Effect of School Principals’ Leadership Style on Teachers' Social and Emotional Intelligence *

Yusuf Türker¹ Abdurrahman Tanrıoğlu ²

• Received: 02.05.2020 • Accepted: 05.08.2020 • Online First: 15.10.2020

Abstract

In this study, the effects of school principals' leadership styles as perceived by teachers on teachers' emotional intelligence and the mediating role of teachers' social intelligence in this effect were investigated. The research model is the relational survey model. In order to test the relationships among variables, structural equation modeling was employed. The analysis data were obtained from 478 teachers working in central districts of Antalya province during the 2017-2018 academic year. As a result of structural equality model tests, it was found that the structural leadership style did not affect teachers' emotional intelligence. Human resource, political, and symbolic leadership positively affect teachers' emotional intelligence. Human resource, political, and symbolic leadership styles, affect teachers' emotional intelligence, both directly and indirectly, through social intelligence.

Keywords: leadership style, social intelligence, emotional intelligence

Cited:

Türker, Y., & Tanrıoğlu, A. (2020). Effect of school principals’ leadership style on teachers' social and emotional intelligence. Pamukkale University Journal of Education, doi:10.9779/pauefd.731133.

* The manuscript was adapted from Yusuf Türker’s doctoral dissertation. The summary of this study was presented as oral presentation at 6. International Eurasian Educational Research Congress (19-22 June 2019).

¹ Dr., Republic of Turkey Ministry of National Education, ORCID: 0000-0003-4276-6648, yusuf.turker@gmail.com

² Prof. Dr., Pamukkale University Faculty of Education, ORCID: 0000-0002-5491-3273, atogen@pau.edu.tr
Introduction

Malcolm Gladwell (2008) sought out several common characteristics of successful people in his book titled Outliers. In this book, Lewis Terman’s researches are often referred to when discussing the effect of the intelligence factor on success. Lewis Terman developed the Stanford Binet IQ test applied to millions of people around the World in the 1920s. Terman supported that to improve science, art, government administration, education, and social welfare in general, people with high IQs should be selected. For this reason, he focused on children with high IQs. Terman and his team screened schools in California and identified 1470 children with an average IQ of between 140 and 200. These children who are described as geniuses are thought to be very successful in the areas requiring a high level of intellectual skills such as science, art, philosophy, and politics. The findings of the study covering the adolescence, youth, and advanced age of 1470 children selected to the study group were quite surprising to the researchers. This group with high IQ averages performed well below expectations and cannot exceed the groups' performances with a normal level of intelligence. At the end of the research, Terman expressed his frustration by saying that “We have seen that intellect and achievement are far from perfectly correlated.” (Gladwell, 2008, p.90).

At the beginning of the 20th century, when intelligence is mentioned, it is seen that cognitive intelligence comes to the fore as a dominant element. In this period, cognitive intelligence, which is referred to briefly as reason, was associated with men, leaders, and commanders. On the other hand, emotions are considered the opposite of the reason and the weak side of the human being and were ignored. Emotions are given to women, mothers, artists, and poets (Atabek, 2000). This point of view, which does not care about emotions, has also been effective at organizational and managerial levels. Especially when management emerged as a science, there is no room for emotions in the organization working like a machine. The managers evaluated emotions in organizations as distractors that disrupt the logical functioning of the organizations (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002).

Today, both the developments in management science and the research on emotional intelligence have revealed that emotions are so important to organizations that they cannot be ignored. Contrary to what is commonly believed, emotions are not just feelings that shine and die away in one's inner world. Palmer (2003) argues that emotions are not only things
that we feel, but they are also sources of knowledge. For this reason, emotions are spread, just as knowledge spreads. It is almost infectious. The emotions of each employee within the organization can affect the organization in general (Goleman et al., 2002). Especially the feelings of the leaders can affect all employees (Lewis, 2000).

With the understanding of the effects of emotions on organizational life and management, the theoretical foundations of the concept of emotional intelligence began to be developed. However, the concept gained popularity with Goleman’s popular and one of the bestseller books, “Emotional Intelligence,” published in 1995. In this book, Goleman (1997) emphasized that emotional intelligence is critical in reducing violence, school, and work success, establishing and maintaining healthy relationships with friends and family and that emotional intelligence is as important as cognitive intelligence. Goleman (1997) states that despite the attention to their cognitive intelligence when selecting top managers, it is the emotional intelligence that keeps them at work and makes them successful.

The importance of some concepts in today’s social and economic structures, which is referred to as Industry 4.0, is gradually decreasing, the need and interest in some concepts are increasing. In this context, the notion of emotional intelligence is expressed as an important skill of the present and future (WEF, 2018). It is important to identify what factors affect emotional intelligence and are determined as potential effects on students, teachers, school administrators, and education in general by scientific research. Variables whose effect and direction on emotional intelligence are determined are necessary for establishing theoretical and practical bases for attempts to develop emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence development can make the benefits expressed at the theoretical level or demonstrated by research accessible to schools. In this context, it is important to determine the school principals' leadership behaviors according to the teachers' opinions, the effect of the leadership styles on the emotional intelligence of the teachers and the role of the teachers' social intelligence in this effect. For this reason, the problem statement of the research is developed as follows: “Is there a mediator role of social intelligence of teachers in the effect of school principals' structural, human resource, political and symbolic leadership styles on teachers' emotional intelligence?“

**Emotional Intelligence**

The different types of intelligence are often distinguished by the types of information that make them work. For example, verbal intelligence is interested in understanding words,
sentences, and texts. Spatial intelligence attaches importance to seeing shapes and structures to find the missing piece of the picture and to put the pieces of the puzzle together. Emotional intelligence works with emotional knowledge. Each emotion carries emotional information with unique and specific signals. Each emotional information is transmitted through its unique channel. When emotional and other information is compared, it is seen that emotional information processes are universalized among mammals, similar to the development of language. However, emotional knowledge is different from language. Emotional knowledge is more extensive. It requires an understanding of the relationship between people to be understood (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2004).

Research reveals that processing emotional information is important for social and emotional adaptation. Damasio's (1994) studies have shown that rational decision-making and other conceptual processes are adversely affected when the part of the brain that processes emotional information is damaged. Similarly, in the studies conducted with children and using different assessment tools, it revealed the relationship between the competence of reading emotions in facial expressions, understanding the meanings of words, and regulating the effect of the words with the children's social skills and adaptation. Those who have these abilities have healthier relationships with their peers, parents, teachers, and others (Lopes, Salovey & Straus, 2003).

Some people have a higher capacity than others to process emotion, stimulants related to emotions, and to use sophisticated data that enable them to guide their thoughts and behaviors. The term emotional intelligence is a concept developed to explain such situations. Although there is no agreed definition of emotional intelligence, it can be said that there is a special combination of intelligence and emotion in theory. Emotional intelligence can be conceptualized as a group of competencies that are interrelated, learnable, and enrich human capacity (Mayer et al., 2004; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2008). According to Mayer and Salovey (2000), emotional intelligence includes perceiving emotions, understanding the information in emotions correctly, creating and penetrating emotions to influence thoughts, and organizing and managing emotions. It requires the ability to understand one's own and others' emotions and use the information obtained to guide their thinking and behavior. Emotional intelligence, defined by Bar-On (1997) as non-cognitive intelligence, consists of various emotional, personal, and social competencies and skills that affect individuals' ability to cope effectively with environmental demands and pressure.
Based on the definitions, it can be said that emotional intelligence is different from each other, but when it comes together, it consists of some characteristics that make up emotional intelligence. These characteristics can be ordered from simple to complex in a hierarchy and as a basis for each other. The first of these characteristics is about recognizing. The origin of emotional intelligence is the recognition of emotions. At this stage, one must be able to recognize his or her feelings and others' feelings. The second stage, it is the analysis of the recognized emotions and the correct understanding and the acquisition of some information. The last stage is related to the use of the information obtained in the life of the person. One should be able to use the emotional information he/she obtains effectively in his/her life. It can be said that the success of each stage depends on the correct performance of the previous stage. In this context, it is possible to define emotional intelligence as the ability of an individual to become aware of emotional knowledge in all areas of life, to understand and use emotional knowledge.

**Social Intelligence**

There is a general perception that social intelligence is a character trait. While some people are good enough to understand human nature and relationships with others, some people may have serious problems with these issues, which can be a serious reason for this perception. Similarly, some people exhibit successful behavior in different social settings, and others do not. The differentiation of behaviors of different people in different or similar social situations indicates that there are individual variables. These individual differences can be expressed as social intelligence in the field of psychology. While this is evident, social intelligence has not been fully conceptualized and defined for almost a century. Experimental studies to determine social intelligence have often failed. Although there are proposed definitions of social intelligence in the literature, none has been accepted generally (Silvera, Martinussen & Dahl 2001; Kosmitzki & John, 1993).

Social intelligence research is based on Thorndike's (1920) classification of intelligence. Thorndike has divided human intelligence into three broad classes of talents: thoughts, objects, and fields of interest to people. According to Thorndike, intelligence is divided into abstract intelligence -associated with the ability to understand and manage thoughts-, mechanical intelligence -the ability to concentrate on objects- and social intelligence (human intelligence). In the same work, Thorndike distinguished and defined social intelligence from other forms of intelligence. According to Thorndike (1920), social
intelligence is the ability to understand and manage women, men, girls, and boys to act wisely in interpersonal relationships. At the core of social intelligence, one can understand himself/herself and others' inner state, motives, behaviors, and behave most appropriately from this knowledge (Kosmitzki & John 1993; Kihlstrom & Cantor, 2011).

Thorndike's (1920) idea of social intelligence is still fundamental and is more common than all other definitions. Notably, this definition divides social intelligence into two components: mental (understanding) and behavioral (managing and acting-wise). Vernon (1933) likewise defines social intelligence as knowledge of social issues and the ability to see the mood or personality traits of strangers (mental), well-being with others, and being comfortable in society (behavioral). Thorndike's first approach to the separation of social intelligence into mental and behavioral components, which Vernon continued, led to a significant division in social intelligence research. Although Thorndike hints that the two components are two separate parts of a single structure, the following descriptions emphasize one of the two. Research from the psychometric tradition has focused on the mental component of social intelligence, which expresses intellectual abilities. Social psychology research, on the contrary, focused on the interpersonal nature of social intelligence. These researchers have developed a concept that emphasizes behavioral components such as social competence and empathy. In this context, Moss and Hunt (1927) define the social intelligence as the ability to get along with the social environment; for Guilford (1967) it is the ability to evaluate people with their emotions, motives, thoughts, and attitudes; Kihlstrom and Cantor (2011) defined it as personal knowledge of the social world.

It is possible to define social intelligence as the ability to use the information obtained from interpreting the data gathered from the social environment to influence people in any social environment or to organize relationships. As Thorndike (1920) expresses, it consists of two components: understanding and behavior, but these components can only be discussed when social intelligence comes together. In this context, it can be said that understanding and behavior are the actions that form the basis of each other. An acceptable understanding before effective behavior and gathering data for understanding may also require effective behavior.
Bolman and Deal’s Leadership Approach

Leadership is not only one of the important skills considered for today's societies and economies (WEF, 2018) also one of the oldest notions of managerial sciences. Despite its deep-rooted past, it is possible to say that the understanding of leadership has gone through quite great transformations until today. At the beginning of managerial sciences, the social relations and emotions were tried to be cleansed of leadership; in the following periods, with the change in managerial science approaches, it was attempted to be redefined and clarified. Today, it is accepted that leadership activities are basically a product of interaction, and social relations and emotions are very effective in this interaction. Boyatzis, Good, and Massa (2012) state that all leadership interactions are part of emotional activity. Similarly, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) emphasize that work-related experiences are full of emotions and view leaders as the group's emotional guide.

According to Bolman and Deal (1991a; 1991b), researchers have spent considerable energy and time in determining the nature and characteristics of influential leaders over the years, but researchers and educators have often been disappointed with their efforts. Bolman and Deal (1991a; 1991b) attribute this failure to very little attention and effort on how leaders perceive and describe existing situations. According to the authors, it is not focused on how the person is expected to have effective leadership behaviors to evaluate the current conditions. It has always been ignored that leaders may misjudge existing situations. Therefore, the diagnoses made were wrong, and misdiagnoses rarely turned into effective actions. Although they are sufficient in terms of personality and talent, the leaders who interpreted the situation have not been effective.

When literature is examined, it is seen that there are many orientations about leadership. The existence of such different ideas and theories creates a chaotic situation. Instead of choosing one of the competing ideas, Bolman and Deal (1991a, 1991b) put forward the idea of frames to comprehend the differences in the literature. Bolman and Deal (1991a, 1991b) defined a four-way frame for organizations, structural, human resource, political and symbolic, and a different leadership style for each of the frameworks. According to the authors, these frames are not only in books and theoretical level. The organization itself consists of the combination and interaction of these frameworks. These frames are effective in all organizational activities. Therefore, they are strong enough to comprehend the subtle and complex form of leadership and organization. In particular,
leaders use these frames in their thoughts, actions, and reactions. Each frame tells a different story for leadership, and each proposes a separate path for leadership.

According to the frameworks, approach organizations consist of a combination of structural, human resource, political, and symbolic frameworks. There is a different leadership approach to each frame of the organization. These are defined as structural leadership, human resource leadership, political leadership, and symbolic leadership. The structural leader sees the organization as a factory. He/she establishes the structure for tasks, strictly defines and controls rules and roles by setting goals. The human resource leader sees the organization as a family; organizes the organization according to human needs and abilities. Interpersonal relations, understanding, and influencing emotions are the most important instruments of the leadership approach towards the human resource. The political leader sees the organization as a jungle. Political leaders know that organizations consist of coalitions fighting for scarce resources. Political leaders spend most of their time building relationships, building coalitions, building power bases, negotiating, and bargaining. Symbolic leaders see the organization as a theater. Symbolic leaders are well aware of the organization's climate and culture and are effective in their creation process. Building trust within the organization and inspiring employees is important to the symbolic leader (Bolman & Deal, 1991a; 1991b).

Method

The model of this study aimed to determine the relationships among school principals' leadership styles, social intelligence, and emotional intelligence is a relational survey. In the study, the mediating role of social intelligence in the effect of school principals' leadership styles on teachers' emotional intelligence was examined. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to test the relationships among variables. In the model, the leadership style of school principals is considered as an independent, social intelligence tool, and emotional intelligence as a dependent variable.

Participants

The research was carried out in state schools in Antalya, and the research population targeted teachers. Convenience sampling was selected owing to its practicability in reaching high numbers of participants within a short time (Dörnyei, 2007). In the determination of the sample, taking the theoretical sample size criteria into consideration, a simple random sampling technique was used. The research population is composed of 17155 teachers
working in the central districts of Antalya province during the 2017-2018 Academic Year. When 17155 teachers working in the central districts of Antalya were taken as the population, the sample size was determined as 378 teachers for 95% confidence level, \( \alpha = .05 \) significance level, and 5% tolerance level. 550 questionnaires were distributed to the teachers by the researcher, and the analyses were performed with the data obtained from 478 teachers. Of the teachers, 67.4% were female, and 32.6% were male. Of the teachers, 91.8% had a college degree, and 8.2% a master’s degree. 16.7% of the teachers have 1-10 years of experience, 41% have 11-20 years of experience, and 42.3% have over 21 years of experience.

**Data Collection Tools**

*Leadership Styles Description Questionnaire (LSDQ)*,

LSDQ was developed by Bolman and Deal (1991a) to determine leadership styles. LSDQ has four dimensions, which are “structural leadership,” “human resource leadership”, “political leadership,” and “symbolic leadership.” Each dimension consists of eight statements and a total of 32 items. The scale is a 5-point Likert-type scale (Bolman & Deal, 1991a). Dereli (2003), who adapted the scale to Turkish, states that the four dimensions that make up the scale explain 68% of the total variance.

For this study, the Cronbach’s alpha coefficients of the LSDQ were 0.95 for the structural leadership dimension, 0.97 for the human resource leadership dimension, 0.95 for the political leadership dimension, and 0.97 for the symbolic leadership dimension. It can be said that the reliability values reached in the study are above the acceptable level (Karagöz, 2016; Seçer, 2017). In order to determine the appropriateness of the present factor structure of the LSDQ, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed. Goodness of fit indices values (\( \chi^2/\text{sd}=2.961 \), RMR=0.053, SRMR=0.040, IFI=0.955, NNFI=0.951, CFI=0.955, RMSEA=0.064) for the analysis results were calculated within the acceptance limits (Karagöz, 2016; Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). It can be said that the factor structure of the original scale is compatible with the sample group in this study.

*Tromso Social Intelligence Scale (TSIS)*

TSIS was developed by Silvera, Martinussen, and Dahl (2001). TSIS has three dimensions, which are “social information processing,” “social skills,” “social awareness.” The social information processing dimension consists of eight statements; the social skills dimension consists of six statements; the social awareness dimension consists of seven statements and a
total of 21 items. The scale is a 7-point Likert-type scale (Silvera et al., 2001). Doğan and Çetin (2009), who adapted the scale to Turkish, states that the three dimensions that make up the scale explain 44.79% of the total variance. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the TSIS in this study were calculated as 0.92 for the social information processing dimension, 0.95 for the social skills dimension, 0.83 for the social awareness dimension, and 0.90 for the entire scale. According to these values obtained, the reliability of the scale is well above the acceptable values (Karagöz, 2016; Seçer, 2017).

In order to determine the appropriateness of the present factor structure of the TSIS, CFA was performed. Goodness of fit indices values ($\chi^2$/sd=2.622, RMR=0.042, SRMR=0.039, IFI=0.965, NNFI=0.960, CFI=0.965, RMSEA=0.058) for the analysis results were calculated within the acceptance limits (Karagoz, 2016; Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). It can be said that the factor structure of the original scale is compatible with the sample group in this study.

**Rotterdam Emotional Intelligence Scale (REIS)**

REIS was developed by Pekaar, Bakker, Linden, and Born (2017). Rotterdam Emotional Intelligence Scale consists of four dimensions: “self-focused emotion appraisal,” “other-focused emotion appraisal,” “self-focused emotion regulation,” “other-focused emotion regulation.” The instrument is a five-point Likert type and consists of seven items for each dimension and a total of 28 items (Pekaar et al., 2017).

Tanrıöğen and Türker (2019), who adapted the scale to Turkish, states that the four dimensions that make up the scale explain 68% of the total variance. As a result of the reliability analysis of the REIS, Cronbach’s Alpha values were obtained at the level of 0.90 in the self-focused emotion appraisal, 0.91 in the other-focused emotion appraisal, 0.90 in the self-focused emotion regulation, 0.92 in the other-focused emotion regulation, and 0.93 in the overall scale. The reliability of the scale can be accepted according to these values (Karagöz, 2016; Seçer, 2017). In order to determine the appropriateness of the present factor structure of the REIS, CFA was performed. Goodness of fit indices values ($\chi^2$/sd=2.812, RMR=0.040, SRMR=0.057, IFI =0.935, NNFI=0.927, CFI=0.935, RMSEA=0.062) for the analysis results were calculated within the acceptance limits (Karagoz, 2016; Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). It can be said that the factor structure of the original scale is compatible with the sample group in this study.
Data Analysis

In determining the analysis techniques used in the research, whether the data are distributed normally is a basic criterion (Bayram, 2016). Skewness and kurtosis coefficients related to whether the data are normally distributed or not are examined to determine the analysis techniques to be used and see if the prerequisite of structural equation modeling is formed. Again, since the data's extreme values may impair the significance of the model, the Mardia coefficient was also examined. Skewness and Kurtosis coefficients of the measurement tools range between -0.092 and 0.904. The fact that skewness and kurtosis coefficients are within the accepted values in the literature indicates the normal distribution of data (George & Mallery, 2010; Karagöz, 2016).

There are different views on the required fit indices and reporting the models tested with the structural equation model. Although there may be a consensus among researchers about the reporting of $\chi^2$/sd in the research (Mulaik, James, Alstine, Bennet, Lind & Stilwell, 1989), the other fit indices are not the same. Regarding the fit indices to be reported, Iacobucci (2010) stated CFI and SRMR values; Brown (2006) RMSEA, SRMR, CFI, and NNFI (TLI) values consider the reporting of sufficient. In their study, Jackson, Gillaspy, and Stephenson (2009) examined 194 studies published in the American Psychological Association Journals between 1998 and 2006, using the structural equation model. The researchers found that among the 194 publications they examined, the most used fit indices were chi-square (89.2%), degrees of freedom (89.2%), CFI (78.4%), RMSEA (64.9%), and NNFI (TLI) (46.4). Based on the literature, in this study, chi-square, degree of freedom, RMR, SRMR, IFI, NNFI (TLI), CFI, RMSEA fit indices have been reported.

Findings

The analyzes were carried out on four different models. In each model, teachers' social intelligence's mediating role in the effect of school principals' leadership styles on teachers' emotional intelligence is examined.

The Mediating Role of Social Intelligence in the Effect of Structural Leadership Style on Emotional Intelligence

In the model, the mediating role of social intelligence in the effect of the structural leadership style perceived by the teachers on the emotional intelligence of the teachers was
examined. The path coefficients on the significance of the relationships in the model created are also given in Table 1.

Table 1. *Path Coefficients of the Structural Leadership Model*

| Relationships Between Variables | B   | β    | S.E. | C.R.(t) | p     |
|---------------------------------|-----|------|------|---------|-------|
| Social Intelligence <-- Structural Leadership | -0.027 | -0.035 | 0.044 | -0.610 | 0.54  |
| Emotional Intelligence <-- Structural Leadership | 0.013 | 0.037 | 0.017 | 0.814  | 0.41  |
| Emotional Intelligence <-- Social Intelligence | 0.438 | 0.914 | 0.054 | 8.052 ** |       |

(***p<0.01)

The significance of the path coefficients is an important criterion in testing the accuracy of the constructed model. In order to determine the significance of the path coefficients, the C.R.(t) value is checked. If t value exceeds 1.96, there is a significance of 0.05; if this value exceeds 2.56, a significance of 0.01 can be accepted (Çokluk, Şekercioğlu & Büyüköztürk, 2014; Tabachnick & Fidel, 2001). When Table 1 is examined, it is seen that the path coefficient of social leadership (-0.610) and the coefficient of the path to emotional intelligence (0.814) is less than 1.96. Similarly, p values showing the significance of the path coefficients are observed to be greater than 0.05. The effect of social intelligence on emotional intelligence is the only relationship consistent with the model created. The path coefficient of this effect (8.052) gives a meaningful result at the level of 0.01. When the constructed model is considered as a whole, it can be seen that the model cannot be verified by the data obtained from the sample group. In other words, the structural leadership style displayed by school principals does not affect teachers' emotional intelligence and social intelligence.

The Mediating Role of Social Intelligence in the Effect of Human Resource Leadership Style on Emotional Intelligence

The second model, which is constructed with the structural equation model, is related to the study of the mediating role of social intelligence in the effect of the leadership style towards the human resource perceived by the teachers on the emotional intelligence of the teachers. The path coefficients for the significance of the relationships in the constructed model are given in Table 2.
Table 2. Path Coefficients of the Human Resource Leadership Model

| Relationships Between Variables | B   | β    | S.E. | C.R.(t) | p   |
|---------------------------------|-----|------|------|---------|-----|
| Social Intelligence <--- Human Resource Leadership | 0.124 | 0.202 | 0.035 | 3.537 | ** |
| Emotional Intelligence <--- Human Resource Leadership | 0.047 | 0.161 | 0.014 | 3.356 | ** |
| Emotional Intelligence <--- Social Intelligence | 0.424 | 0.884 | 0.054 | 7.902 | ** |

(**p<0.01)

When Table 2 is examined, it is seen that all the paths in the model constructed (t>2.56) are significant at the level of 0.01. In testing the structure constructed with the structural equation model, the next step after the path coefficients' significance is to examine the fit indices values. For the model's acceptance, the fit indices values should be in a statistically acceptable range (Byrne, 2010; Kline, 2011). When the fit indices values of the model ($\chi^2$/$sd=2.076$, RMR=0.051, SRMR=0.057, IFI=0.930, NNFI=0.927, CFI=0.930, RMSEA=0.047) are analyzed model fit is acceptable (Karagöz, 2016; Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). It can be said that the model has been verified with the data obtained from the sample group as a result of the fact that the path coefficients are meaningful and the fit indices values are within acceptable ranges. The model verified with the fit indices values is given in Figure 1.

When Figure 1 examined, school principals' leadership in human resources positively affects teachers' emotional intelligence both directly and indirectly. Human resource leadership and social intelligence explain 86% of the variance in emotional intelligence. Human resource leadership explains 4% of the variance in social intelligence. Standardized effects showing direct and indirect effects in the model are given in Table 3.
When the standardized path coefficients in Table 3 are examined, it is seen that the leadership style for the human resource has a direct effect on emotional intelligence and an indirect effect on social intelligence. When direct effects are examined, a one-unit increase in social intelligence provides an 0.884 increase in emotional intelligence. A one-unit increase in school principals’ leadership style towards human resources can provide an increase of 0.202 units in teachers’ social intelligence. A one-unit increase in leadership style for a human resource can increase 0.161 units in emotional intelligence. While the indirect effect of leadership style towards human resources on emotional intelligence over social intelligence is 0.178, the total effect is calculated as 0.339. In light of these results, it can be
said that social intelligence has a mediating role on the impact of human resource leadership style on emotional intelligence.

The Mediating Role of Social Intelligence in the Effect of Political Leadership Style on Emotional Intelligence

The structural equation model, in which the mediating role of social intelligence is analyzed in the effect of teachers' perceived political leadership style on teachers' emotional intelligence, is the third model in this section. The constructed model was tested with the data collected. The path coefficients for the model are given in Table 4

Table 4. Path Coefficients of the Political Leadership Model

| Relationships Between Variables | B   | β   | S.E. | C.R.(t) | p     |
|---------------------------------|-----|-----|------|---------|-------|
| Social Intelligence <--- Political Leadership | 0.131 | 0.180 | 0.041 | 3.158  | 0.002* |
| Emotional Intelligence <--- Political Leadership | 0.061 | 0.176 | 0.017 | 3.698  | **    |
| Emotional Intelligence <--- Social Intelligence | 0.424 | 0.886 | 0.053 | 7.949  | **    |

(*p<0.05) (**p<0.01)

When Table 4 is analyzed, it can be seen that the path between political leadership and social intelligence is significant at the level of 0.05, and other pathways are significant at the level of 0.01. Therefore, as a second phase, it is necessary to examine fit indices in determining the model's validity. When the fit indices values of the model (χ²/sd=2.072, RMR=0.048, SRMR=0.056, IFI=0.928, NNFI=0.924, CFI=0.928, RMSEA=0.047) are examined model fit is acceptable (Karagöz, 2016; Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The model, whose accuracy is accepted with the data obtained from the sample group as a result of the fact that the path coefficients are meaningful and the fit indices values are in acceptable ranges, are given in Figure 2.

When Figure 2 is examined, the school principals' political leadership positively affects the emotional intelligence of teachers both directly and indirectly. Political leadership and social intelligence explain 87% of the variance in emotional intelligence. Political leadership explains 3% of the variance in social intelligence. Standardized effects showing direct and indirect effects in the model are given in Table 5.
Figure 2. The mediating role of social intelligence in the effect of political leadership style on emotional intelligence

Table 5. Standardized Effects of the Political Leadership Model

| Relationships Between Variables | Direct Effect | Indirect Effect | Total Effect |
|---------------------------------|-------------|----------------|-------------|
| Social Intelligence <--- Political Leadership | 0.180 | --- | 0.180 |
| Emotional Intelligence <--- Political Leadership | 0.176 | 0.159 | 0.335 |
| Emotional Intelligence <--- Social Intelligence | 0.886 | --- | 0.886 |

When standardized path coefficients in Table 5 are analyzed, it is seen that the political leadership style has a direct effect on emotional intelligence and indirectly on social intelligence. When direct effects are analyzed, one unit increase in social intelligence provides an increase of 0.886 in emotional intelligence. One unit increase in school principals’ political leadership style can provide an increase of 0.180 units in teachers' social intelligence. A one-unit increase in the political leadership style can result in an increase of 0.176 units in emotional intelligence. While the indirect effect of the political leadership style on emotional intelligence over social intelligence was 0.159, the total effect was
calculated as 0.335. In light of these results, it can be said that social intelligence has a mediating role in the effect of political leadership style on emotional intelligence.

**The Mediating Role of Social Intelligence in the Effect of Symbolic Leadership Style on Emotional Intelligence**

The last model is related to the mediating role of social intelligence in the effect of the teachers' symbolic leadership style on the emotional intelligence of teachers. The constructed model was tested with the data obtained from the research. The path coefficients for the model are given in Table 6.

Table 6. *Path Coefficients of the Symbolic Leadership Model*

| Relationships Between Variables | B    | β     | S.E.  | C.R.(t) | p   |
|---------------------------------|------|-------|-------|---------|-----|
| Social Intelligence <--- Symbolic Leadership | 0.142 | 0.233 | 0.035 | 4.093 ** |
| Emotional Intelligence <--- Symbolic Leadership | 0.054 | 0.188 | 0.014 | 3.843 ** |
| Emotional Intelligence <--- Social Intelligence | 0.409 | 0.872 | 0.053 | 7.783 ** |

(*p<0.01)

When Table 6 is examined, it is seen that all the paths in the model are significant at the 0.01 level. Therefore, as a second phase, it is necessary to examine the fit indices in determining the model's validity. When the fit indices values of the model are (χ²/sd=2.092, RMR=0.053, SRMR=0.058, IFI=0.930, NNFI=0.927, CFI=0.930, RMSEA=0.048) are examined it is seen that model fit is acceptable (Karagöz, 2016; Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The model, whose accuracy is accepted with the data obtained from the sample group due to both the path coefficients being meaningful and the fit indices values within acceptable ranges, is given in Figure 3.

When Figure 3 is examined, school principals' symbolic leadership positively affects teachers' emotional intelligence both directly and indirectly. Symbolic leadership and social intelligence explain 87% of the variance in emotional intelligence. Symbolic leadership explains 5% of the variance in social intelligence. The standardized effects showing the direct and indirect effects in the model are given in Table 7.
Figure 3. The mediating role of social intelligence in the effect of symbolic leadership style on emotional intelligence

Table 7. Standardized Effects of the Symbolic Leadership Model

| Relationships Between Values                      | Direct Effect | Indirect Effect | Total Effect |
|--------------------------------------------------|---------------|-----------------|--------------|
| Social Intelligence <--- Symbolic Leadership      | 0.233         | ---             | 0.233        |
| Emotional Intelligence<--- Symbolic Leadership   | 0.188         | 0.203           | 0.391        |
| Emotional Intelligence <--- Social Intelligence  | 0.872         | ---             | 0.872        |

When the standardized path coefficients in Table 7 are examined, it is seen that the symbolic leadership style has a direct effect on emotional intelligence and indirectly on social intelligence. When direct effects are analyzed, one unit increase in social intelligence provides an increase of 0.872 in emotional intelligence. A one-unit increase in the symbolic leadership style of school principals can increase the social intelligence of teachers by 0.233. A one-unit increase in the symbolic leadership style can generate 0.188 unit increase in emotional intelligence. The indirect effect of the symbolic leadership style on emotional intelligence over social intelligence was 0.203, while its total effect was calculated as 0.391.
In light of these results, it can be said that social intelligence has a mediating role on the effect of symbolic leadership style on emotional intelligence.

**Discussion**

In order to examine the effect of leadership styles and social intelligence on emotional intelligence, a different model was designed for each leadership style. The model designed to investigate the effect of school principals' structural leadership style on teachers' emotional intelligence could not be confirmed. It was concluded that the structural leadership style had no direct or indirect effect on emotional intelligence. When the theoretical foundations of leadership are examined, it is seen that managerial and leadership activities are separated. Kotter (1990) argues that leadership functions and management activities are different. According to him, the most important management function is to cope with the chaos in the organization and ensure order and harmony. Leadership is to cope with change by generating future vision and movement.

Similarly, Bennis and Nanus (1985) define leadership as influencing others and creating visions, thinking of managing daily tasks as dominant and routine. In this context, the structural leadership style is related to the organization's structural dimension and includes managerial activities rather than leadership. For the organizational effectiveness in the structural framework, the division of labor based on specialization and the tight coordination of different actions in line with organizational policies, rules, data-based decision-making, formal relations, and chain of command are crucial. In other words, structural leadership focuses on management activities (Bolman & Deal, 1991a; 1991b). As a result, the elements that structural leadership emphasizes for the organization are the organization's aspects that try to keep the human element at a minimum level. Social and emotional intelligence focuses on the human element that the structuralist approach tries to minimize. Therefore, it is expected that the structuralist leadership approach does not affect teachers' emotional intelligence.

Research results in the literature also show that structural leadership style emphasizes managerial effectiveness. Bolman and Deal (1991a) examined the relationships between effective leadership and leadership with the quadratic leadership framework and observed that managers were separated as good managers and good leaders. Quadratic leadership frameworks can predict effectiveness as managers and leaders, but they present different managerial effectiveness structures and effective leadership. Bolman and Deal (1991a)
concluded that the structural framework is the best predictor of managerial effectiveness, while it is the worst framework for predicting leadership effectiveness. Sasnett and Ross (2007) found that structural leadership is the best way of predicting the perception of managerial effectiveness in their research on health information management program managers.

Another type of leadership that has been investigated for its influence on teachers’ emotional intelligence is leading towards the human resource. The constructed structural equation model was confirmed by analysis. School principals’ leadership behaviors towards human resources positively affect teachers’ emotional intelligence directly and indirectly through social intelligence. Human resource leadership assumes that the organization can only achieve its goals through people. The human resource framework focuses on commitment and participation and creating resources, allocating time, and training to help employees develop their skills. Therefore, interpersonal relationships, satisfying individual needs, understanding, and influencing emotions are the main tools of the leadership approach towards human resources (Bolman & Deal 1991a; 1991b). In this context, it can be said that leadership towards human resources attaches importance to the competence aimed at satisfying the needs of employees and organizational effectiveness. Such a balance necessitates the use of leadership functions, perhaps more, as well as managerial functions.

The results of the research revealed that the human resource leadership style gives importance to leadership functions. Bolman and Deal (1991a) concluded that human resource and political frameworks could predict effective leadership. Sasnett and Ross (2007) found that effective leadership perception is related to all leadership frameworks. Within the perception of effective leadership, there is a human resource framework that is not in the perception of effective management. Joo (2014) showed a positive and significant relationship between the human resource frame and the “evaluation” dimension of organizational climate in his study, examining the relationships among four leadership frameworks, effective leadership, and organizational climate. Acar (2002) and İşliel (2013) found a positive relationship between managers’ emotional intelligence and human resource leadership behaviors. Still, they did not observe a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and task-oriented leadership behavior.

It is expected that an approach that adopts the human resource leadership style rather than managerial functions should be effective on teachers' social and emotional intelligence. A school principal using human resources can facilitate teachers' emotional learning through
the climate created by their discourse and actions. One of the important obstacles in the development of emotional intelligence is motivational factors. This may make emotional learning more difficult than cognitive learning. Emotional learning generally focuses more on personality traits in thinking and action. When a person is told, “you should learn a new computer program,” he/she feels less sadness and self-defense than “you have to learn to relax or become a better listener.” Therefore, there is a greater tendency to resist change in emotional learning (Cherniss, Goleman, Emmerling, Cowan & Adler 1998). Leadership towards human resources can facilitate the breaking of this resistance. The leader can remove the obstacles to the development of emotional intelligence with his/her relationships and behaviors.

The third model of the research is aimed at revealing the effect of the political leadership style on teachers' emotional intelligence. By testing the model, it was concluded that the political leadership style directly impacts emotional intelligence and an indirect effect on social intelligence. School principals' political leadership positively affects teachers' emotional intelligence, both directly and indirectly, through social intelligence. When school principals exhibit their political leadership behaviors, they know that the school is a formal structure, but there are different informal groups within the school. The political leader recognizes the internal and external elements of these groups and develops good relations with them. The political leader knows what he/she wants and uses the relationships he/she has established when he/she needs to. He/she is careful in using his/her relationships and power and regards balances. He/she constantly tries to keep his/her bargaining power high (Bolman & Deal, 1991a; 1991b; 2015). The skills required for political leadership are vital for effective leadership. In this respect, Bolman and Deal (1991a) must find that political leadership is an important predictor of effective leadership.

According to Mintzberg (1984), organizations are political arenas, and leaders must have political competences to manage it. Ferris et al. (2005) deal with political abilities in four dimensions. The first is a social skill. This skill allows you to adapt to different social situations easily and to comprehend social interactions easily. The person successfully interprets the behavior of himself/herself and others. The second is the interpersonal effect. People with this ability are known in their environment as productive and pleasant people. The third skill is the ability to establish a relationship network. Those with this skill can easily relate to personal and organizational purposes and use them when necessary. The last skill is sincerity. People with this skill are known to their environment as honest, open, and
sincere. For political leaders, the skills described by Ferris et al. (2005) make it possible to analyze the social context that makes social intelligence necessary and to understand and use the emotions that make emotional intelligence necessary. In other words, emotional intelligence overlaps with political skills as it includes interpersonal behavior (Ferris, Treadway, Perrewé, Brouer, Douglas & Lux, 2007). Research findings also support the positive relationship between emotional intelligence and political leadership (Ferris et al., 2005; Ferris et al., 2007). Political leadership behaviors can only be achieved by using the emotional information obtained in processes within the organization. School principals who can use emotional knowledge effectively while displaying political leadership behaviors can affect teachers' social and emotional intelligence. It can also create the organizational climate necessary for the development of emotional intelligence. This may contribute to the development of the facilitating environment mentioned by Cherniss et al. (1998) and, thus, the development of teachers' emotional intelligence.

In this research, symbolic leadership is the last style of leadership that impacts emotional intelligence. The principals' symbolic leadership in schools positively affects teachers' emotional intelligence, both directly and indirectly, through social intelligence. The symbolic framework sees the world as a place of uncertainty. People and institutions are in search of meaning in this world. The symbolic leader is aware that employees are looking for meaning. The leader has found ways to meet this need in employees by giving them something to believe in. Using the symbolic framework, the leader tries to create organizations with a unique culture by using the values and visions of the organization's history. Such an organization and culture shape human behaviors unconsciously, creating shared emotions, tasks, and belonging. This makes it easier for both the organization to achieve its goals and connect employees to the organization (Bolman & Deal, 1991a; 1991b; 2015).

Palmer (2003) argues that emotions are not only what we feel, but they are also a source of information. For this reason, emotions are spread just like information is spread and infectious. According to Moore (2007), each employee's emotions within the organization can affect the organization in general. In particular, the mood and behavior of leaders direct everyone's mood and behavior. A leader who uses emotional knowledge well can shape the short-term climate and long-term culture of the organization. The findings of the research confirm the effect of symbolic leadership on organizational climate and culture. Bolman and Deal (1991a) found that the symbolic framework predicts managerial
effectiveness the most, while leadership is the best predictor of effectiveness. Joo (2014) found that the symbolic framework is an important predictor of the “intimacy” dimension of the organizational climate. Lewis (2000) observed in a laboratory study that the leader's negative emotional tone affects the emotional state of the participants. The negative emotional indicator has a negative effect on the participants' assessment of the leader's effectiveness compared to a neutral emotional indicator.

Symbolic leadership is directed towards the creation of organizational culture. According to Robbins and Judge (2014), an organizational culture develops in three ways. First, leaders only hire employees who feel and think like themselves and keep them in the organization. In the second, leaders direct employees in line with their ideas and feelings and socialize them as they wish. In the third, leaders encourage employees to create a culture with themselves. When culture is created in this way, the creation stage's feelings and thoughts become embedded in the culture. As Robbins and Judge (2014) explain, it can be said that social intelligence and emotional intelligence are key to effective representation of symbolic leadership. Effective use of the symbolic framework requires the leader to be able to use social and emotional skills. School principals who can successfully exhibit symbolic leadership behaviors can influence teachers' emotional intelligence with the climate and culture they create.

Today individuals have more information and access to this information than ever before in human history, but it cannot be said that this point facilitates human beings’ search for meaning. People also face much misleading and conditioning information. Especially with the widespread use of the internet, attempts to direct the masses have even affected the people's political preferences. Based on this fact, Oxford Dictionaries (2016) chose the word “post-truth” as the year's word. "Post-truth" is an adjective which means relating to or denoting circumstances in which objective facts are less influential in shaping public opinion than appeals to emotion and personal belief. These chaotic environments and directing can cause institutions and values to wear out rapidly. In this context, it can be said that symbolic leadership skills are more important than ever. School principals can develop teachers' emotional intelligence using their symbolic leadership skills. Under the guidance of the school principals' symbolic leadership, schools can create a meaningful organizational culture for everyone.
Conclusions

In his long-standing aphorism, Andy Warhol said, “One day, everyone will be famous for fifteen minutes.” This is possible in the social media conditions of our time. Although this saying is said for people, it can be said that this is the case for notions to today. As in all aspects of life, it is possible to see that almost every day, new notions are derived related to education, and it is promised that these concepts will solve almost all problems. In this process, which can be defined as shiny objects syndrome, it is also possible to see that glowing concepts go out simultaneously (Boudreau & Rice, 2015). With this aspect, although the concept of emotional intelligence seems to shine suddenly, it does not seem to diminish at the same rate due to the scientific proofs of its potential and the fact that it can fit into a larger theoretical framework. The results of the study reveal that emotional intelligence is influenced by social intelligence and leadership styles and, thus, can be improved. In this context, some suggestions have been made.

It was concluded that human resource, political, and symbolic leadership styles increased teachers' emotional intelligence. For this reason, when choosing school principals, leadership functions should be considered as much as management functions. It should be ensured that people with leadership characteristics are appointed as school heads. Additionally, training programs should be organized to improve the leadership skills of the present school principals.

In this study, the effects of school principals' leadership styles and social intelligence on teachers' emotional intelligence were examined. The effect of other variables on emotional intelligence can be examined.

The effect of emotional intelligence on other variables can be investigated by investigating that emotional intelligence is an independent variable rather than a dependent variable. Curricula for developing emotional intelligence can be arranged, and their effects can be examined.
References

Acar, F. (2002). Duygusal zekâ ve liderlik. Erciyes Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 12(1), 53–68.

Ashforth, B.E., & Humphrey, R.H. (1993). Emotional labor in service roles: The influence of identity. Academy of Management Review, 18(1), 88-115.

Atabek, E. (2000). Bizim duygusal zekâmız. İstanbul: Altun Kitaplar Yaymevi.

Bar-On, R. (1997). The emotional quotient inventory (EQ-i): Technical manual. Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems, Inc.

Bayram, N. (2016). Yapısal eşitlik modelemesine giriş: Amos uygulamaları. Bursa: Ezgi Kitabevi.

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). Leaders: Strategies for taking charge. New York: Harperand Row.

Bolman, L., & Deal, T. E. (1991a). Images of leadership. Nashville, TN: National Center for Educational Leadership.

Bolman, L., & Deal, T. E. (1991b). Leadership and management effectiveness: A multi-frame, multi-sector analysis. Human Resource Management, 30(4), 509-534.

Bolman, L., & Deal, T. E. (2015). Think—or sink leading in a vuca world. Leader to Leader, 2015(76), 35-40.

Boudreaux, J.W., & Rice, S. (2015). Bright, shiny objects, and the future of HR. Harvard Business Review, July–August 2015, 72-78.

Boyatzis, R. E., Good, D., & Massa, R. (2012). Emotional, social, and cognitive intelligence and personality as predictors of sales leadership performance. Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 19(2), 191–201.

Byrne, B. M. (2010). Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming (2nd ed.). New York: Taylor and Francis Group.

Cherniss, C., Goleman, D., Emmerling, R., Cowan, K., & Adler, M. (1998). Bringing emotional intelligence to the workplace a technical report issued by the consortium for research on emotional intelligence in organizations. New Jersey: The Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations.
Çokluk, Ö., Şekercioğlu, G., & Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2014). Sosyal bilimler için çok değişkenli istatistik spss ve lisrel uygulamaları. Ankara: Pegem Yayncılık.

Damasio, A. R. (1994). Descartes’ error. New York: Putnam.

Dereli, M. (2003). A survey research of leadership styles of elementary school principals. Unpublished master dissertation, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Dogan, T., & Cetin, B. (2009). Tromso sosyal zekâ ölçüyü Türkçe formunun faktör yapısı, geçerlilik ve güvenirlik çalışması. Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Bilimleri, 9 (2), 691-720.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies. New York: Oxford University Press.

Ferris, G.R., Treadway, D.C., Kolodinsky, R.W., Hochwarter, W.A., Kacmar, C.J., Douglas, C., & Frink, D.D. (2005). Development and validation of the political skill inventory. Journal of Management, 31, 126-152.

Ferris, G.R., Treadway, D.C., Perrewé, P.L., Brouer, R.L., Douglas, C., & Lux, S. (2007). Political skill in organizations. Journal of Management, 33(3), 290-320.

George, D. & Mallery, M. (2010). SPSS for windows step by step: A simple guide and reference, 17.0 update. Boston: Pearson

Gladwell, M. (2008). Outliers the story of success. London: Little, Brown, and Company.

Goleman, D. (1997). Emotional intelligence why it can matter more than? New York: Bantam Books.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2002). The emotional reality of teams. Journal of Organizational Excellence, 2002(spring), 55-65.

Guilford, J.P. (1967). The nature of intelligence. New York: McGraw-Hil.

Iacobucci, D. (2010). Structural equation modeling: Fit indices, sample size, and advanced topics. Journal of Consumer Psychology, 20(1), 90-98.

İşliel, K. (2013). Duygusal zekâ ve liderlik. Unpublished master dissertation, University of Dokuz Eylül, İzmir.

Jackson, DL., Gillaspy, J.A., & Stephenson, R., P. (2009). Reporting practices in confirmatory factor analysis: An overview and some recommendations. Psychological Methods, 14 (1), 6–23.
Joo, M.T.H. (2014). *The influence of multi-frame leadership style on organizational climate in a private university in Malaysia: a case study* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). Kuala Lumpur: University of Malaya.

Karagöz, Y. (2016). *Spss ve amos23 uygulamalı istatistiksel analizler*. Ankara: Nobel Yayınları.

Kihlstrom, J.F., & Cantor, N. (2011). Handbook of intelligence. In R.J. Sternberg, & Kaufman S.B. (Eds.), *Social intelligence* (pp.564-581). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kline, R.B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. New York: Guilford Press.

Kosmitzki, C., & John, O.P. (1993). The implicit use of explicit conceptions of social intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences, 15*(1), 11-23.

Kotter, J. P. (1990). *A force for change: How leadership differs from management*. New York, Free Press.

Lewis, K. M. (2000). When leaders display emotion: How followers respond to negative emotional expressions of male and female leaders. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*, 221-234.

Lopes, P. N., Salovey, P., & Straus, R. (2003). Emotional intelligence, personality, and the perceived quality of social relationships. *Personality and Individual Differences, 35* (2003) 641–658.

Mayer, J.D., Caruso, D.R., & Salovey, P. (2000). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for intelligence. *Intelligence, 27*(4), 267-298.

Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D.R. (2004). Emotional intelligence: Theory, findings, and implications. *Psychological Inquiry, 15*(3), 197-215.

Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D.R. (2008). Emotional intelligence new ability or eclectic traits? *American Psychologist, 63*(6), 503–517.

Mintzberg, H. (1984). Power and organization life cycles. *The Academy of Management Review, 9*(2), 207-224.
Moore, B. (2007). *The emotional intelligence coaching of school administrators: A comparative case study*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Ashland University, Ohio.

Moss, F.A., & Hunt, T. (1927). *Are you socially intelligent?* *Scientific American*, 137(2), 108-110.

Mulaik, S.A., James, L.R., Alstine, J.A, Bennet, N., Lind, S., & Stilwell, C.D. (1989). Evaluation of goodness-of-fit indices for structural equation models. *Psychological Bulletin, 105*(3), 430-445.

Palmer, B. (2003). *An analysis of the relationships between various models and measures of emotional intelligence*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Swinburne University, Victoria.

Oxford Dictionaries (2016). Retrieved from a website https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/word-of-the-year/word-of-the-year-2016, on 29 June 2019.

Pekaar, K. A., Bakker, A.B., Linden, D., & Born, M. (2017). Self- and other-focused emotional intelligence: development and validation of the Rotterdam emotional intelligence scale (REIS). *Personality and Individual Differences, 120* (2018), 222-233.

Robbins, S.P., & Judge, T.A. (2014). *Organizational behavior*. New Jersey: Pearson Education

Sasnett, B. & Ross, T. (2007). Leadership frames and perceptions of effectiveness among health information management program directors. *Perspectives in Health Information Management, 4*(8), 1-15.

Seçer, I. (2017). *Spss ve lisrel ile pratik veri analizi analiz ve raporlaştırma*. Ankara: Anı Yayınıcılık.

Silvera, D.H., Martinussen, M., & Dahl, T.I. (2001). The Tromso Social Intelligence Scale a self-report measure of social intelligence. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 42*, 313-319.

Tabachnick, B., & Fidell, L. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics*. Boston: Pearson.

Tanrıoğlu, A., & Türker, Y. (2019). Rotterdam Duygusal Zeka Ölçeği’nin Türkçeye uyarlanması. *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 47*, 348-369.
Thorndike, E.L. (1920). Intelligence and its uses. Harper’s Magazine, 140, 227-235.

Vernon, P.E., (1933). Some characteristics of the good judge of personality. Journal of Social Psychology, 4(1), 42-57.

WEF. (, 2018). The future of jobs report 2018. Davos: World Economic Forum