Leading with Emotions: An Empirical Study of A Tertiary Institution in Ghana

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the relationship between effective leadership and emotional intelligence. It also assesses the relations of some demographic variables like age, gender and education level with the study variables. A cross-sectional design was used with standardized questionnaires to collect data. The study was based on 208 departmental heads in the University of Ghana selected using purposive sampling techniques. The study found that emotional intelligence correlated positively and significantly with leadership effectiveness. Additionally, demographic variables like age and gender were significantly related with one's leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence but educational qualifications were not. Furthermore, older heads of departments were found to be more emotionally intelligent than their younger counterparts but the emotional intelligence between male and female heads of departments did not differ. The study adds to the body of knowledge that being highly emotionally intelligent contributes to leadership effectiveness particularly in a Ghanaian tertiary institution.

JEL Classifications: 123, M12

Keywords: emotional intelligence; leadership; leadership effectiveness; university; Ghana

I.   INTRODUCTION

Leadership is ranked in literature as one of the most debated topics in the organizational sciences (George, 2000; Coetzee and Schaap, 2004) but in recent times, emotional intelligence (EI) has emerged in literature as a notable social effectiveness construct and forms a foundation for leadership effectiveness (Brown, 2014; Prati *et al.,* 2003; Sadri, 2012). The emergence of emotional intelligence in the leadership literature has stirred growing interests among researchers and human resource practitioners. The leadership process is incomplete without emotions (George, 2000). Ashforth and Humphery (1995) opined that emotion could not be excluded from the work setting so long as humans are involved. At first, the role emotions played in the leadership process at the workplace was not explicitly considered because it was viewed as competing and conflicting with rationality and decision making (Albrow, 1992 as cited in George, 2000) but presently, it has been proven to account for 85% of success for effective workers (Brown, 2014; Preston *et al*, 2015; Sadri, 2012).

Emotional intelligence is among some of the key factors that influence the effectiveness of organizations (Coetzee and Schaap, 2004). Studies show that emotional intelligence aids in areas such as decision-making, motivation, interpersonal relationships, and teamwork (Coetzee and Schaap, 2004). The job market requires this competence apart from intellectual and academic intelligence among prospective workers and managers. It becomes even more crucial for department heads as it helps to rightly appraise and judge stressful and unfavorable situations and deal positively with issues in academic settings (Salovey and Grewal, 2005; Sy, Tram, and O'Hara, 2006). Emotional intelligence serves as a powerful resource in business leadership. In order to achieve effectiveness in the work place, emotional intelligence is said to constitute about 85% while intelligent quotient (IQ) forms only 15% (Brown, 2014; Sadri, 2012). Brown (2014) alongside George (2000) and Preston *et al.* (2015) have argued that emotional intelligence is a key factor that determines one's ability to be socially effective and is deemed a strong determinant of effective leadership. Emotionally intelligent individuals, especially leaders, are capable of promoting effectiveness at every level of the organization and this is because they are able to read and understand people in their contexts (Prati *et al.,* 2003). In addition, leaders with high emotional intelligence have been shown to demonstrate the ability to perceive differences in emotional reactions to capitalize on them judiciously to influence others (Prati *et al.*, 2003). Such individuals communicate effectively and show empathy. This makes emotional intelligence a critical competence to acquire for effective leadership and performance in organizations. Questions have been raised in the literature about why intelligent and experienced leaders sometimes fail in managing, coping and adapting to the changing environmental demands of their organizations and businesses (Kets de Vries, 1993; Higgs, 2003; Higgs and Rowland, 2000). This perhaps means that leaders do not only need cognitive intelligence but also emotional intelligence to be effective.

A.   Rationale of the Study

Emotional intelligence has gained much popularity in literature as a potential underlying attribute of effective leadership (Preston *et al.,* 2015; Sosik and Megerian, 1999). The emotional intelligence of a leader and for that matter a department head plays an

important role in effective social interactions with people (House and Aditya, 1997; Mayer *et al*., 2000). In leading people, the effective approach of dealing with people's emotions contributes to effective handling of their needs (Goleman, 1998). To be effective in leadership in the modern organizational setting requires understanding of emotions and its associative abilities (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997; Goleman, 1998; Preston *et al.,* 2015; Ryback, 1998; Sadri, 2012). This necessitates the need to investigate the relationship between these variables in the study.

Despite the growing interests in relating EI and leadership, not much is known about EI and effective leadership; hence, this study seeks to investigate the extent to which emotional intelligence (EI) accounts for effective leadership. Knowledge regarding how the two variables are related can bring about significant development in leadership training and development programs, and would have implications for selection of individuals into various leadership roles. In addition, a considerable number of researches on emotional intelligence and performance outcomes were conducted in laboratory conditions, using student sample populations with very small samples (Lopes *et al*., 2004). In many other studies, the subscales of both leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence were employed but a holistic approach has not been adopted yet. The current study also seeks to assess the relationships of emotional intelligence with some demographic variables.

II.   LITERATURE REVIEW

A.   Leadership and Leadership Effectiveness

Achieving progress in any organization is based on raising genuine leaders and scrutinizing their activities (Boateng, 2012). Leadership is a state of mind that is geared towards capitalizing on employees' actions in order to obtain organizational goals. Leadership and leadership effectiveness are said to be important factors for organizational success or failure (Bass, 1990; Preston *et al.,* 2015; Sadri, 2012; Yukl, 1998). Scholars have labeled this construct (leadership) as dynamic and a hard nut to crack.

In contemporary organizations, new demands are being placed on leadership training programs to develop skills such as emotional intelligence in prospective leaders (Anand, 2010; Fulmer, 1997; Sadri, 2012). As a result, researchers have keen interest in exploring the underlying attributes and behaviors of leaders who perform their leadership roles successfully (Anand, 2010; Church and Waclawski, 1998; Pratch and Jacobowitz, 1998; Ross and Offerman, 1997; Sternberg, 1997). A good and effective leader creates a thriving environment for followers or subordinates to contribute positively to success in the organization. Many theories have been developed to break down the complex construct of leadership (Dartey-Baah, 2015). There are two main leadership styles (transformational and transactional), which are normally adopted in the Ghanaian context to assess leadership (Boateng, 2012).

The transformational leadership style involves a complex approach of raising leaders and followers in motivation and values (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1994). Transformational leadership style is considered as more complex compared to transactional leadership (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1994; Burns, 1978). This style of leadership transforms leaders into agents of change (Avolio, 1994; Leithwood, 1994),

and inspires vision in followers, encourages them to act and bring novel ideas on board (Kouzes and Posner, 1989). Kouzes and Posner (1989) conducted research on some leaders who were considered as geniuses to find out how these leaders got things done. The results for the study showed five main practices engaged in by such leaders. These included challenging the process, inspired shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way and encouraging the heart. Similarly, Bass (1985) proposed that transformational leadership was characterized by four main factors. These factors included charisma (idealized influence), which pertains to followers' respect and trust for the visionary leader. The second factor is inspirational motivation, which involves using symbols or emotional appeals to obtain support for the vision. The third factor is intellectual stimulation, which deals with encouraging followers to think about problems in novel ways. The last factor is individualized consideration, which connotes the personal concern expressed by the leader for the follower.

The transactional leadership style is mainly based on negotiation, exchange and contractual terms (Bass, 1985; Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999). With this type of leadership style, followers and leaders do not really view organizational objectives alike (Bass, 1985; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978; Deluga, 1988). These leaders used mainly the reward and punishment aspects of contractual leadership in dealing with their followers. According to Bass and Avolio (2000), this type of leadership style has three dimensions: contingent reward, management by exception-active and management by exception-passive. Leaders who subscribe to the contingent reward approach clarify their goals and expectations as well as the rewards to be received if followers meet the expectations of the leader. With regard to management-by-exception-active, leaders attend closely to followers' mistakes and failures to meet standards but with management-by-exception-passive, leaders normally wait until problems become severe before intervening (Bass and Avolio, 1994 and 2004).

B.   Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is defined as a set of competencies that describes the effective handling of one's emotions and that of others (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Dartey-Baah, and Mekpor, 2017). Goleman (1998) asserts that the ability of leaders to effectively handle their emotions and that of their workers promote work performance, motivate employees and create a good sense of attachment to the organization. Accordingly, understanding people's emotions is in part vital for effective leadership (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997; Goleman, 1998; Ryback, 1998). The major requirements to being an effective leader has increased demands for leadership training programs to identify potential leaders from pools of candidates (Fulmer, 1997; Preston *et al.,* 2015 and Sadri, 2012).

C.   Emotional Intelligence and Effective Leadership

In today's business world, leadership roles are more service oriented and are designed towards motivating, promoting positive attitudes among workers and inspiring them (Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan, 1994); unlike in the past where leaders were seen as mainly planners and controllers of organization activities. Research works that focus on emotional intelligence and effective leadership is gaining grounds in industrial, organizational, and human resource management (Anand, 2010; George, 2000; Palmer,

Walls, Burgess, and Stough, 2001; Sadri, 2012). Emotional intelligence as a construct has also turned out to be a popular means of identifying prospective and effective leaders (Palmer *et al.*, 2001; Wong, Wong, and Peng, 2010; Dartey-Baah, and Mekpor, 2017). It is being used as a tool for developing effective leadership skills. There is, however, little research to buttress these claims in the education setting especially among heads of departments (Sosik and Megerian, 1999; Palmer *et al.*, 2001; Wong, Wong, and Peng, 2010). Moreover, Goleman (1998) asserts that interpersonal skills have become integral in effective leadership.

Emotionally intelligent people are found to be happier and emotionally stable (Abraham, 2000), which makes them achieve greater success (Miller, 1999) and work better at the workplace (Goleman, 1998; Watkin, 2000; Wong, Wong, and Peng, 2010; Mekpor, and Dartey-Baah, 2020). Such individuals use their emotions to improve organizational functioning. Meyer *et al*. (2000) for instance hypothesized a positive relationship between employees' EI and smooth work group interactions and found the relationship to be true. Studies by Salovey *et al*. (1999) found that individuals who highly rated their ability to perceive, understand and appraise people's emotions responded better and were flexible when they encountered change in their environments. Such individuals were found to build supportive networks. In addition, Meyer *et al*. (2000b) hypothesized that a high level of EI might enable a leader to better monitor how work group members are feeling and take the appropriate action. This hypothesis was supported. A study also found that emotionally intelligent teachers were perceived as effective leaders (Wong, Wong, and Peng, 2010).

D.   Demographic Links with Leadership Effectiveness and Emotional Intelligence

Studies have shown age to be positively related to one's emotional intelligence, length of service and leadership practices (Anand, 2010; Kafetsios and Zampetakis, 2008). In a study by Anand (2010) for instance, 256 executives in South India were studied to assess their EI and possible leadership practices. The results showed that managers aged 45 years and above were more emotionally intelligent, had better interpersonal skills, problem-solving skills, and were more assertive than younger executives were. In addition, those who had higher educational qualifications and served eleven to twenty years and more were more emotionally intelligent in terms of managing their stress levels and that of others and having empathy than their counterparts were. In the same study, the difference observed for gender on emotional intelligence was not significant but women were observed to be more emotionally intelligent than men were. Similarly, several other studies have recorded females to be more emotionally intelligent than males (Quato *et al*., 2016; Curci, Lanciano, Soleti, Zammuner, and Salovey, 2013). Evidence on gender differences in leadership effectiveness is, however, mixed; some found no statistically significant gender differences (e.g., Mandell and Pherwani, 2003), while others found men to be perceived as more effective than women (e.g., Mason, 2017). Additionally, Alston, Dastoor, and Sosa Fey (2010) examined 147 managers to explore whether there was a positive relationship between EI and performance (effectiveness). They tested the effect of demographic variables such as age, gender, education, years of leadership experience on leaders' effectiveness performance. The results showed that the years of leadership experience was related to transformational leadership in that, greater years of supervisory experience was associated with how high the supervisor is rated on leadership performance (effectiveness).

E.   Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There will be a significant and positive relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and effective leadership of heads of departments.

Hypothesis 2a: Male heads of departments will have higher levels of emotional intelligence than their female counterparts.

Hypothesis 2b: Male heads of departments will be perceived as more effective leaders than their female counterparts.

Hypothesis 3a: Older heads of departments will have higher levels of emotional intelligence than younger heads of departments.

Hypothesis 3b: Older heads of departments will be more effective as leaders than younger heads of departments.

III.   METHODOLOGY

A.   Sampling and procedure

Purposive sampling technique was used in the selection of respondents. The purposive sampling technique was adopted because only selected heads of departments in the University of Ghana were needed for the study. Out of the accessible population of about 500 heads of departments, a sample size of 208 was estimated as appropriate using the mathematical equation developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) for sample size determination. However, a total number of 237 questionnaires were administered to respondents out of which 208 were successfully retrieved. Strict ethical considerations like privacy, confidentiality, informed consent and voluntary participation were adhered.

B.   Measures

The Kayworth and Leidner (2002) scale was used to assess effective leadership (α= .95). The questionnaire is on a 5-point Likert scale that ranges from 1 (poor) to 5 (excellent). An example is 'I provide continuous feedback to workers', 'engaging in prompt communication'. The emotional intelligence was also assessed using the Schutte self-report emotional intelligence test (α=.85) with higher scores indicating high emotional intelligence. Examples of items in the scale are 'I am aware of my emotions when I experience them'; 'I share my emotions with others'.

1.   Common method bias

The scales adopted to measure both effective leadership and emotional intelligence were self-reported scales, meaning that the heads of departments rated themselves on both effective leadership and emotional intelligence. A commonly held view by researchers (Campbell, 1982; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff and Todor, 1985) is that studies that involve self-reports of all measures tend to result in inflation of the relationships between the variables due to common method bias. As such, in order to deal with possible common method bias, the construct validity of the measures used in the current study were ensured; in that the measures have been widely used and cited in measuring

effective leadership and emotional intelligence, mostly producing good internal consistency reliability coefficients. Furthermore, steps were taken to ensure anonymity of the respondents to the latter to encourage objectivity. Additionally, the researchers ensured a time lag of one (1) month between the rating of effective leadership and that of emotional intelligence to reduce any possible common method bias.

2.   Analysis

The hypotheses were tested using partial correlation, independent samples t-tests, and one-way ANOVA. Partial correlation was deemed best to control for the influence of demographic variables while testing the relationship between the main variables of interest. The independent samples t-tests were used to analyze gender differences with regard to emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. The one-way ANOVA was used to obtain the between subject effect and know which group difference was significant. Preliminary tests for normality were conducted to be sure the data was evenly distributed and normal. The skewness and kurtosis values were within -1 and +1; indicating a normal distribution of scores (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

IV.   RESULTS AND FINDINGS

A.   Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis 1: There will be a significant and positive relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and effective leadership of heads of departments.

Table 1 shows the correlation results between emotional intelligence and effective leadership and the study variables. The result in Table 1, showed a positive significant association between emotional intelligence and effective leadership ($r = .47$, $p < .0001$). This suggests that heads of departments with higher levels of emotional intelligence were more likely to be considered as effective leaders. Emotional intelligence according to the results of the study is therefore an important prerequisite for work effectiveness.

Table 1
Correlation matrix between the variables of study

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
Control Variables			1	2	3	4	5
1.Age	3.63	1.05	-				
2.Gender	1.36	.48	.09	-			
3.Educational Qualification	3.25	.55	.51***	.02	-		
Study Variables							
4. Emotional Intelligence	126.12	12.94	-.16**	-.07	-.08	-	
5. Leadership effectiveness	88.45	13.48	-.24***	-.23***	-.13*	.47***	-

NOTE: **p< .001; ***p< .0001

Hypothesis2a: Male heads of departments will have higher levels of emotional intelligence than their female counterparts.

Hypothesis2b. Male heads of departments will be perceived as more effective leaders than their female counterparts.

Table 2
Summary of the means and standard deviations of male and female department heads on emotional intelligence and effective leadership

	Gender of respondent	Mean	SD	n	t	p
Total Emotional intelligence	Male	126.47	13.63	135	.89	.91
	Female	124.79	11.53	73		
Total Effective leadership	Male	90.47	15.01	135	3.16	.001
	Female	84.38	8.84	73		

From Table 2, though males scored slightly higher on emotional intelligence (*M* = 126.47, *SD* = 13.63, *n* =135) than their female counterparts (*M* = 124.79, *SD* = 11.53, *n* =73), the difference observed for the two independent samples was not significant at .05 level of significance (*t*= .89; *p*= .91) given the results for the independent sample test. The results imply that males were quite higher on emotional intelligence than females but the difference was not statistically significant. Hence, the difference observed for gender in terms of how emotionally intelligent they were was not significant indicating that emotional intelligence is not gender or sex based. It is a social intelligence that has to be consciously cultivated, learned and mustered for effectiveness in leadership. Therefore, the hypothesis *2a* that male heads of departments will be more emotionally intelligent than their female counterparts was not supported. With regard to hypothesis *2b* stating that male heads will be more effective leaders than female counterparts will, the difference observed from Table 2 was significant. Male heads scored significantly (*M* = 90.47, *SD* = 15.01, *n* =135) higher on effectiveness than female heads (*M* = 84.38, *SD* = 8.84, *n* =73) given (*t*= 3.16; *p*= .001). Thus, hypothesis 2b was supported.

Hypothesis 3a: Older heads of departments will have higher levels of emotional intelligence than younger heads of departments.

Hypothesis3b: Older heads of departments will be more effective as leaders than younger heads of departments.

Table 3 presents the means and standard deviations of emotional intelligence and effective leadership for hypotheses 3a and 3b. A One-way between groups analysis of variance was performed to test hypothesis 3a. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 3

Summary of means and standard deviations of age difference on emotional intelligence and effective leadership

Age		Emotional Intelligence	Effective Leadership
31-40	Mean	125.63	86.66
	SD	12.40	13.21
41-50	Mean	126.70	87.11
	SD	12.22	12.52
51-60	Mean	116.97	81.89
	SD	11.07	7.16
Over 61	Mean	142.67	99.83
	SD	3.27	.41

Table 4

Summary of one-way ANOVA table for between and within age group differences for emotional intelligence

	SS	Df	MS	F	p
Between groups	5,507.30	4	1,376.82	9.62	.000
Within groups	28,896.67	202	143.05		
Total	34,403.98	206			

From Table 3, with respect to emotional intelligence, those within the age range (41-50) scored slightly higher ($M = 126.70$, $SD = 12.22$) compared to those within 51and 60. Heads of departments who were over 61 scored highest on emotional intelligence ($M = 142.67$, $SD = 3.27$). The difference observed for the groups was statistically significant [$F (4, 202) = 9.62$, $p< 0.001$], as shown in Table 4. Thus, hypothesis 3a was accepted implying that older heads scored higher on emotional intelligence. Inferring from this result, it can be said that in dealing with sensitive issues, older heads may be preferred over younger heads. Nonetheless, as much as older people will be preferred for such sensitive roles as heads of departments, younger heads could also bring on board new ideas and innovations. A post hoc analysis was thus performed to show where the differences occur between the age groups. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Summary of table showing the multiple comparisons among age groups with significant mean differences

Dependent variable	Age of respondent (I)	Age of respondent (J)	Mean difference (I-J)	Std error	Sig
Emotional Intelligence	31-40	51-60	8.66	2.53	.00
		Over 61	-17.02	5.12	.00
	41-50	51-60	9.73	2.43	.00
		Over 61	-15.96	5.07	.01
	51-60	Over 61	-25.69	5.27	.00

Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for older heads over 61 years ($M = 142.67$, $SD = 3.27$) was significantly different from 51-60 group ($M = 116.97$, $SD = 11.07$), those within the age group of 41-50 ($M = 126.70$, $SD = 12.22$), as well as those between 31-40 ($M = 125.63$, $SD = 12.40$); showing that older heads (over 61) were more emotionally intelligent than those below 61 years. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was above .10 indicating a large effect size (Cohen, 1992). Interestingly, heads within the age group of 31-40 ($M=125.63$, $SD=12.40$) and the age group of 41-50 ($M = 126.70$, $SD = 12.22$) were found to be more effective than their older counterparts within the age group of 51-60 ($M=116.97$, $SD=11.07$) although the oldest age group (Above 61) was found to be most emotionally intelligent.

In order to test hypothesis 3b, another One-way between groups analysis of variance was performed. The result of this is presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Summary of One-way ANOVA table for between and within age group differences

	SS	*Df*	MS	*F*	*p*
Between groups	6,119.68	4	1,529.92	9.92	.000
Within groups	30,684.61	199	154.19		
Total	36,804.29	203			

Comparing leadership effectiveness among the age groups in Table 3 also showed that older heads (over 61) were more effective ($M = 99.83$, $SD = .41$) than those below that age group. The difference observed for the age groups was significant [$F (4, 199) = 9.92$, $p< .001$), as seen in Table 6. The results imply that older heads of departments were more effective than younger heads of departments. The significant difference observed could be due to the element of exposure and experience of these older heads that makes them more effective than younger ones. Therefore, the hypothesis 3b that older heads will be more effective was supported. Hence, a post hoc analysis was conducted to know which of the age groups differed and the effect size of the difference. The result of this analysis is presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Summary of table showing the multiple comparisons among age groups with significant mean differences

Dependent variable	Age of respondent (I)	Age of respondent (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std error	Sig
Effective Leadership	Over 61	51-60	17.94	5.47	. 01

Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the only statistically significant difference in mean scores was between the age group of over 61 ($M=99.83$, $SD =.41$) and those between 51-60 ($M=81.89$, $SD=7.16$) showing that older heads were more effective than those below 61 years. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was above .10 indicating a large effect size (Cohen, 1992).

V.   DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

A.   Discussion

The general aim of the study was to assess the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership and to examine the effects of some demographic variables on the study variables. The study findings showed a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership and this is in congruence with literature (Ashforth and Humphery, 1995; Coetzee and Schaap, 2004; George, 2000; Preston et al., 2015; Salovey and Grewal, 2005; Sy, Tram, and O'Hara, 2006). These authors found that the emotional intelligence and effective leadership of managers were positively related in that such managers had high affective commitment and less withdrawal behaviours to their organization. It is said that emotionally intelligent individuals are able to regulate activities in the organization in order to effectively attain organizational objectives (George, 2000; Salovey and Grewal, 2005). They are also able to appraise situations better hence can make better meaning of their working conditions even if it appears unfavourable. This in a way gives reasons for the positive relationship observed. However, other factors come into play for that relationship to be significant.

The study results also show that male and female heads of departments did not significantly differ on emotional intelligence. This corresponds to previous studies (e.g., Alston and Dastoor, 2010; Mandell and Pherwani, 2003) that found no significant gender difference in emotional intelligence among individuals in leadership. Though men scored better than women did on emotional intelligence, the difference observed was not statistically significant (Mandell and Pherwani, 2003). This could be attributed to the fact that in recent times, gender roles have changed drastically. Unlike in the past, women of today are currently involved in formal work and education. They are doing equally as good as men and are largely empowered in society and particularly the work setting. This can therefore account for the reason of no significant difference observed in the sexes in regards to emotional intelligence. Moreover, emotional intelligence is not biologically inherent in one's sex. It is a type of social intelligence that must be consciously learnt and acquired individually. Furthermore, the study also revealed that male heads of departments were more effective leaders than female heads of departments. This finding could be due to the context of this study. The academic field in Ghana is one that is dominated by men, and thus there may be a rather pervasive tendency for the males to feel superior to the females. Although gender perceptions have changed significantly over the years among Ghanaians, the country is, to a large extent, paternalistic and thus some of the male academics may still hold on to traditional cultural perceptions about gender and may downplay the effectiveness of a woman as a leader. This could possibly account for the difference observed.

The study findings also indicated that older heads above age 60 were more emotionally intelligent than their younger counterparts in their 30's, 40's and 50's. Similarly, the study revealed that the older heads above age 60 were more effective in leadership than their younger counterparts. Given the initial finding of a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership, it is not surprising that similar results were found between the age groups for both emotional intelligence and effective leadership. Drawing from the psychoanalytic theory of psychosocial development propounded by Erik Erikson in 1950 (McLeod, 2013),

justifications could be made for these findings. The last stage of the eight stages in this theory focuses on people over 60 years where a person tends to ponder over his/her accomplishments and failures, and integrity is developed if he/she feels successful and accomplished while despair develops if he/she perceives to have failed in his/her productive years. Thus, at this stage, one becomes more reflective and sober recounting all life's events, successes, mistakes and failures. The theory propounds that success in this stage leads to wisdom. People tend to allow a lot of room for people and give them the benefits of doubts for actions committed, and in the event of success, they develop a good sense of judgment for dealing with issues. This can explain why heads over 61 years were found to be more emotionally intelligent and more effective leaders than those younger than they can. In line with this, Alston and Dastoor (2010) also found that the age and years of experience of managers had positive effects on their performance (effectiveness). Contrary to this finding, the literature on age and leadership effectiveness seem to skew towards the assertion that younger leaders are more effective than older leaders with regard to task effectiveness (Simonton, 1984; Streufert, Pogash, Piasecki and Post, 1990; Vecchio and Anderson, 2009) and overall leader effectiveness (Doherty, 1997).

As iterated by Walter and Scheibe (2013), the process of ageing in itself has experienced changes over time, and thus empirical findings on age differences and leadership effectiveness may be difficult to generalize in contemporary times. Nonetheless, it is noted that most of the studies that found younger leaders to be more effective than older ones focused on managers and CEOs in organizations. Therefore, this study perhaps found that older leaders were more effective due to the academic context and the study's population, as age plays a major role in the progress on the academic ladder. The findings may also be because experience plays an important role in any field of endeavor. In other words, the practice of leadership and emotional intelligence is enhanced by lessons of failures and successes over time; thus, a leader that has practiced for long would experience situational challenges as well as unprecedented changes, and overcoming these challenges boosts his/her emotional intelligence, knowledge and effectiveness.

Although older heads were found to be more emotionally intelligent and more effective, there was variation in the levels of emotional intelligence of the younger heads, in that, those between the ages of 31-40 and 41-50 were found to be more emotionally intelligent than those between the ages of 51-60 despite the latter group being older than the former. In the same vein, heads between 31-40 and 41-50 were found to score higher on effective leadership than those between 51-60; however, the differences from the post hoc tests were not significant. Similar to this finding, Barbuto *et al.* (2007) found that younger and older leaders were perceived as more effective than middle-aged leaders. Inferring from Erikson's theory, the sixth stage focused on ages 18 to 40 where long-term relationships leading to commitment are explored and developed with people outside family relations while the seventh stage focused on ages 40 to 60 where people raise their children, build careers and become productive at work and in the community. Success in stage six leads to a virtue of love and failure leads to loneliness while success in stage seven leads to a virtue of care and failure leads to a feeling of unproductiveness and stagnation. Based on this theory, it can be said that perhaps the respondents for this study between 31-40 had generally achieved success in their stage leading to a virtue of love for others outside their families, thus enhancing their willingness and ability to

understand their emotions and that of others, making them more emotionally intelligent and invariably, more effective as leaders, considering the positive relationship between the two concepts. Furthermore, it can also be inferred from the theory that perhaps the heads within 41-50 had achieved success in stage seven leading to a virtue of care while those between 51-60 had generally failed in that stage leading to a feeling of stagnation. This would mean that the former age group had developed a sense of care for others thus enhancing their understanding of their emotions as well as those of others while the latter age group felt stagnant in their workplaces and communities hence reducing their ability to understand and care, especially for others' emotions. This could probably account for such differences in emotional intelligence and effective leadership between the age groups where those between 31-40 and 41-50 scored higher on both than those between 51-60.

To add to the above, the findings of the present study may be due to personal challenges such as the need for accomplishment and achievement in the face of imminent retirement, the difficulty in adapting quickly to changes in technology, among others, that saddles individuals nearing retirement age. In the academic field of endeavor, the need for self-actualization and to feel accomplished (Maslow, 1954) is greatly manifested and vigorously pursued. Thus, although those below 50 years may be less experienced, they may face lesser personal challenges that would threaten their effectiveness as leaders as may be the case of those above 50 years and nearing retirement age. Perhaps these reasons could account for this finding.

B.   Implication for Practice

Emotional intelligence is a key factor known to propel success in organizations and has been related strongly to leadership styles as well as leadership effectiveness in the literature. For success in any organization, emotionally intelligent individuals must be selected. This notwithstanding, the process for selecting emotionally intelligent individuals must be appropriate and thorough to boost work performance and produce positive organizational outcomes. Appointment of departmental heads must thus, take into very important consideration candidate's emotional intelligence. This is critical because successful candidates, irrespective of their gender, have to deal with other faculty members of diverse socio-economic, academic and cultural demographics, which requires tact, in order to create and maintain a functional and effective team.

Again, the findings provide Universities and academic institutions an interesting insight into how age and experience are central to faculty and departmental head appointment decisions. The findings reveal that older departmental heads showed higher levels of emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness than their younger counterparts did. It is thus important that such dynamics be given strong consideration in the appointment of heads of departments. Perhaps, older candidates by virtue of the experience they have acquired in dealing with a varying range of faculty and students are better placed to provide the kind of leadership that engenders productivity and effectiveness among colleagues in the administration of a departmental affairs. In essence, the gender of a candidate being considered for the position of head of department does not guarantee leadership effectiveness. Rather, more important variables like the age and experience of the candidate; their emotional intelligence, as well as the institutional memory (which is usually acquired through the experience of working in an

academic department or profession) which the candidate possesses must rank higher in the criteria for selection of faculty and departmental heads.

C.   Implication for Research

The issue of stress is a pertinent one when leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence in organizations are being discussed. For this study, workplace physical and emotional stress was not investigated in the variables. Workplace stress, with regard to how effective heads of departments lead for instance, can be researched to know its possible influence on emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. This variable could possibly moderate the relationship among the variables hence could be an interesting venture for future researchers to explore.

VI.   CONCLUSION

Emotional intelligence is an aspect of social intelligence that increases with a person's conscious efforts to understand his or her emotions and those of others interpret them correctly and use it judiciously. The study results have shown the important role emotional intelligence plays in facilitating leaders' effectiveness on the job. It is therefore imperative for heads of departments to be emotionally intelligent in order to ensure work effectiveness and performance in the departments. The findings revealed that older heads of departments exhibited more emotional intelligence than younger ones. Hence, it is prudent to engage older people with much experience to be heads of departments.

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