

Investigation of the Relationship between Leadership Orientations, Emotional Intelligence Levels and Decision Making Styles of Manager Candidates

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Abstract

This study aimed to investigate the correlation between leadership orientations, emotional intelligence levels of administrator candidates, and their decision-making styles. The research group consists of 909 university students, comprising 470 females and 439 males, who are enrolled in various departments of State Universities in Ankara during the 2020-2021 academic year. The study utilized the following data collection tools: The "Multidimensional Leadership Orientations Scale (MLOS)" was created by Dursun, Günay, and Yenel (2019) to assess the leadership orientations of participants. To measure emotional intelligence levels, the "Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Short Form (TEIQue-SF)" developed by Petrides and Furnham (2000, 2001) was adapted to Turkish by Deniz, Özer, and Işık (2013). Additionally, decision-making styles were measured using the approach developed by Mann et al. The Melbourne Decision Making Questionnaire (MDMQ), originally developed by (1998), was utilized and later adapted into Turkish by Deniz (2004). When analyzing the data, we employed descriptive statistics as well as advanced statistical techniques such as Independent-Samples T-Test, One-Way Multivariate Analysis of Variance, Pearson Moments Multiplication Correlation, Simple Linear Regression, and Multiple Linear Regression analysis. The analysis revealed a notable disparity between the scores obtained from the leadership orientations and emotional intelligence scale and the variable of engaging in licensed sports. Ultimately, it was concluded that the leadership orientations and emotional intelligence levels of managers impact their decision-making styles.

Keywords: Administrator candidate, leadership orientation, emotional intelligence, decision making styles

1. INTRODUCTION

Humans identify with the group they belong to from the time of birth and continue to live sociably thereafter. Certain needs can be satisfied by individuals during this process on their own, while other needs can only be satisfied in a group environment. In order to attain the goals and objectives that cannot be achieved individually, this group needs a leader—someone who can motivate, unite individuals, and foster cooperation (Dursun et al., 2019). Although the concept of leadership has remained a mystery from the past to the present in terms of its nature and characteristics, it has become a subject of scientific research only after 1930. Until 1974, approximately 3 thousand scientific studies were conducted on general leadership, while this number was estimated to be around 5 thousand in 1981 (Ferik, 2001). Today, being a leader is not an inborn talent or gift; rather it is a skill that can be learnt, developed and acquired. Every person, including managers, has the capacity to be a leader in this situation. It is very important to realise your potential and use it well. Therefore, in order to be successful, managers need to develop their leadership skills (Peker & Aytürk, 2002). Every manager has one or more leadership styles. Leadership plays a critical role for the progress of an organisation. An important aspect of leadership involves decision making. Due to the demands of the competitive market and the unpredictability of the future, making judgements has become much more challenging for managers (Yüksekbilgili & Küçüközkan, 2017).

Decision making is the heart of management. Therefore, the concepts of management and decision-making cannot be separated from each other. Decision making is a guiding guide, style and an important selection function that can be studied. The important issue in this management function is the choices such as which objectives to prioritise, how to use complex and constantly changing resources over time, how to ensure developments and by whom the decisions taken will be managed. Decision-making, which is one of the main functions of the manager, is very important in terms of the conditions under which the decision is made, the way it is made and the total time it is made (Bostan & Durmuş, 2016).

Managers have to control their emotions when making decisions. Otherwise, they will lose the ability to persuade because they cannot control their emotions. Managers who feel happy can make more creative and rational decisions (Goleman, 2000). Almost all of leadership consists of emotional intelligence. While emotional intelligence used to be characterised as an important feature for leadership, today it has become a sine qua non for leadership. It has been stated that one of the basic conditions of being a good manager or leader and making the right decision is to have emotional intelligence and emotional intelligence and logic should be used together when making decisions. In addition, they say that it is not right for a leader to make only emotional or only logical decisions in the decision-making process. If a leader cannot control his/her emotions while making a decision, he/she will lose his/her persuasiveness (Goleman, 1996). The most powerful decision-making sources of individuals are undoubtedly their emotions. Therefore, in the decision-making process, emotions are at the basis of the decisions an individual makes about himself/herself or someone else, his/her social and physical environment. Moreover, emotions can affect decision-making styles in terms of being the basis of individual desires, values, self-control and motivational needs (Pfeiffer, 2001). Leaders with emotional intelligence create a creative environment by displaying a more constructive and pro-agreement attitude by controlling the emotions of people with different opinions through their skills. These leaders solve the cognitive processes underlying opportunity identification or problem definition by using their emotional intelligence and endeavour to ensure that employees are confident, broad-minded and have a positive spirit. Leaders with high emotional intelligence manage to include both positive and negative people in their creative ideas with good timing and work (George- Zhou, 2002).

In line with this information, leadership orientations and emotional intelligence levels and the effect of these characteristics on decision-making styles are important for students studying in departments that can be managers in both public and private sectors after graduating from university. In this context, the purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between leadership orientations, emotional intelligence levels and decision-making styles of prospective managers.

2. MATERIAL & METHOD

Study Design

In this study, it was aimed to reveal the relationship between leadership orientations, emotional intelligence levels and decision-making styles of prospective managers. Relational screening model was used in the study. "Relational survey models are research models that aim to determine the existence and/or degree of change between two or more variables together" (Büyüköztürk, Akgün, Demirel, Karadeniz & Çakmak, 2015; Creswell, 2012).

Study Group

The study group consists of 909 university students studying in different departments of Gazi University, Ankara University, Hacettepe University, Yıldırım Beyazıt University, Middle East Technical University and Hacı Bayram Veli University, which are among the State Universities in Ankara in the 2020-2021 academic year.

Study Ethics

The ethics of this study was approved by the Gazi University Ethics Commission on 16.10.2019 and decision number 10.

Data Collection Instruments

In order to collect the study data, firstly, an application was made to Gazi University Ethics Commission and necessary permissions were obtained. After receiving the letter of approval from the ethics commission, the data collection process was started.

Personal Information Form

The personal information form consists of questions related to the independent variables that are the subject of the study in order to collect information about the participants.

Multidimensional Leadership Orientations Scale (MLOS)

Multidimensional Leadership Orientations Scale developed by Dursun, Günay, and Yenel (2019) consists of a total of 4 dimensions and 19 items, including "Political Leadership" (5 items), "Human Resource Leadership" (5 items), "Charismatic Leadership" (5 items), and "Structural Leadership" (4 items). The scale is graded on a 5-point Likert scale from "Totally Agree" (5) to "Totally Disagree" (1). The internal consistency coefficient for the reliability of the scale was determined as .80 for "Political Leadership", .73 for "Human Resource Leadership", .74 for "Charismatic Leadership" and .72 for "Structural Leadership". The internal consistency coefficient for the whole scale is .85 (Dursun, Günay & Yenel, 2019).

Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire–Short Form (TEIQue-SF)

Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire–Short Form (TEIQue-SF) was developed by Petrides and Furnham (2000) and adapted in Turkish by Deniz et al. (2013). "TEIQue-SF has 20 items and four factors such as well-being, selfcontrol, emotionality and sociability. Exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis were performed for the adaptation process. For exploratory

factor analysis, rotated component matrix was examined, and 10 items were loaded on two or more factors, therefore these ten items were eliminated from the scale. At the end, the TEIQue-SF which has originally 30 items, has 20 items. Total variance explained following factors, well-being 27%, self-control 10%, emotionality 8%, sociability 7%, and the total was %53. To test whether this new model fit the structure of the scale, confirmatory factor analysis was performed, and the fit indices were found as $\chi^2/df= 2.46$, GFI=.95, AGFI=.92, CFI=.91, RMSEA=.056 and SRMR=.060. Findings showed that TEIQue -SF fit the data well. Reliability of internal consistency was calculated by Cronbach alpha coefficient. According to reliability values for factors were between .66 and .72 and for total scale .81" (Deniz, Özer & Işık, 2013).

Melbourne Decision-Making Questionnaire (MDMQ)

"The Melbourne Decision Making Questionnaire was prepared by Mann et al. (1997), based on the Flinders Decision-Making Questionnaire. The first part of the questionnaire aims to identify self-esteem in the decision-making process. Cronbach's alpha value was found to be .74. The second part is composed of vigilance, buck-passing, procrastination, and hyper-vigilance sub-scales. In the sample collected from six countries, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were found to be 0.80, 0.87, 0.81, and 0.74. The adaptation of the MDMQ was conducted by Deniz" (2004).

Statistical Analysis

"Before proceeding to statistical analyses, assumptions such as normality, homogeneity, stationarity, linearity should be checked and statistical information should be given about which assumptions are met. In the light of this information, the researcher should justify which analysis techniques he prefers and which ones he does not" (Tozoğlu & Dursun, 2020). Before analysing the data, it was checked whether the data showed a normal distribution. When the skewness and kurtosis values were examined, it was seen that the data set within the limits specified by Tabachnik and Fidell (2013) (-1.5 to +1.5) had a normal distribution. Therefore, parametric tests were used within the scope of the research.

T-Test for Independent Groups was used to test whether the participants showed a significant difference in terms of emotional intelligence scale according to various demographic variables (playing licensed sports). In addition, One-Way Multivariate Analysis of Variance MANOVA analysis was used to determine whether there was a difference between the scores of the students from the Multifaceted Leadership Orientations and Melbourne Decision Making Scale according to the variable of playing licensed sports. As a result of this analysis, Tukey test, one of the (Post Hoc) tests, was used to determine the source of the difference. In addition, Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis was used to determine the relationships between the variables within the scope of the research, and Simple Linear and Multiple Linear Regression analysis was used to determine the power of the independent variable (leadership orientations, emotional intelligence) in predicting the dependent variable (decision-making styles).

3. RESULTS

Table 1. MANOVA analysis results regarding the scores received from the leadership orientations scale of the students according to the variable of playing licensed sports

Variance Source	Wilks' Lambda	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	P	Eta Square (η^2)
Licenced Sports	.97	6.16	4.00	904.00	.00*	.02

In Table 1, when the results of the manova analysis according to the year of doing licensed sports

were examined, it was found that there was a significant difference between the leadership orientations of the students (Wilks' Lambda $\lambda = .97$, $F=6.16$, $p<.05$). The dependent variable from which the difference originated was analyzed and presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Variance table regarding the scores received from the leadership orientation scale of students according to the variable of playing licensed sports

Dependent Variable	Licensed Sports	N	\bar{x}	S	F	p	Eta Square (η^2)
Political Leadership	Yes	152	19.33	3.32	7.96	.00*	.00
	No	757	18.46	3.51			
Human Resource Leadership	Yes	152	21.74	2.43	.25	.61	.00
	No	757	21.86	2.69			
Charismatic Leadership	Yes	152	19.92	3.20	17.85	.00*	.01
	No	757	18.64	3.46			
Structural Leadership	Yes	152	16.56	2.77	.69	.40	.00
	No	757	16.36	2.71			

In Table 2, when the leadership orientations of the students were examined according to the variable of doing licensed sports, it was determined that there was no statistically significant difference in the dimensions of human resource leadership ($F=.25$, $p>.05$) and structural leadership ($F=.69$, $p>.05$). However, it was determined that there was a significant difference in the dimensions of political leadership ($F=7.96$, $p<.05$) and charismatic leadership ($F=17.85$, $p<.05$). When the mean score values in the political leadership dimension were examined, it was seen that the political leadership orientations of the students who were engaged in licensed sports were higher than the students who were not engaged in licensed sports, and when the mean scores in the charismatic leadership dimension were examined, it was seen that the charismatic leadership orientations of the students who were engaged in licensed sports were higher than the students who were not engaged in licensed sports.

Table 3. Independent sample t-test results for the scores obtained from emotional intelligence scale according to the variable of playing licensed sports

Licensed Sports	N	\bar{X}	S	df	t	p
Yes	152	97.55	15.60	907	2.72	.00
No	757	93.35	17.67			

In Table 3, it was analysed whether there was a significant difference between the scores obtained from the emotional intelligence scale according to the variable of playing licensed sports. As a result of the analysis, a statistically significant difference was found between the variable of doing licensed sports and emotional intelligence scale ($p<.05$). It is seen that the mean scores of the participants who do licensed sports are higher than the mean scores of those who do not do sports.

Table 4. MANOVA analysis results regarding the scores received from students' decision making styles scale according to the variable of playing licensed sports

Variance Source	Wilks' Lambda	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	p	Eta Square (η^2)	Square
Licensed Sports	.99	.14	4.00	904.00	.96	.00	

In Table 4, when the results of the manova analysis according to the variable of doing licensed sports were examined, it was determined that there was no significant difference between the decision-making styles of the students (Wilks' Lambda $\lambda = .99$, $F=.14$, $p>.05$).

Table 5. Multiple regression analysis results regarding the prediction of decision making scale by leadership orientations

Decision Making	Model	B	Standart Error	Beta	t	p
	Fixed	4.13	.62		6.63	.00
	Political Leadership	-.03	.02	-.05	-1.25	.21
Careful Decision Making	Human Resource Leadership	.04	.02	.05	1.58	.11
	Charismatic Leadership	.07	.02	.11	2.57	.01*
	Structual Leadership	.21	.03	.25	6.50	.00*
R=.33 R ² =.11 F=28.19 Durbin-Watson=1.93 p=.00						
	Fixed	7.80	.72		10.78	.00
	Political Leadership	.00	.03	.00	.07	.93
Avoidant Decision Making	Human Resource Leadership	.12	.03	.12	3.63	.00*
	Charismatic Leadership	-.18	.03	-.24	-5.49	.00*
	Structual Leadership	-.16	.03	-.17	-4.41	.00*
R=.34 R ² =.11 F=30.41 Durbin-Watson=1.94 p=.00						
	Fixed	7.43	.67		11.02	.00
	Political Leadership	-.01	.03	-.01	-.36	.71
Delaying decision-making	Human Resource Leadership	-.08	.03	-.09	2.63	.00*
	Charismatic Leadership	-.07	.03	-.10	-2.23	.02*
	Structual Leadership	-.22	.03	-.26	-6.53	.00*
R=.31 R ² =.09 F=24.88 Durbin-Watson=1.90 p=.00						
	Fixed	7.36	.65		11.27	.00
	Political Leadership	-.01	.02	-.02	-.44	.65
Panic Decision Making	Human Resource Leadership	-.11	.03	-.12	3.63	.00*
	Charismatic Leadership	-.14	.03	-.22	-4.91	.00*
	Structual Leadership	-.12	.03	-.15	-3.73	.00*
R=.31 R ² =.10 F=25.42 Durbin-Watson=1.89 p=.00						

In Table 5, when the results of multiple regression analyses related to the prediction of the careful decision-making sub-dimension of the decision-making styles scale were examined, it was found that it was not predicted by political leadership and human resource leadership. However, charismatic and structural leadership predicted careful decision making at a significant level. These sub-dimensions explained 11% of the total variance ($R=.33$, $R^2=.11$, $p<.05$). In addition, the standardised regression coefficient of the charismatic leadership sub-dimension (β) was found to be .11 and the structural leadership sub-dimension (β) was found to be .25. When the results of multiple regression analyses regarding the prediction of the avoidant decision-making sub-dimension of the decision-making styles scale were examined, it was found that it was not predicted by political leadership. However, it was found that human resource, charismatic and structural leadership predicted avoidant decision making at a significant level. These sub-

dimensions explained 12% of the total variance ($R=.34$, $R^2=.11$, $p<.05$). In addition, the standardised regression coefficient of human resource leadership sub-dimension (β) was found to be .12, charismatic leadership sub-dimension (β) -.24, and structural leadership sub-dimension (β) -.17.

When the results of multiple regression analyses related to the prediction of delaying decision-making sub-dimension of the decision-making styles scale were examined, it was found that it was not predicted by political leadership. However, it was found that human resource, charismatic and structural leadership predicted delaying decision making at a significant level. These sub-dimensions explained 10% of the total variance ($R=.31$, $R^2=.09$, $p<.05$). In addition, the standardised regression coefficient of the human resource leadership sub-dimension (β)-.09, the charismatic leadership sub-dimension (β) -.10, and the structural leadership sub-dimension (β) -.26. When the results of multiple regression analyses regarding the prediction of panic decision-making sub-dimension of decision-making styles scale were examined, it was found that it was not predicted by political leadership. However, it was found that human resource, charismatic and structural leadership predicted panic decision making at a significant level. These sub-dimensions explained 10% of the total variance ($R=.31$, $R^2=.10$, $p<.05$). In addition, the standardised regression coefficient of the human resource leadership sub-dimension was found to be (β)-.12, of the charismatic leadership sub-dimension (β)-.22, and of the structural leadership sub-dimension (β)-.150.

Table 6. Simple regression analysis results regarding prediction of decision making scale by emotional intelligence

DecisionMaking	Model	B	Standart Error	Beta	t	p
Careful Decision Making	Fixed	6.58	.39		16.80	.00
	Emotional Intelligence	.02	.00	.23	7.13	.00*
	R=.23 R ² =.05 F=50.92 Durbin-Watson=1.90 p=.00					
Avoidant Decision Making	Fixed	9.71	.43		22.45	.00
	Emotional Intelligence	-.05	.00	-.38	-12.67	.00*
	R=.38 R ² =.15 F=160.56 Durbin-Watson=1.98 p=.00					
Delaying Decision Making	Fixed	9.13	.39		23.07	.00
	Emotional Intelligence	-.05	.00	-.40	-13.25	.00*
	R=.40 R ² =.16 F=175.78 Durbin-Watson=1.88 p=.00					
Panic Decision Making	Fixed	10.42	.37		28.07	.00
	Emotional Intelligence	-.06	.00	-.46	-15.81	.00*
	R=.46 R ² =.21 F=250.14 Durbin-Watson=1.91 p=.00					

In Table 6, when the results of simple regression analyses related to the prediction of the careful decision making sub-dimension of the decision making styles scale were examined, it was found that it was significantly predicted by emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence explains 5% of the total variance ($R=.23$, $R^2=.05$, $p<.05$). In addition, the standardised regression coefficient (β) of emotional intelligence was found to be .23. When the results of simple regression analyses related to the prediction of the avoidant decision-making sub-dimension of the decision-making styles scale were examined, it was found that it was significantly predicted by emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence explains 15% of the total variance ($R=.38$, $R^2=.15$, $p<.05$). In addition, the standardised regression coefficient of emotional intelligence (β)-.38.

When the results of simple regression analyses related to the prediction of delaying decision-making sub-dimension of the decision-making styles scale were examined, it was found that it was significantly predicted by emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence explains 16% of the total variance ($R=.40$, $R^2=.16$, $p<.05$). In addition, the standardised regression coefficient (β) of emotional intelligence was found to be -.40. When the results of simple regression analyses related to the prediction of the panic decision making sub-dimension of the decision making styles scale were examined, it was found that it was significantly predicted by emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence explains 22% of the total variance ($R=.46$, $R^2=.21$, $p<.05$). In addition, the standardised regression coefficient of emotional intelligence (β)-.46.

4. DISCUSSION

When it was examined whether there was a difference between the leadership orientations of prospective managers and the variable of playing licensed sports, it was found that there was a significant difference in political leadership and charismatic leadership dimensions. It was seen that the students who do licensed sports have higher political leadership orientations than the students who do not do sports, and when the mean scores in the charismatic leadership dimension were examined, it was seen that the students who do licensed sports have higher charismatic leadership orientations than the students who do not do licensed sports. It is thought that the fact that individuals who do sports are also students and try to survive with scarce resources improves their political leadership aspects. In addition, it is thought that the scores of charismatic leadership orientations may have been high based on the idea that sports may have contributed to increasing people's self-confidence, developing imagination, inspiring and having a strong vision. However, it was determined that there was no statistically significant difference in the dimensions of human resource leadership and structural leadership. In the literature, in the study titled 'Investigation of Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Characteristics of Athletes Engaged in Individual and Team Sports and Non-Sporting Individuals' conducted by Özdenk (2015), it was determined that sedentary individuals' leadership orientation scores towards structure were higher than athletes. It was reported that this situation was due to the prominence of people (coaches, trainers and captains) who control the structure that directs the group within the structure. It is an expected result that there is no significant difference in terms of structural leadership orientations when it is considered that university students who do sports are in a structure with lecturers and administrators.

When it was examined whether there was a significant difference between the scores obtained from the emotional intelligence scale according to the variable of doing licensed sports, a statistically significant difference was found between the variable of doing licensed sports and the emotional intelligence scale. It is seen that the mean scores of the participants who do licensed sports are higher than the mean scores of those who do not do sports. In other words, the emotional intelligence levels of prospective managers who do sports are higher than those of prospective managers who do not do sports. Individuals who do sports not only use their physical skills but also use their emotional skills. Competition, competition anxiety and spectator pressure, which are in the nature of sports, affect athletes emotionally. Athletes are expected to have high levels of emotional intelligence in order to overcome emotional situations. Therefore, it is expected that the emotional intelligence levels of the participants who do sports will be high. In the literature, as a result of studies conducted on different groups, it was found that emotional intelligence has a positive effect on sport performance and athletes who use their emotional intelligence well have positive feedback (Alkozei et al., 2016; Pilarik & Sarmany-Schuller, 2009;

Lane & Wilson, 2011). When it was analysed whether there was a difference between the variable of doing licensed sports and decision-making styles, it was determined that there was no significant difference between the participants' sporting status and decision-making styles. In other words, it can be stated that doing sports has no effect on decision-making styles. In the literature, Mert (2019) found that the decision-making styles scores of sport managers did not differ significantly according to their sporting status. In the study of Demircan (2018), in which the relationship between active sports and decision-making styles was examined, it was found that decision-making styles did not differ according to the status of active sports. The result of these studies coincides with the result of our study.

It was determined that structural leadership and charismatic leadership orientations among the leadership orientations of the manager candidates affect the careful decision-making style among the decision-making styles. On the other hand, it was determined that human resource leadership and political leadership orientations did not affect the careful decision-making style. It is logical that leaders or managers have comprehensive information about the subject before making a decision, evaluate alternatives and make careful decisions as a result. It is assumed that the leadership orientations of the prospective managers are effective on their careful decision-making styles based on the idea that they will be the managers and leaders of the future. In the study conducted by Rehman and Waheed (2012) in which the relationship between transformational leadership style and decision-making styles was analysed, it was found that transformational leadership style strongly predicted rational decision-making styles.

It was found that human resource leadership, charismatic leadership and structural leadership orientations of prospective managers negatively affected avoidant, delaying and panic decision-making styles. When the literature was examined, it was found that leadership orientations had an effect on decision making in the study conducted by Laird (2012) at the University of Illinois. Hariri, Monypenny, and Prideaux (2016) examined the relationship between leadership styles and decision-making styles of teachers working in schools in Lampung province of Indonesia and found that there was a significant negative relationship between teachers' transformational leadership style and snap decision-making style. The findings of these studies in the literature are similar to the results of our research.

In the last finding of the study, it was determined that the emotional intelligence levels of the participants negatively affected the careful decision-making, avoidant, delaying and panic decision-making styles of the decision-making scale. Individuals with high emotional intelligence have the ability to understand people's emotions, increase people's motivation and manage relationships (Petrides & Furnham, 2000). At the same time, they can quickly adapt to change and think flexibly (Barutçugil, 2002). This can enable individuals to make careful decisions when making decisions. Emotional intelligence influences individuals' self-knowledge, motivation levels, holding ideas and beliefs, perspectives on life and problem solving skills. Individuals with low emotional intelligence level fail in these situations (Arslan & Hamarta, 2007). In the studies conducted, it has been determined that emotional intelligence affects life satisfaction (Yang & Mossholder, 2004), cognitive competences of intelligence and decision making in the consumption preference process (Kidwel et al., 2007; Yang & Mossholder, 2004). There are different studies in the literature that support our study findings (Afzal, Atta & Shujja, 2013; Barzegar, Afzal, Maleki & Koochakyazdi, 2013; Köksal & Gazioğlu, 2007; Moghadam, Tehrani & Amin, 2011).

5. RECOMMENDATIONS

- Leadership orientations and emotional intelligence levels do not explain the entire variance of decision-making styles. In order to explain the rest of the variance, the contribution of different variables that are thought to be related to leadership orientation and emotional intelligence can be examined.
- In the study, it is seen that the leadership orientations and emotional intelligence levels of the prospective managers who do sports are high. Therefore, prospective managers who do not do sports should be encouraged to do sports and sports should be made a part of their lives by providing the necessary opportunities.
- Both in this study and in other studies overlapping with the results of this study, emotional intelligence and leadership were found to be effective on decision-making styles. In this case, in order to increase the leadership orientations and emotional intelligence levels of prospective managers, it is recommended that course contents related to the relevant characteristics should be added to the curricula of the executive training departments of universities.
- The study is limited to state universities in Ankara. In future studies, state and foundation universities located in different regions of Turkey can be included in the research to make comparisons.

Author Contributions

This article is derived from Mücahit Dursun's PhD Thesis.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare any conflict of interest regarding the study and its publication.

Ethical Statement

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