

A Descriptive Analysis of University Teachers' Emotional Intelligence, Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Intention

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Abstract

This study aims to find university teachers' emotional intelligence, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions to find concerning their gender differences. A survey was carried out using the random sampling technique. Data were collected from 550 teachers (275 Male and 275 Female) currently serving in eleven Pakistani universities. Only 416 usable questionnaires (i.e. 203 Male and 213 Female) were included in the data analysis; the remaining 134 questionnaires were discarded as insufficient data was provided by the respondents. The data collected was processed and analyzed using SPSS Version 16. The study has found that male teachers have a higher level of emotional intelligence than females. There is also a noticeable difference between male and female teachers' turnover intention and job satisfaction. However, no significant difference between male and female teachers' organizational commitment is observed.

Keywords: Gender Differences, Emotional Intelligence, Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, Turnover Intension

Introduction

Teachers, who are an essential pillar of universities, require a supportive working environment to fulfill their professional responsibilities; also, universities consider teachers to be a valuable resource to help them meet their organizational objectives (Cole, 2003). Among other professional responsibilities, teachers are expected to train students to face the challenges of their practical lives. This multifaceted task requires motivation, commitment, and competence of teachers (ILO, 2010). Furthermore, the stressful nature of the teaching career requires tremendous emotional efforts and a higher degree of emotional intelligence; in particular, the handling of strange situations that occur during the teaching-learning process. Misunderstanding and mishandling these circumstances can lead to frustration and

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dissatisfaction that can impact students' attitudes, performance, and productivity (Huber & West, 2002).

Emotional Intelligence (EI) encompasses a range of skills and characteristics that are used to process emotional knowledge for social environments/events (Goleman, 1995; Abraham, 1999). The EI of teachers is therefore very important in an educational setting. It may affect the patterns of their work, socialization, decision-making, and makes them more capable of dealing with situations of frustration and dissatisfaction (Abraham, 2000, 2004). Researches have published mixed findings concerning EI and gender (Alnabhan, 2008; Grossman & Wood, 1993). This study aims to investigate whether there is a correlation between teachers' EI and gender differences.

Organizational commitment (OC) has defined as a behavior that reflects employees' positive relationships with their organizations. It encourages them to decide their long term association with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Usually, universities in Pakistan follow the guidelines issued by the Higher Education Commissions; however, universities often enjoy autonomy in the management of their organizational structure, operating procedures, and technology in use. In this respect, the culture and working environment of universities may differ from one another. Despite these differences, the available facilities and the working environment directly affect the productivity, performance, and organizational commitment of teachers (Affum-Osei et al., 2015). Aydin et al. (2011) have published mixed findings concerning OC and gender. This study aims to investigate whether there is a correlation between teachers' OC and gender differences.

Job satisfaction (JS) has been recognized as an important component of employee productivity. From an organizational behavioral viewpoint, JS refers to the employees' emotional state of mind regarding the different aspects of their jobs, including objective working conditions and subjective perceptions of their job (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). Past researches reflect contradictory results on gender and JS (Aguilar & Vlosky, 2008; Anari, 2012; Aydin, Uysal, & Sarier, 2012). The goal of this study is to investigate whether there is a correlation between teachers' JS and gender differences.

Teachers' turnover intention (TI) is another area of concern for organizations. Previous studies have identified numerous factors that influence the intent of employees to quit the organization (Meyer et al., 2002). Employees' turnover intentions are another area of great interest to the global research community, and conflicting results have been published on gender and turnover intentions (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). The purpose of this study is to investigate whether there is a correlation between teachers' TI and gender differences.

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence (EI) has been described as "soft skills," "people's skills," "general ability to cope with the demands of life" (Goleman, 1995). Salovey and Mayer (1990) consider it as the capacity of individuals to regulate their thoughts and actions by considering their own and others' feelings and emotions. Goleman (1995) describes it as a combination of human abilities and characteristics that allows them to control aspects of self-awareness, regulation of emotions, empathy, and social skills. Boyatzis, et al. (2000) equate EI with the capacity or skill of individuals to deal with themselves, their lives, their jobs, and others. In their Trait Model, Petrides and Furnham (2001) define EI as individuals' measurable behavioral dispositions and self-perceived abilities. Salovey, et al. (2004) consider EI as an individual's ability to process emotional information used in the handling of social environments or events. Salovey and Mayer (1990) advocate that EI helps people to better understand and manage their emotions. The studies of Rebecca Abraham's (1999, 2000, 2004) show that emotionally intelligent individuals usually focus on resolution rather than on reasoning or arguing.

The level of EI between males and females has always been a matter of great concern among researchers. Goleman (1995) and Bar-On (1998) research have shown that males and females tend to be distinct in terms of their EI. The studies of Grossman and Wood (1993), Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999), Kafetsios (2004), Parker, et al. (2004) and Grewal and Salovey (2005) found a higher degree of EI among females compared to male counterparts. Females experience positive and negative emotions, both professional and personal, more intensely than males. The EI meta-analysis of Joseph and Newman (2010) found higher EI scores among females compared to males. In contrast, studies in Petrides and Furnham (2000), Alnabhan (2008), and Sánchez-Nunez et al. (2008) found a higher level of EI among males than females. Whereas the Castro-Schilo and Kee (2010) and Gurol, et al. (2010) studies have shown that both gender classes are identical concerning EI.

The literature review above indicates that the results of past studies related to EI and gender are controversial due to their mixed findings. These results suggest that the relationship between gender and EI deserves further investigation on its own merits. As a result, a null hypothesis is developed for its testing in Pakistani universities.

H1: There is no difference in emotional intelligence between male and female teachers.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational Commitment (OC) has been defined as a behavior that reflects employees' positive relationships with their organizations and encourages them in deciding on their long-term association with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Aydin et al. (2011) have identified some key components of organizational commitment, including organizational membership, self-identification, organizational successes, loyalty, and willingness to exert considerable effort to perform their duties.

OC may be expressed in terms of employees' willingly realization of the organizational norms and objectives (Buchanan, 1974). OC has also been defined as employees' involvement and emotional attachment with the organization (Wiener, 1982). Different researchers have looked at OC in different perspectives. For example, Mowday, Lyman, and Duban (1974) associate it with "a strong belief in the organization's goals and values, a willingness to achieve these goals and a definite desire to be part of the organization". Steers (1977) and Salancik (1977) conceptualize it as "the individual's identification, psychological attachment, and his/her involvement in the organization". Allen and Mayer (1990) advocate OC as individuals' attitudinal attributes towards their organization. Adeyemo and Ogyunyemi (2004) relate it to employees' emotional affiliation or involvement with their organization. Kumari and Priya (2017) associate it with employees' inherent attachment, loyalty, and sincerity to their organizations in all circumstances.

In literature, various approaches of OC have been discussed. For example, the 'exchange approach' considers that an employee's OC directly depends on a perceived balance between his/her input and the organization's reward (Homans, 1958). Whereas the 'investment approach' gives more importance to the length of service, i.e. senior employees could be more committed as compared to newly joined employees (Salancik, 1977). Meyer and Allen (1991) have discussed three aspects of organizational commitment: (i) Affective commitment dealing with employee's affirmative feelings and positive emotional attachment towards an organization. (ii) Normative commitment dealing with employee's obligation to serve the organization. (iii) Continuance commitment dealing with the fear of loss or the penalty in case of leaving the organization. He has pointed out that these three commitments are distinguishable components, rather than types. He has identified personal, structural, and job characteristics as three important aspects of affective commitment. He has further explained that work experiences may affect affective commitment, whereas, the continuance commitment could be affected through individuals' investments and availability of alternatives. The normative commitment can be influenced by the employee's experiences apprehensions about socialization aspects of a new organization (Wiener, 1982; Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Steier (1989) identified three parameters of OC: (i) personal characteristics, (ii) employee's attitude towards organization, (iii) nature of the job. Many studies have identified OC as an important factor in achieving organizations goals (Mowday, Porter & Dubin, 1974; Steers, 1975), improving the organization's effectiveness (Steers, 1975), and keeping employee's motivated and satisfied (Seyal & Afzaal, 2013). Many researchers have advocated that highly committed employees perform better as compared to those of less committed (Khan, et al., 2014; Shafiq & Rana, 2016; Kumari & Priya, 2017).

Many studies have carried out to find the correlation between gender and OC, however, the findings led to different results. Some studies reveal a stronger OC among men compare to women (Sarier et al., 2011). In contrast, some studies reveal a stronger level of OC among females than men (Dixon et al., 2005). Crosby (2015) has found that gender doesn't play any role regarding OC. The study of Khalili and Amawi (2012) has found no difference between men and women regarding OC. The controversies in the past research demand more research to explain the phenomenon (Karrasch, 2003). So the following hypotheses have been developed to be tested.

H2: There exists no difference between male and female teachers regarding organizational commitment.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction (JS) is usually correlated to individuals' desires, attainments, and successes at work (Fako et al., 2009). The term has been defined by different authors who have pointed out different factors that may influence employees' JS. For example, individuals' attitude towards their jobs (Ivancevich et al., 1990), individuals' affective reaction to their work environment and job situation (Perie & Baker, 1997), individuals' affective attachment to his/her job either as a whole or concerning any particular aspect (Tett & Meyer, 1993), individuals' positive or negative feelings about their jobs (Greenberg & Baron, 2000; Aydin et al., 2012).

Various theories related to JS have been proposed, including expectancy theory of mental processes regarding choice (Vroom, 1964), equity theory of fairness (Adams, 1965), work adjustment theory of achieving and maintaining correspondence with a work environment (Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1968), process theory (Luthans, 2005), etc. Usually, JS has been associated with the relationship between employees' expectations, emotional experiences, working conditions, and job requirements (Adeyemo, 2007; Alikhani, et al., 2015). It has also been associated with the subjective feeling of an employee with his/her job, or appraisal of one's job achievements (Larkin, 2015). Maslow (1943) argues that an employee feels satisfied when his/her job and its environment meet his/her physical, social, safety, and self-esteem needs. Whereas, Herzberg, et al. (1959) have argued that employees' JS may be affected due to both intrinsic factors as well as extrinsic factors. But, they argued that both should not be considered as the inverse of each another. The presence of extrinsic factors may lead to job dissatisfaction, while its absence does not produce job satisfaction. Hagedorn (2000) has identified two constructs that affect job satisfaction: (i) triggers which represent the changing situations or circumstances of an employee and, (ii) mediators that are responsible for influencing the relationship between situations producing an interaction effect.

The above literature review shows JS an important indicator of employees' performance as a whole. However, not JS as such, but gender differences in JS remain an important aspect of academic research (Ismail, 2012; Larkin, 2015). The findings of different studies led to inconsistent results. For example, compare to males a higher JS among female employees is reported in Bender et al. (2005). In contrast, a lower JS among female employees is reported in Pook, et al. (2003). In parallel, no statistical differences in JS between male and female employees are reported in Sumner & Niederman (2003) and Aguilar and Vlosky (2008). The meta-analysis of Aydin, et al. (2012) reveals that the effect of gender on the JS is in favor of male employees. Fako, et al. (2009) have observed employees' negative work experiences as an important factor causing differences between male and female employees' level of JS. In the education domain, Maphorisa (1997) has found male teachers more satisfied than their counterpart female teachers. The t-test analysis of Gligorović, et al. (2014) study shows a bit higher satisfaction among female teachers. The above-discussed studies show that gender is a significant factor linked to JS. However, the findings of past researches are controversial and need further explanation. It may lead to the following hypotheses for further testing.

H₃: There exists no significant difference between male and female teachers regarding job satisfaction.

Turnover Intention

Turnover Intention (TI) may be defined as an employee's psychological detachment from his/her organization (Lee & Bruvold, 2003). Yamazakia and Petchdee (2015) define it as a three-stage process: thinking to leave, searching for a new opportunity, and the intention to leave. This phenomenon is of great interest to many researchers. Many studies have carried out to understand its relationship with different factors. For example, many studies have found a negative correlation between OC and TI (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Currivan, 1999; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Lee & Bruvold, 2003; Kuean, Kaur, & Wong, 2010; Suliman & Al-Junaibi, 2010; Teeraprasert, Piriyaikul, & Khantanapha, 2012; Yamazakia & Petchdee, 2015). Salami (2008) has found that employees working at higher positions show low intention to leave the job. Whereas, Radzi, et al. (2009) report that employee working at low positions have a higher intention to leave the job due to fewer promotion opportunities.

Many pieces of research regarding gender and TI have reported mixed findings. For example, Miller and Wheeler (1992), and Rosin and Korabik (1995) have found a higher TI among females as compared to male employees. Sicherman (1996) has found significant differences in both voluntary and involuntary turnover behaviors between male and female employees. On the other hand, Lyness and Judiesch (2001) have found a slightly lower level of voluntarily TI among female as compared to male employees. Personal/family-related reasons have identified as common factors causing females to leave their jobs (Lee, 2012). In their meta-analysis, Cotton and Tuttle (1986) have

reported no significant impact of gender on employees' TI. On the other hand, the studies of Karatepe et al. (2006), and Wang (2017) have observed a significant correlation between gender and TI. In light of the above-mentioned findings, the phenomenon of employee TI in terms of gender needs further exploration. The review of the studies discussed above led to the following hypotheses for further testing:

H₄: There exists a significant difference between male and female teachers regarding turnover intentions.

Methodology

In this study, various items for the survey instrument have been adopted from the previous studies (Schutte, et al., 1998; Mowday, Stress & Porter, 1979; Allen & Meyer, 1990; Macdonald & MacIntyr, 1997). However, keeping in view the socio-cultural aspects of the Pakistani universities, minor modifications were made in the items of the instrument. To validate the prepared instrument, a pilot study was conducted in five (5) universities. One hundred and fifty (150) respondents were randomly picked and requested to fill and return the questionnaire. One hundred and thirty-seven (137) questionnaires were received in which one hundred and thirty-two (132) were usable which were containing complete information. An exploratory factor analysis using maximum likelihood estimation was conducted. As a result, four scales were established, as shown in Table 2.

Table 1

Questionnaires response rate

No.	Gender	Sent	Returned	Responses Rate		
				%	Total	Total %
University 1	Male	25	19	76%	41	82%
	Female	25	22	88%		
University 2	Male	25	18	72%	38	76%
	Female	25	20	80%		
University 3	Male	25	22	88%	41	82%
	Female	25	19	76%		
University 4	Male	25	18	72%	40	80%
	Female	25	22	88%		
University 5	Male	25	21	84%	39	78%
	Female	25	18	72%		
University 6	Male	25	20	80%	39	78%
	Female	25	19	76%		
University 7	Male	25	20	80%	41	82%
	Female	25	21	84%		
University 8	Male	25	17	68%	38	76%
	Female	25	21	84%		

No.	Gender	Sent	Returned	Responses Rate		
				%	Total	Total %
University 9	Male	25	17	68%	34	68%
	Female	25	17	68%		
University 10	Male	25	22	88%	40	80%
	Female	25	18	72%		
University 11	Male	25	15	60%	33	66%
	Female	25	18	72%		
Total		525	406	77%	424	77%
Total Useable			203		416	213

Table 2

Cronbach's reliability coefficient

Number of Items	Cronbach's Reliability Coefficient	Category
Thirty-three (33)	.61 to .69	Schutte's Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (Schutte et al., 1998)
thirteen (13)	.65 to .71	Organization Commitment Scale of Mowday, Stress, and Porter (1979)
fifteen (15)	.61 to .69	Job Satisfaction Scale of Macdonald and MacIntyr (1997)
thirteen (13)	.59 to .71	Turnover Intentions Scale of Allen and Meyer (1990)

As shown in Table 2, thirty-three (33) items with .61 to .69 Cronbach's reliability coefficient of the Schutte's Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (Schutte et al., 1998); thirteen (13) items with .65 to .71 Cronbach's reliability coefficient of Organization Commitment Scale of Mowday, Stress, and Porter (1979); fifteen (15) items with .61 to .69 Cronbach's reliability coefficient of Job Satisfaction Scale of Macdonald and MacIntyr (1997); and thirteen (13) items with .59 to .71 Cronbach's reliability coefficient of Turnover Intentions Scale of Allen and Meyer (1990). The factor analysis results are comparable to Schutte et al. (1998), Mowday, Stress, and Porter (1979), Macdonald and MacIntyr (1997), and Allen and Meyer (1990) models. Data was collected using the Likert scale - Strongly Agree (5) to Strongly Disagree (1). Items for collecting demographic profiles of the respondents have also included in the instrument.

For the final study, using a random sampling technique 550 teachers (275 Male and 275 Females) were selected from eleven universities situated within the city limit of Lahore, Pakistan, and the questionnaires were distributed among them. In response, 424 questionnaires in number were received showing a 77% response rate. However, only 416 questionnaires (i.e. 203 Male respondents and 213 from Female respondents) were included in the data analysis discarding the rest due to lack of data provided by the respondents.

Data Analysis

Table 3

Gender wise emotional intelligence

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Female	213	103.1449	6.2353	3.672	0.0003
Male	203	101.0526	5.3721		

**p* = 0.05

Table 3 reflects that female respondents have higher EI as compare to males. However, the value of calculated $t = 3.672$ is greater than $t_{c}=1.966$. It reflects a difference between male and female teachers' EI. The *p*-value is 0.0003. As $p < 0.05$, the H_1 hypothesis is rejected.

Table 4

Gender wise turnover intensions

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Female	213	41.014	3.8126	2.385	0.0175
Male	203	40.0246	4.5913		

**p* = 0.05

Table 4 shows that female respondents have higher TI as compare to males. However, the value of calculated $t = 2.385 > t_{c} = 1.966$. It reflects a difference between male and female teachers' TI. The *p*-value is 0.0175. As $p < 0.05$, the H_2 hypothesis is rejected.

Table 5

Gender wise organization commitment

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Female	213	42.2957	6.81263	0.446	0.6556
Male	203	40.5369	7.59135		

**p* = 0.05

Although, Table 5 mean values show that female respondents have higher OC as compare to males. However, the value of calculated $t = 0.446 < t_{c} = 1.966$. It could

be concluded that there exists no difference between male and female teachers' OC. The p -value = 0.6556. As $p > 0.05$, the H_3 hypothesis is accepted.

Table 6

Gender wise job satisfaction

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Female	213	48.45070423	6.8037	12.14	0.00
Male	203	41.26086957	5.20467		

* $p = 0.05$

Table 6 shows that female respondents have higher TI as compare to males. However, the value of calculated $t = 12.14 > t_c = 1.966$. It could be concluded that there exists a difference between male and female teachers regarding JS. Similarly, the p -value is $p = 0.00$ which is less than 0.05. Hence, the H_4 hypothesis is rejected.

Discussion

The findings of this study conclude that female teachers have a higher level of EI than male respondents, so H_1 is rejected. The findings are supported by the study of Anari (2012) reporting females' higher EI. However, studies like Mayer and Geher (1996), Goleman (1998), Mandell and Perwani (2003) reported no correlation between gender and EI. The study found a noticeable difference between male and female teachers' TI so H_2 is rejected. The findings are supported by the study of Sicherman (1996). The results of the present study are supported by Weisberg and Kirschenbaum (1993) who have strongly argued that gender differences are crucial to understanding the development of a turnover decision. On the other hand, our findings are different from other studies of Wang (2017), Cotton and Tuttle (1986) which reflects that gender has no significant relation with TI.

Organizational commitment encourages employees to stay in the organization (Mowday et al., 1982; Morrow, 1983). The results of this study found no significant difference between male and female teachers' OC, so the H_3 is accepted. The findings are supported by other studies, like Anari (2012) and Çoğaltay (2015). However, the studies of Farooq and Zia (2013) and Aydin et al. (2011) have revealed contradictory results that male teachers demonstrate a higher level of OC compared to their female colleagues.

The study found a noticeable difference between male and female teachers' JS, so H_4 is rejected. The results of Anari (2012) and Kim (2005) studies have supported our results. However, our research findings differ from earlier studies of Sumner and Niederman (2003) and Aguilar and Vlosky (2008) which have found no correlation between gender and JS.

Conclusion

This study sought to understand the relationship between gender and university teachers' emotional intelligence, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. The study has found that female teachers have a higher level of EI than male teachers, a noticeable difference between male and female teachers' TI and JS, and no significant difference between male and female teachers' OC. Past literature has confirmed the findings of this study. Teachers with higher EI, OR, JS, and low TI are an asset for the universities. Such teachers are in a better position to be accepted and understood by their colleagues, can develop themselves, manage their career path, and lead their students. We believe these findings would provide an important understanding for researchers and raise the awareness of university management regarding these aspects.

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