school directors and teachers are generally knowledgeable in administrative matters such as the management of school discipline and knowledge of the law; but not competent in subjects such as curriculum psychology and new methods of instruction. Moreover, Teachers work and interact in a variety of contexts and under a variety of conditions that mediate the outcome of their learning, their students’ learning, and their development and work as instructional leaders. (Espania, 2012).

Traditionally, the principal’s instructional responsibilities included several aspects, such as setting clear objectives, fostering a supportive school environment, organizing learning programs and supervising teaching (Hallinger and Murphy, 1986; Lashway, 2002; Gumus and Akcaoglu, 2013). There are a lot of theories regarding an instructional leadership. One of them, suggested by Murphy (1985), there are three dimensions in the instructional leadership framework, such as defining the school mission, managing curriculum and instructions, and promoting the school climate. (Noor, et.al., 2017). These dimensions are illustrated in Table 1 below:

Table 1 – Instructional Leadership Framework

| Dimension               | Function                                |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------------------|
| Defining the school mission | 1. Drafting school aims                      |
|                         | 2. Disseminating school aims              |
| Managing curriculum and instructions | 3. Supervising and Evaluating Teachers’ Classroom Instructions |
|                         | 4. Coordinating Curriculum                |
|                         | 5. Monitoring Students’ progress          |
| Promoting school learning climate | 6. Protecting Teaching and Learning Time   |
|                         | 7. Enriching Professional Development     |
|                         | 8. Maintaining High Visibility            |
|                         | 9. Provides incentives for teachers       |
|                         | 10. Provides incentives for learning      |

(Source: Hallinger and Murphy, 1985; Gumus and Akcaoglu, 2013).

According to the table above, institution leaders and institution teachers are different people. However, nowadays there have been conducted a lot of researches aimed to show that teachers can also be leaders and managers. According to Alsaleh (2018), in order to fulfil the role of an instructional leader, the priority must be to strengthen physical and social aspects of the school environment. Additionally, it is important to develop instructional leadership competence. Thus, the have to be barriers and supports for teacher leadership (Espania, 2012).

Teachers are unable to influence educational reform if administrators determine the direction that teaching and learning will take, and if teachers are not encouraged to work with their peers and learn. (Darling Hammond et al., 2005). As historically teachers have worked isolated within a top-down hierarchical structure However, these hierarchical structures must be replaced by those that support collaborative professional development opportunities if teacher leadership is to be supported. For this reason, as it has already been mentioned
above, teachers have to be mediators, facilitators and models, to utilize their expertise through them and to change this very hierarchal structure of management (Espania, 2012).

Thus, it is worth to say that the main competency of a professional is the freedom to use his knowledge, abilities and skills in standard and non-standard situations related to his professional duties.

The concept of relationship between emotional intelligence and instructional leadership competences

In the structure of the teacher’s instructional competence, emotional intelligence is especially distinguished. It is understood by researchers as ‘emotional abilities (empathy, reflection, self-regulation and control of the feelings and emotions of other people)’ or the ability to ‘control one’s emotional state, determine the characteristics of one’s influence, show perceptual abilities, be able to understand the position of others, understand individuality and the uniqueness of another person, empathize with him, reflect’ (Hakimova and Valeeva, 2014).

Various research efforts were sent to examining the correlation between emotional intelligence and leadership (Antonakis, 2009; Cavazotte et al., 2011; Esfahani, 2011; George, 2000; Goleman, 1995; Gooty et al. 2010; Hamidi and Azizi, 2012; Heifetz and Linsky, 2002). As Jennifer George (2000) pointed out, those leaders ‘who are high on emotional intelligence will be better able to take advantage of and use their positive moods and emotions to envision major improvements in their organizations’ (p. 1040). Moreover, Heifetz and Linsky claim that ‘leaders must learn to address emotional as well as conceptual work’ (2002, p. 116). Thus, according to Malikova (2014), effective leadership is stated to depend on emotions and feelings we experience and sometimes they can influence our decisions we 21 make day by day as leaders. Clearly, there are many different kinds of emotions that we can experience, for instance, the emotions can be motivating, or de-motivating, empowering, or pessimistic and destructive. Thus, for example, if a person’s current feelings are optimistic he/she is likely to be more supportive, helpful, and well-intentioned, he/she can predict behavior (Malikova, 2014).

However, George (2000) claimed that ‘leaders need to be able to distinguish between the emotions their followers are actually experiencing, their real feelings, and emotions they express’ (p.1041).

Moreover, Moore (2009) states that people can build good relationships with others on the basis of confidence and cooperation and leadership because of emotions, as ‘leaders can display social awareness, develop collaboration, understand the loss that people experience during the change process and display skill in addressing issues and solving problems’ (p.22).

According to As Bin Sayeed and Mera Shanker (2009), stated that ‘leaders are most likely to lead their followers if they have insights into the needs, values, and hopes of their followers’ (p.596). Therefore, a strong leader often becomes from a person who acknowledges, understands, uses and handles his or her own and other emotions, or, in brief, has a high level of emotional intelligence.

There also have been conducted a lot of researches whether instructional leadership effects on teachers’ work performance. Zahed-Babelan, Koulaei, Moeinikia and Sharif (2019) in their research stated that the results show the importance of school culture in improving the emotional confidence of teachers. According to their study, school culture which is based on open communication and flexibility allows teachers to participate in decision making and express their opinions and support feedback.’

According to scholars, academic leadership is probably the most important factor deciding the academic institution’s progress. For instance, it has been found that good leadership involves a person with a wide range of skills (Kelley, 2015).

Moreover, in promoting a positive school environment, informed, imaginative, innovative and motivational leaders are crucial (Simonsen, 2005). Leithwood and Jantzi (2005) stated that leadership includes establishing directions through a vision and high expectations, helping teachers and influencing attitudes, redesigning the organization through partnership, and managing the organization through the provision of the necessary resources.

One more study, conducted by Singh, Hii, and Goo Lean (2012), investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership among managers in Miri Shipbuilding Industry. They described effective leadership as ‘the leaders’ skills that are capable of motivating and encouraging subordinates to contribute the effectiveness and success of the organization as a whole’. In their study they used the mixed model or the model of EI conducted by Goleman (1995). It consists of a combination of personal and social competencies. There were close-ended questionnaires in their study, which were based on the Emotional Competence Framework of Goleman. The questionnaires also included the demographic information, and 58 project managers and eight
shipbuilding companies in Miri. Their findings showed the result as ‘overall emotional intelligence has significant correlation with effective leadership and only one dimension of EI, for example, Motivation (personal competence) has significant relationship with effectiveness of leadership’.

Despite of the dozens of studies regarding the connection between EI and Instructional Leadership, the findings of Harney (2015) showed that ‘quantitatively there was no correlation between principals’ emotional intelligence and school climate in either culture. However, qualitative findings did suggest that American and South Korean principals use emotional intelligence skills to develop and maintain a positive school climate’.

Thus, Omar, Bing and Marzuki (2018) supposed that ‘instructional leadership and emotional intelligence competencies are among the key factors studied in determining the academic performance of the school. The results of this study have confirmed that instructional leadership practice and emotional competence provide a significant correlation to the academic performance of the school’.

Chen and Guo (2018) in their study about ‘The impact of principals’ motional intelligence on teaching strategy mediated by instructional leadership’ conducted in China, stated that principals’ EI influence on their instructional strategies.

To summarize, a number of studies have clearly stated the positive association between emotional intelligence and leadership in organizations; however, this connection has not been investigated among university teachers.

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, the article indicates that the issue of emotional intelligence and teachers’ professional competence is a major concern. There is, however, a lack of literature that focuses on the nature of the relationship between these two concepts, especially the characteristic model of emotional intelligence among university teachers. Nowadays, a teacher of higher education requires exceptional attention to the sphere of his own emotions. Unable to influence the external situation in education, the teacher of higher education should try to influence at least the emotional component of his personal and professional sphere, that is, try not to lose and develop his emotional competence.

Moreover, Emotional Intelligence is the most important component of professional competence of a modern teacher of universities. Emotional Intelligence has a structure represented by two areas: external and internal. Both areas are important for the teacher: the ability to regulate their own emotions, evaluate them, and the ability to understand the emotions of others and use this understanding to organize productive professional interaction with them.

The emotional impact on students in the classroom can stimulate their cognitive activity, and emotional competence in this case acts as a professional tool. Emotional stability and the development of emotional competence largely depend on the teachers themself, their attitude towards self-reflection and their volitional efforts.

Overall, we should assume that the study of the relationship between emotional intelligence and teachers’ instructional leadership style in universities is a novelty for the academic community and can therefore be important and relevant for students, educators, school principal, and educational researchers.

**References**

Ahmed M.R. Emotional Intelligence Is Synergy in Intelligence. Retrieved from https://www.scirp.org/ST/zz5mp453edsnp55rjgct55/journal/paperinformation.aspx?paperid=54815 – 2015.

Amabile T.M., Barsade S.G., Mueller J.S., Staw B.M. (2005). Affect and creativity at work. Adm. Sci. Q, no 50, pp. 367–403.

Assanova M., McGuire M. (n.d.). Applicability Analysis of the Emotional Intelligence Theory. Retrieved from http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.472.8431&rep=rep1&type=pdf (09.11.2020).

Bar-On R (2006). The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI). Psicothema, Vol.18, pp.13–25.

Barbuto J. E., Gottfredson R. K., Searle T. P. (2014). An Examination of Emotional Intelligence as an Antecedent of Servant Leadership. Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, no 21(3), pp.315–323.

Brackett M. A., Mayer J. D., Warner R. M. (2004). Emotional intelligence and its relation to everyday behaviour. Personality and Individual Differences, no 36, pp. 1387-1402.

Brackett M. A., Rivers S. E., Reyes M. R., Salovey P. (2010). Using emotional literacy to improve classroom social-emotional processes. Presented to WT Grant Spencer Grantees’ Meeting. Washington, DC, 265 p.

Brown, R. B. (2005). Emotions And Behavior: Exercises In Emotional Intelligence. Journal of Management Education, no 27(1), pp.122–134.
Cavazotte F., Moreno V., Hickmann M. (2012). Effects of leader intelligence, personality and emotional intelligence on transformational leadership and managerial performance. The Leadership Quarterly, 215 p.

Chen J., Guo W. (2018). Emotional intelligence can make a difference: The impact of principals’ emotional intelligence on teaching strategy mediated by instructional leadership. Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 325 p.

Darling-Hammond L., Hightower A., Husbands J., Laflors J., Young V., Christopher C. (2005). Instructional Reform in San Diego City Schools: A Thoughtful Strategy for Change. In Instructional Leadership for Systemic Change: The Story of San Diego’s Reform. Lanham, MD: Scarecrow Education, 286 p.

Dolzhenko R. A. (2011). “Управление эмоциями студентов как основа формирования позитивной мотивации к обучению”, Vestnik Tomskogo gosudarstvennogo universiteta. Jekonomika, no 1, pp. 127-139.

Efremova N. F.(2012). Kompetencii v obrazovanii. Formirovanie i ocenivanie: metod. [Competencies in Education. Formation and assessment: method]. Nac. obrazovanie, Moscow, 23 p.

Emmadi R. (2017). Emotional intelligence: a tool for success. International Journal of Management, IT, & Engineering, 215 p.

Esfahani N., Sofit H. G. (2011). Relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership in physical education managers. Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, no 30, pp. 2384-2393.

Gasanova D. I. (2010). Jemocional’naja kompetentnost’ kak faktor resursnosti pedagoga [Emotional Intelligence as means of pedagogical resources]. Akad-emicheskij zhurnal Zapadnoj Sibiri, no 6, pp. 32-48.

Goleman D. (2013) Эмоциональный интеллект. Почему он может значить больше, чем IQ, [Emotional Intelligence: Why it means more than IQ?]. Moscow: Mann-Ivanov-Ferber, 259 p.

Gulcan F., Gurkan M. (2012). Research on Instructional Leadership Competencies of School Principals. Retrieved from: https://www.questia.com/read/1G1-283945597/research-on-instructional-leadership-competencies (15.08.2020).

Gumus A., Akcaoglu M. (2013). Instructional Leadership in Turkish Primary Schools: An Analysis of Teachers’ Perceptions and Current Policy. Educational Management Administration & Leadership, no 41(3), pp. 289-302.

Hakimova E. K., Valeeva R. A. (2014). Jemocional’naja kompetentnost’ v strukture professional’nogo kom-petentnosti pedagospshologa [Emotional Intelligence as means in pedagogic and psychologist’s competencies]. Modern problems of the science and education, no 1, pp. 81-93.

Hallinger P., Murphy J. (1986). Assessing the instructional management behavior of principals. Elementary School Journal, no 86(2), pp. 217-247.

Heifetz R. A., Linsky M. (2002). Leadership on the line. Harvard Business School Press, Boston, 315 p.

Jusupov I. M., Jusupova G. V. (2014). Uspeh v kar’ere: intellekt ili jemocional’naja kompetentnost’? [Success in career: intelligence or emotional competence?] Pedagogy and psychology, no 3, pp. 85-96.

Krylova M. N. (2014). Metodika professional’nogo obuchenija: praktikum [Methodology of professional education]. Zerno grad, 26 p.

Locke E. (2005). Why Emotional Intelligence Is an Invalid Concept. Journal of Organizational Behavior, no 4, pp. 425-431.

Eid M., Diener E. (2004). Norms for Experiencing Emotions in Different Cultures. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, no 3, pp. 460-472.

Malikova G. (2014). Teacher’s Trait Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Style: do they depend on educational attainment and teaching experience? (dissertation).

Mangin M., Stoelinga S. (2008). Teacher Leadership: What it is and Why it Matters. In M. Mangin & S. Stoelinga (Eds.), Effective Teacher Leadership Using Research to Inform and Reform.. New York: Teacher College Press. pp. 1-9

Matthews G. (2004). Emotional Intelligence: Science and Myth. Retrieved from: http://www.lavoisier.fr/notice/frKWOX-632AX3WX3Q.html (25.02.2020).

Mayer J. D., Salovey P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. J. Syltyer (Eds.), Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications. New York, NY: Basic Books, Inc., 345 p.

Noor S., Hussin F., Don Y., Khalid R. (2015). Instructional Leadership and Teachers’ Functional Competency across the 21st Century Learning. International Journal of Instruction, no 8, pp. 135–152.

Ostapenko I. A. (2018) Jemoconal’naja kompetentnost’ pedagoga vysshej shkoly kak sostavljajush’aja ego professional’nogo kom-petentnosti. [Emotional Intelligence of a high school teacher as means of his professional competence]. Concept Scientific and methodological Journal, Vol. 9, pp. 55–60.

Prati L. M., Liu Y., Perrewé P. L., Ferris G. R. (2009). Emotional Intelligence as Moderator of the Surface Acting—Strain Relationship. Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, no 15(4), pp.368–380.

Roberts R.D., Zeidner M., Matthews G. (2001). Does emotional intelligence meet traditional standards for an intelligence? Some new data and conclusions. Emotion, Vol. 1 (3), pp.196–231.

Salovey P., Grewal D. (n.d.). The Science of Emotional Intelligence. Retrieved from: https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.0963-7214.2005.00381.x?journalCode=cpda (15.01.2020).

Segal J. (1997). Raising your emotional intelligence. New York: H. Holt, 265 p.

Spillane J. P., Halverson R., Diamond J. B. (2001). Investigating school leadership practice: A distributed perspective. Educational Researcher, no 30(3), pp.23-28.

York-Barr J., Duke K. (2004). What do we know about teacher leadership? Findings from two decades of scholarship. Review of Educational Research, no 74(3), pp. 255-316.

Yuan L. (2015). The Happier One Is, the More Creative One Becomes: An Investigation on Inspirational Positive Emotions from Both Subjective Well-Being and Satisfaction at Work. Psychology, Vol.6, no 3, pp 65-72.
Литература

Ahmed M. R. Emotional Intelligence Is Synergy in Intelligence. Retrieved from https://www.scirp.org/ (S(lz5mqp453edsnp55rrgjct55))/journal/paperinformation.aspx?paperid=54815 – 2015.

Amabile T.M., Barsade S.G., Mueller J.S., Staw B.M. Affect and creativity at work // Adm. Sci. – 2000. – № 50. - P.367–403.

Assanova M., McGuire M. Applicability Analysis of the Emotional Intelligence Theory. – 2009. - http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.472.8431&rep=rep1&type=pdf

Bar-On R., The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI) // Psicothema. - 2006. – № 18. - P.13–25.

Barbuto J. E., Gottfredson R. K., Searle T. P. An Examination of Emotional Intelligence as an Antecedent of Servant Leadership // Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies. - 2014. - №.21(3). - P. 315–323.

Brakett M. A., Mayer J. D., Warner R. M. Emotional intelligence and its relation to everyday behavior // Personality and Individual Differences. - 2004. - № 36. – P. 1387-1402.

Brakett M. A., Rivers S. E., Reyes M. R., Salovey P. Using emotional literacy to improve classroom social-emotional processes. Presented to WT Grant/Spencer Grantees’ Meeting. – Washington: DC, 2010.

Brown R. B. Emotions and Behavior: Exercises In Emotional Intelligence // Journal of Management Education. - 2003. - № 27(1). – 212–134.

Cavazotte F., Moreno V., Hickmann M. Effects of leader intelligence, personality and emotional intelligence on transformational leadership and managerial performance // The Leadership Quarterly. – 2012. - № 65(1). - 325 p.

Chen J., Guo W. Emotional intelligence can make a difference: The impact of principals’ emotional intelligence on teaching strategy mediated by instructional leadership // Educational Management Administration & Leadership. - 2018. - № 62. - P. 215-238.

Darling-Hammond L., Hightower A., Husbands J., Lafors J., Young V., Christopher C. Instructional Reform in San Diego City Schools: A Thoughtful Strategy for Change. In Instructional Leadership for Systemic Change: The Story of San Diego’s Reform. Lanham. - MD: Scarecrow Education, 2005. - 315 p.

Долженко Р.А. Управление эмоциями студентов как основа формирования позитивной мотивации к обучению // Вестник Томского Государственного Университета. Экономика. - 2011. – № 1. - С. 127 - 136.

Ефремова Н.Ф. Компетенции в образовании. Формирование и оценивание: метод. пособие. – Москва: Нац. Образование, 2012. - 23 с.

Emmadi R. Emotional intelligence: a tool for success // International Journal of Management, IT, & Engineering. – 2017. - № 25. - P. 285-300.

Esfahani N., Softu H.G. Relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership in physical education managers // Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences. - 2011. - № 30. - P. 2384-2393.

Гасанова Д.И. Эмоциональная компетентность как фактор ресурсности педагога // Академический Журнал Западной Сибири. – 2010. – № 5. – P. 32-46.

Goleman, D. Эмоциональный интеллект. Почему он может значить больше, чем IQ. – Moscow: Mann-Ivanov-Ferber, 2013. - P. 215 p.

Gumus S., Akcaoglu M. Instructional Leadership in Turkish Primary Schools: An Analysis of Teachers’ Perceptions and Current Policy // Educational Management Administration & Leadership. – 2013. – № 41(3). – P. 289–302.

Hallinger P., Murphy J. (1986). Assessing the instructional management behavior of principals // Elementary School Journal. – 1986. – № 86(2). – P. 217-247.

Heifetz R. A., Linsky M. Leadership on the line. – Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 2002. – 356 p.

Locke E. Why Emotional Intelligence Is an Invalid Concept // Journal of Organizational Behavior 26. – 2005. – № 4. – P. 425-431.

Eid M., Diener E. Norms for Experiencing Emotions in Different Cultures // Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 86. – 2004. – № 3. – P. 460-472.

Malikova G. Teacher’s Trait Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Style: do they depend on educational attainment and teaching experience? (dissertation). – 2018. – 165 p.

Mangin M., Stoelinga S. Teacher Leadership: What it is and Why it Matters. In M. Mangin & S. Stoelinga (Eds.), Effective Teacher Leadership Using Research to Inform and Reform. – New York: Teacher College Press, 2008. – 329 p.

Matthews G. Emotional Intelligence: Science and Myth. – 2009. – P. 265 p.

Mayer J. D., Salovey P. What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. J. Sluyter (Eds.), Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications. – New York, NY: Basic Books, Inc, 1997. – 215 p.

Noor S., Hussin F., Don Y., Khalid R. Instructional Leadership and Teachers’ Functional Competency across the 21st Century Learning // International Journal of Instruction. – 2015. – P.135-152.
Остапенко И. А. Эмоциональная компетентность педагога высшей школы как составляющая его профессиональной компетентности // Научно-методический электронный журнал «Концепт». – 2018. – № 9. – С. 55–60.

Prati L. M., Liu Y., Perrewé P. L., Ferris G. R. Emotional Intelligence as Moderator of the Surface Acting – Strain Relationship // Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies. – 2009. – № 15(4). – P.368–380.

Roberts R.D., Zeidner M., Matthews G. Does emotional intelligence meet traditional standards for an intelligence? Some new data and conclusions. Emotion. – 2001. – No. 3. – P. 196–231.

Salovey P., Grewal D. The Science of Emotional Intelligence. Retrieved from https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.0963-7214.2005.00381.x?journalCode=cdpa.

Segal J. Raising your emotional intelligence. – New York: H. Holt, 1997. – 215 p.

Spillane J. P., Halverson R., Diamond J. B. Investigating school leadership practice: A distributed perspective // Educational Researcher, 2001. – № 30(3). – P. 23-28.

York-Barr J., Duke K. What do we know about teacher leadership? Findings from two decades of scholarship // Review of Educational Research. – 2004. – № 74(3). – P. 255-316.

Yuan L. The Happier One Is, the More Creative One Becomes: An Investigation on Inspirational Positive Emotions from Both Subjective Well-Being and Satisfaction at Work // Psychology. – 2015. – Vol.6. – № 3. – P. 25-39.

Yükselbilibili, Z., Akduman, G., Hatipoğlu, Z. Emotional Intelligence on Generations // International Journal of Advanced Multidisciplinary Research and Review. – Электронный ресурс: file:///Users/Aisulu/Downloads/IJAMRR2014W.pdf -2015 (дата обращения: 15.01.2020).

Zahed-Babelan, A., Koulaei G., Moeinikia M., Sharif A. R. Instructional Leadership Effects on Teachers’ Work Engagement: Roles of School Culture, Empowerment, and Job Characteristics // Center for Educational Policy Studies Journal. – 2019. – №56. – Р. 125-138.

Хакимова Е.К., Валеева Р.А. Эмоциональная компетентность в структуре профессиональной компетентности педагога-психолога // Современные проблемы науки и образования. – 2014. – № 1. – С. 81-96.