

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Emotional Intelligence, Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Intention: Gender-based Study of University Teachers

Noman Hafeez^{1*}, Mehvish Zahrah², Sehrish Tahir³ & Arslan Aslam⁴

¹ Lecturer, Department of Education, University of Education, Lahore, Dera Ghazi Khan, Campus., Punjab, Pakistan: 32200
For Correspondent: E-mail: noumancity64@gmail.com (+923326242628)

² Lecturer, Department of Education, University of Education, Lahore, Dera Ghazi Khan, Campus., Punjab, Pakistan: 32200

³ Lecturer, Department of Education, University of Education, Lahore, Dera Ghazi Khan, Campus., Punjab, Pakistan: 32200

⁴ Lecturer, Department of Education, University of Education, Lahore, Dera Ghazi Khan, Campus., Punjab, Pakistan: 32200

Ethical Statement

Researchers distributed questionnaires and collected data from respondents with ethical guidelines given by the research ethical code.

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Conflict of Interest

No conflict of interest is present in the conduction or the reporting of this study.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to examine the differences between male and female university professors' emotional intelligence, organizational commitment, work happiness, and plans to leave the profession. When conducting a survey, researchers used random sampling. Data were gathered from 550 Pakistani university lecturers, 275 of whom were male and 275 of whom were female. As 134 respondents failed to give enough information on survey questionnaires, the data analysis comprised of only remaining 416 participants' answers (203 male and 213 female). Processing and analysis of the data were done using SPSS Version 16. In the research, males were shown to be more emotionally intelligent than female professors. Teachers' intentions to leave and their levels of work satisfaction varied significantly between males and females, but there was no substantial difference in the level of dedication of the instructors towards their schools.

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

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*Corresponding Author

Lecturer, Department of Education, University of Education, Lahore, Dera Ghazi Khan, Campus., Punjab, Pakistan: 32200
E-mail: noumancity64@gmail.com

INTRODUCTION

University professors are vital resources for institutions, and as such, universities recognize the need of providing a positive working environment for them, in order to enable them to accomplish their professional obligations (Cole, 2003). Also, as teachers are obliged to educate children on how to deal with the realities of the real world, they must be motivated, committed, and competent to handle this many-faceted duty (ILO, 2010). In addition, the stressful nature of teaching necessitates a high level of emotional intelligence, especially in dealing with the odd circumstances that may arise throughout the teaching-learning process. When these events are misunderstood and handled incorrectly, resentment and anger might result, which in turn may affect students' attitudes, performances, and their productivity; (Huber & West, 2002).

People with high levels of emotional intelligence (EI) have the ability to interpret emotional information in social contexts/events (Goleman, 1995; Abraham, 1999). Teachers' emotional intelligence (EI) is consequently critical in an educational environment. It may influence their job, sociability, decision-making, and ability to handle situations of frustration and unhappiness (Abraham, 2000, 2004). Researchers say (Alnabhan, 2008; Grossman & Wood, 1993) that EI and gender studies have shown conflicting results. Teachers' emotional intelligences (EI) and gender differences will be examined in this research study.

The term "organizational commitment" (OC) refers to a set of behaviors that demonstrate workers' strong bonds with the organizations in which they work. Having a long-term relationship with the organization pushes them to make that decision (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The Higher Education Commissions in Pakistan usually sets the rules for universities in Pakistan; however, institutions frequently have the freedom to control their own organizational structure, operational methods, and their usage of technology. When it comes to such matters, university cultures and working environments may be rather distinct. Even instructors' productivity, performances, and dedication to the organization are influenced directly by the resources and working environment that they have at their disposal (Affum-Osei et al., 2015). The results of Aydin et al. (2011) on the relationship between OC and gender have been equivocal. The purpose of this research is to see whether there is a link between the OC of instructors and their variances in gender.

Worker output has been shown to be influenced by a person's level of job satisfaction. Organizational behaviorists use the term "job satisfaction" (JS) to describe how workers feel about their employment in terms of both objective working circumstances and how they personally perceive their occupations (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). The findings of previous studies on gender and JS are inconclusive (Aguilar & Vlosky, 2008; Anari, 2012; Aydin et al., 2012). In order to find out whether there's a link between instructors' JS and their gender, this research is being conducted.

Organizations are also concerned about the desire of teachers to leave their positions. In previous research, various variables which impact workers' desire to leave the company (Meyer et al., 2002) have been found. The worldwide research community is also very interested in employee turnover intentions, and inconsistent findings have been published on the relationship between gender and turnover intentions (Griffeth et al., 2000). The study's goal is to see whether there's a link between instructors' TI and disparities in gender.

Emotional Awareness

People's talents, "soft skills," and "coping with the demands of life" have all been used to characterize Emotional



Intelligence (EI) (Goleman, 1995). Consideration of one's own and others' feelings and emotions is considered to be an individual's ability to control their thoughts and behaviors. For example, Goleman (1995) characterizes it as a mix of human talents and qualities that enable individuals to regulate components of self-awareness, regulation of emotions, empathy, and social skills. EI is defined by Boyatzis, et al. (2000) as a person's ability or talent to handle themselves, their lives, their employment, and others in a positive manner. Self-perceptions of one's own behavioral inclinations and talents are used by Petrides and Furnham (2001) in their Trait Model to define emotional intelligence (EI). Emotional intelligence (EI) is defined by Salovey et al. (2004) as a person's capacity to interpret emotional information while dealing with social situations or events. Salovey and Mayer (1990) believe that EI may help individuals better understand and control their emotions. Emotionally intelligent people, according to Rebecca Abraham's (1999, 2000, 2004) research, are more concerned with finding solutions than they are with debating or reasoning.

Researchers have long been concerned about the disparity in EI between men and women. Researchers Goleman (1995) and Bar-On (1998) found that men and women differ greatly in their emotional intelligence (EI). Grossman and Wood (1993), Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999), Kafetsios (2004), Parker et al. (2004), and Grewal and Salovey (2005) all showed that women had a greater level of emotional intelligence (EI) than men. Females are more sensitive to both good and negative emotions, both professionally and personally than men. According to Joseph and Newman (2010), women had higher EI scores than men in the light of their meta-analysis of EI data. Studies by Petrides and Furnham (2000), Alnabhan (2008), and Sánchez-Nunez et al. (2008), on the other hand, revealed a greater level of EI in men than in females. In contrast, investigations by Castro-Schilo and Kee (2010) and Gurol et al. (2010) found that the EI scores of both sexes were the same.

According to the literature analysis above, the findings of previous research on EI and gender have been varied. As a consequence of these findings, it seems that the connection between gender and EI requires further study on its own. As a result, Pakistani universities have established a null hypothesis for testing.

Research Objectives, Questions, and Hypotheses

There are four research objectives in this study, which respectively are (1) to explore the emotional intelligence of male and female teachers, (2) to evaluate their organizational commitment, (3) to calculate their job satisfaction, and (4) to examine their turnover intentions. In line with these objectives, four research questions were formulated.

RQ1. What is the emotional intelligence between male and female teachers?

RQ2. What is the difference between male and female teachers' organizational commitment?

RQ3. What is the level of job satisfaction between male and female teachers?

RQ4. What are the turnover intentions between male and female teachers?

Addressing these questions, four hypotheses were created.

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

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

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

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

LITERATURE REVIEW

Commitment to the Organization

An employee's action that displays his/her strong ties with his/her organizations and motivates him/her to make a long-term affiliation decision with the company has been named as "organizational commitment," or "OC" (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Commitment to an organization is defined by Aydin and colleagues (2011) as the willingness to put up significant effort in order to fulfill one's responsibilities as an employee of the company.

OC may be defined as the degree which workers voluntarily achieve by meeting the standards and goals set out by their employers (Buchanan, 1974). OC may also be described as the level of emotional commitment and participation of the organization's personnel (Wiener, 1982). OC has been studied from a variety of aspects by scholars. According to Mowday et al. (1974), "a strong conviction in the company's aims and ideals, a determination to attain these goals, and a distinct need to be a part of the organization" are some examples. Steers (1977) and Salancik (1977) describe it as "the individual's identification, psychological connection, and his/her engagement in the organization". Allen and Mayer (1990) advocate OC as individuals' attitudes towards their company. Adeyemo and Ogyunyemi (2005) link it to workers' emotional attachment or connection with their employers. They say it is because of the workers' intrinsic commitment, devotion, and genuineness to their businesses under all conditions.

OC has been approached from a variety of aspects in the literature. The 'exchange approach,' for instance, holds that an employee's OC is directly dependent on a perceived balance between his or her effort and the reward of the business (Homans, 1958). The 'investment strategy,' on the other hand, places a higher value on tenure, which means that older personnel might be more dedicated than freshly hired staff (Salancik, 1977). According to Meyer and Allen (1991), organizational commitment may be divided into three distinct categories: An employee's good thoughts and emotional connection to a company might be categorized as "affective commitment." "Normative commitment", on the other hand, deals with an employee's duty to serve their employer. To maintain one's loyalty to an institution, one must be willing to put oneself in jeopardy or suffer the consequences of doing so. Rather than being types, he sees these three commitments as distinct components. Affective commitment may be influenced by a variety of factors, but three stand out for him: one's self, one's environment, and one's work. Affective commitment, on the other hand, may be influenced by people's investments and the availability of alternatives, as he states. Employees' fears and anxieties about adjusting to a new workplace might have an impact on their level of normative commitment (Wiener, 1982; Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Personal traits, the employee's attitude toward the company, and the nature of the work are all factors in OC, according to Steier (1989). There have been several studies that show OC helps firms to achieve their objectives (Mowday et al., 1974; Steers, 1975), improve their efficiency (Steers, 1975), and keep their employees happy by fostering a positive work environment (Seyal & Afzaal, 2013). According to a number of academic studies, workers who are very devoted outperform those who are less committed (Khan, et al., 2014; Shafiq & Rana, 2016; Kumari & Priya, 2017).

There has been a slew of research looking for a link between gender and OC, with varying degrees of success. Some research has shown that males have a stronger OC than females (Aydin et al., 2011). According to several research, women have a higher amount of OC than men (Dixon et al., 2005). According to Crosby (2015), gender has no bearing on OC. The research of Khalili and Asmawi (2012) demonstrated no variation in OC between the genders. This



phenomenon requires more investigation because of previous disagreements (Karrasch, 2003). Therefore, the following hypotheses have been generated to be evaluated.

Getting a Good Feeling about Your Job

Individuals' aspirations, accomplishments, and achievements at work are often shown to be connected to their level of 'job satisfaction' (JS) (Fako et al., 2009). The phrase has been defined by many writers who pointed out numerous elements that impact employees' JS. Individuals' attitudes toward their work (Ivancevich et al., 1990), their emotional response to their work environment and work situation (Perie & Baker, 1997), their emotional attachment to their work (Tett & Meyer, 1993), and their positive or negative feelings about their work (Perie & Baker, 1997) are just a few examples (Greenberg & Baron, 2000; Aydin et al., 2012).

There have been several theories put forward about the issue including the anticipation theory of mental processes surrounding choice (Vroom, 1964), the equity theory of fairness (Adams, 1965), the work adjustment theory of obtaining and sustaining correspondence with a work environment etc. JS has always been connected with the interaction between workers' expectations, emotional experiences, work environment, and job needs. (Adeyemo, 2007; Alikhani, et al., 2015). It is also linked to employees' subjective assessment of their accomplishments at work (Larkin, 2015). When an employee's physical, social, safety, and self-esteem requirements are met, he or she is content at work. Employees' job satisfaction may be influenced both internally and externally, according to Herzberget al. (1959). However, they argued that both could not be compared since they were not opposites. Extrinsic variables could cause job dissatisfaction. Guzeller and Celiker, (2020) distinguished between (i) triggers, which indicate changes in the conditions of an employee's work, and the latter pair of (ii) mediators, which influence the link between the two sets of circumstances, resulting in an interaction effect.

According to the aforementioned research study, JS is a significant predictor of overall success among workers. However, academic study continues to focus on gender disparities in JS, not JS itself (Ismail, 2012; Larkin, 2015). Various investigations yielded to conflict outcomes. According to Bender et al., female workers had a greater JS than male employees (2005). However, a lower JS was seen among female workers (Pooket al., 2003). Additionally, neither Sumner & Niederman (2003) nor Aguilar and Vlosky (2003) found any significant differences in terms of JS between male and female workers (2008). Gender has a positive impact on JS, according to Aydin et al. (2012)'s meta-analysis. Employees' negative job experiences, according to Fako et al. (2009), have a significant influence in the disparity in JS levels between males and females. Maphorisa (1997) discovered that male instructors were happier than their female counterparts in the field of education. Gligoroviet al. (2014) found a somewhat greater level of satisfaction among female instructors in their t-test analyses. According to the research cited above, there is a strong correlation between JS and gender. However, the results of previous studies are still in question and require additional investigation. The following theories may be tested further. For male and female instructors, there is no substantial variation in their level of job satisfaction.

Intention to Replace

The term "turnover intention" (TI) refers to an employee's intention to leave his or her employer (Lee & Bruvold, 2003). Three stages are identified by Yamasaki and Patched (2015) as thinking about leaving, seeking for a new job opportunity, and making the decision to quit. Many scientists are intrigued by these phenomena. Numerous research has been conducted to investigate its relevance to various circumstances. For instance, several research studies have

demonstrated a link between OC and TI that is unfavorable (Yamazakia & Petchdee, 2015). Salami (2008) discovered that people in higher levels had a reduced desire to quit their jobs similar to Wu and Nguyen (2019), who found that low-level employees had a greater desire to quit their jobs owing to a lack of advancement chances.

Many studies on gender and TI have shown conflicting results. According to Miller and Wheeler (1992) and Rosin and Korabik (1995), for example, females had a higher TI than males in the workforce. Sicherman (1996) revealed considerable inequalities between male and female workers in terms of both voluntary and involuntary turnover. When it comes to taking time off voluntarily, women are less likely than men to do so, according to Lyness and Judiesch (2001). Female employees often quit their job for a variety of personal and domestic reasons (Lee, 2012). Cotton and Tuttle (1986) found no correlation between gender and TI in their meta-analysis. Also, association between gender and TI has been shown in the investigations of Karatepe et al. (2006) and Wang, (2017). Gender-based employee TI has to be studied more thoroughly in light of the above-mentioned facts. Based on the review of the relevant papers, the following hypotheses were generated for future investigation. Regarding the issue of teacher turnover, there is a large gap between male and female teachers.

METHODOLOGY

A number of survey questions have been taken from earlier research and used in this study (Schutte, et al., 1998; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979; Allen & Meyer, 1990; Macdonald & MacIntyr, 1997). In this study, the population was comprised of participants from all universities of Pakistan, and eight universities from only Punjab province was selected randomly. Total numbers of 550 lecturers were selected through simple random sampling technique.

Table 1. Sample from selected universities

Sr No	University Name	Male	Female	Total
1	Bahauddin Zakariya University	34	34	68
2	Ghazi University	34	34	68
3	University of Education Lahore	34	34	68
4	University of the Punjab	34	34	68
5	The Islamia University of Bahawalpur	34	34	68
6	The University of Lahore	34	34	68
7	University of Gujrat	34	34	68
8	University of Sargodha	37	37	74
	Total	275	275	550

However, small changes were made to the instrument in light of the socio-cultural elements of Pakistani universities. A pilot study was done at five institutions to validate the instrument. Using a random drawing, 150 people were asked to complete and submit a questionnaire. Over 100 questionnaires were submitted; however, only one hundred thirty-two could be used since they included all the information the researchers were looking for. An exploratory factor analysis was performed by using maximum likelihood of estimation. This led to the creation of four different grading schemes as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Questionnaires response rate

No.	Gender	Sent	Returned	%	Responses Rate	
					Total	Total %
University 1	Male	40	34	76%	41	82%
	Female	45	34	88%		
University 2	Male	40	34	72%	38	76%
	Female	45	34	80%		
University 3	Male	40	34	88%	41	82%
	Female	45	34	76%		
University 4	Male	40	34	72%	40	80%
	Female	45	34	88%		



University 5	Male	40	34	84%	39	78%
	Female	45	34	72%		
University 6	Male	40	34	80%	39	78%
	Female	45	34	76%		
University 7	Male	40	34	80%	41	82%
	Female	45	34	84%		
University 8	Male	40	37	68%	38	76%
	Female	45	37	84%		
Total		680	550	77%	550	77%
Total Useable			550		550	100%

Table 3. Cronbach's alpha 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, Steers, 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 andMeyer (1990)

A total of 33 items with a Cronbach's reliability coefficient of .61 to .69 were found in Table 2: Thirteen (13) items with .65 to .71 Cronbach's reliability coefficient of the Organization Commitment Scale of Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979), fifteen (15) items with .61 to .69 Cronbach's reliability coefficient of the Job Satisfaction Scale of Macdonald and Macintyre (1997), and thirteen (13) items with .61 to .69 Cronbach's reliability coefficient of the Schutte's Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (Schutte et al., 1998). Schutte et al. (1998), Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979), Macdonald and MacIntyr (1997), and Allen and Meyer (1990) models have similar factor analysis findings. A Likert-scale questionnaire was used to gather data ranging from "Strongly Agree (5)" to "Strongly Disagree (0)." The tool also included questions on respondents' demographics. 550 lecturers from eleven institutions in Lahore, Pakistan, had been randomly chosen and questionnaires were delivered to each one of them. A total of 424 questionnaires were returned, with a response rate of 77%. Due to a paucity of information supplied by the respondents, only 416 questions (i.e., 203 from males and 213 from females) were included in the study.

FINDINGS

Table 4. Gender wise emotional intelligence

Gender	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	t	p*
Female	275	103.1449	6.2353	3.672	0.0003
Male	275	101.0526	5.3721		

*p = 0.05

Table 5. Gender wise turnover intentions

Gender	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	t	p*
Female	275	41.014	3.8126	2.385	0.0175
Male	275	40.0246	4.5913		

*p = 0.05

As seen in Table 4, females have a greater EI than men. Calculated t = 3.672, on the other hand, is higher than tc=1.966. It reveals a gender gap in emotional intelligence (EI) among instructors. 0.0003 is the p-value. The H1 hypothesis is ruled out due to a p-value of less than 0.05. Table 5 demonstrates that the TI of female respondents is greater than that of male respondents. Calculated t = 2.385, on the other hand, is more than tc = 1.966. It shows a difference in TI between men and women. As of this writing, the significance level is 0.0175. The H2 hypothesis is ruled out due to a p-value of less than 0.05.

Table6. Gender wise organization commitment

Gender	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	t	p*
Female	275	42.2957	6.81263	0.446	0.6556
Male	275	40.5369	7.59135		

*p =0.05

Table7. Gender wise job satisfaction

Gender	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	t	p*
Female	275	48.45070423	6.8037	12.14	0.00
Male	275	41.26086957	5.20467		

*p =0.05

Female respondents had greater OC than men, according to Table 6. However, the computed value of $t = 0.446$ $t_c = 1.966$ is not accurate. It is safe to say that there are not any differences in the OC of male and female school personnel. The p-value is 0.6556. The H3 hypothesis is accepted since the p value is greater than 0.05. Women have greater TI scores than men, according to Table 7. However, $t = 12.14 > t_c = 1.966$ is the computed value. Male and female JS instructors may vary in their approach to the subject. Similarly, the p-value is $p = 0.00$, less than 0.05 in significance. As a result, the H4 theory has been ruled out.

DISCUSSION

According to the findings of this study, H_1 is disregarded since female instructors have a greater degree of EI than male teachers. The results are corroborated by the research conducted by Anari (2012), which found that females had a greater EI. According to Goleman (1998), Mandell & Perwani (2003) and Mayer & Geher (1996), there is no association between gender and EI. H_2 is rejected since the results show that the TI of male and female professors varied significantly. Sicherman's research also lends credence to the conclusions (1996). Researchers Weisberg and Kirschenbaum (1993) agree with our findings, arguing that gender differences are critical in determining how a turnover choice is made. Despite this, our results contrast from those of Wang (2017), Cotton and Tuttle (1986) which show that gender has no significant impact on TI.

Employees are more likely to remain with a business that they have a strong sense of loyalty to (Mowday et al., 1982; Morrow, 1983). In this research, no significant differences were identified between the OC of male and female professors. Other investigations, such as Anari (2012) and Çoğaltay (2013), back up the results (2015). Farooq and Zia (2013), as well as Aydin et al. (2011) found that, as compared to their female counterparts, male instructors had greater levels of OC. Lastly, H_4 is also rejected since the results show that male and female instructors' JS vary significantly. Our findings are corroborated by the findings of Anari (2012) and Kim (2005). Sumner and Niederman (2003) and Aguilar and Vlosky (2008) showed no link between gender and JS. However, our results vary from these investigations.

CONCLUSION

The goal of this research was to discover the effects of gender on emotional intelligence, organizational commitment, work happiness, and intention to leave of university professors. According to the research, male and female instructors' EI scores are significantly different, but there is no significant difference in OC between the two sexes. The conclusions of this study have been verified by previous research. A university's greatest asset is a professor with a high EI, OR, JS, and a low TI score. Teachers, who are accepted and understood by their colleagues, can develop themselves, control their career path, and lead their pupils to be in a better position for them to be accepted and understood by their peers. We feel that researcher comprehension and university management's awareness may be improved by these results.

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