

Emotional Intelligence and Its Relationship with Demographic Variables and Job Satisfaction: A Study Among University-Level Teachers in Nepal

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Abstract

Given the importance of emotional intelligence (EI) in teaching, this study aims to identify the status of EI of university-level teachers and examine its relationship with various demographic variables and job satisfaction. The study sample comprised 156 teachers associated with four major universities in Nepal. Data were collected using a structured questionnaire. The collected data were then analyzed applying descriptive and inferential statistics. The results indicate that the status of EI among university-level teachers in Nepal is moderately high. Among the four demographic variables, only the gender, in favour of the female, was found to influence EI. Likewise, a positive relationship was identified between EI and job satisfaction. Since females are found to be more emotionally intelligent than males, strategies to include more females in the faculty pool could be an important step for higher education institutions in Nepal. Besides, universities and affiliated colleges may incorporate the elements of EI in their faculty development programs to enhance teachers' job satisfaction. This study is probably the first to investigate EI in relation to demographic variables and job satisfaction in Nepalese higher education, and hence this work could be a springboard for more advanced research.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, Demographic variables, Job satisfaction, University-level teachers, Nepal

Introduction

Emotional intelligence (EI) has gained unprecedented prominence within the literature in psychology, education, and management over the last number of years (Hodzic, Scharfen, Ripoll, Holling, & Zenasm, 2017; Lee, Kwon, & Richards, 2019). Described as the ability to recognize, assimilate, understand, and regulate emotions to achieve specific goals (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), EI gives a professional a competitive edge. Goleman (1995) argued that EI is a key factor contributing to professional and personal success. His argument was built on the fact that IQ explains only 20% of the success in life, whereas the rest 80% could be attributed to EI. Thus, EI is appearing as an increasingly proven predictor of individual and organizational performance in almost every field.

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It may be seen that quite a few teachers—whether at the school level or the university level—are academically brilliant but unsuccessful in teaching. Such a situation may trigger low job satisfaction of teachers and ultimately high turnover. The reasons for this state of affairs may be attributed to individuals, institutions, or other external factors. However, psychologists opine that one of the main reasons may be due to the lack of adequate emotional intelligence (Sungoh, 2007). In a similar vein, Antonakis, Ashkanasy, and Dasborough (2009) have noted that EI plays a crucial role in jobs involving much interpersonal relationships and communications, such as sales, politics, psychotherapist, and teacher. Thus, the clear recognition and manifestation of emotional intelligence is highly important for teachers in the classroom and beyond (Kremenitzer, 2005)..

Acknowledging the significance of emotional intelligence in teaching and other jobs, particularly involving much social interaction and influence, several pieces of research have been done in different contexts. Several studies have been done in relation to the status of EI, the influence of demographic variables on EI, and the relationship of EI with job satisfaction among employees, managers, teachers, and so on. A study by Nagar (2017) found that commercial bank managers of Rajasthan, India, had a high level of emotional intelligence. The study also demonstrated that age and length of service have significant positive effects on emotional intelligence, whereas gender, educational qualification, and marital status had no significant effect on EI. However, a recent study conducted among academicians in a South African higher education institution revealed that age, gender, and length of service do not play any significant role in the EI levels of respondents (Marembo & Chinyamurindi, 2018).

Although many researchers and practitioners have been optimistic about the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, it has still doubtful legitimacy. Studies have shown a positive, negative, or no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. A study by Anari (2012) showed a positive relationship between EI and teachers' job satisfaction. In contrast, the findings of a study by Platsidou (2010) revealed no significant association between job satisfaction and overall EI and individual EI constructs.

However, it seems that none of the past studies have investigated different matters of emotional intelligence, including the causes and consequences of EI within the context of university-level teachers in Nepal. As a result, policymakers and executives of Nepalese universities as well as university-affiliated private colleges are not able to make evidence-based appropriate decisions vis-à-vis recruitment and selection, socialization, and development of their academic staff.

Against this backdrop, the study aims to uncover the status of emotional intelligence and examine the

influence of demographic variables on EI among university-level teachers by taking a sample from four major universities in Nepal. This study also attempts to determine the link between EI and job satisfaction. The findings of the study can provide much-needed insights into emotional intelligence in the Nepalese context and may serve as a good starting point towards the long journey of enhancing the emotional intelligence of university-level teachers of Nepal for the advantage of all concerned, including teachers, students, and also the higher education institutions.

The rest parts of this paper are structured as follows. The next section begins with a review of selected theoretical and empirical literature in the field, along with the conceptual framework and statement of hypotheses. This is followed by research methods. The results of the study are presented and discussed thereafter. Finally, the conclusion and implications of the study are drawn.

Literature Review

Theoretical Review of Emotional Intelligence

Salovey and Mayer (1990) were probably the first to introduce the term “emotional intelligence” comprehensively in the academic literature, even though the root of the concept can be traced back to the studies in the 1920s when Thorndike articulated the concept of social intelligence (Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Thorndike & Stein, 1937). Goleman (1995) further enriched the concept of emotional intelligence (EI), in which he noted that EI is far more important than IQ. During the late 1990s and the 2000s, several models were developed to measure the emotional intelligence of individuals. As of now, there are four theoretical models commonly used by the academic community. They are: 1) the EI ability model (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000), 2) emotional-social intelligence model (Bar-On, 1997; Bar-On, 2006), 3) emotional competencies model (Goleman, 1998, 2001; Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000), and 4) the trait emotional intelligence model (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007).

The EI ability model comprises four components of EI abilities: perception, assimilation, understanding, and regulation of emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), whereas the emotional-social intelligence model consists of intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, adaptability, stress management, and general mood (Bar-On, 1997; 2006). The five high-level factors of emotional-social intelligence are further divided into 15 sub-factors. Bar-On’s emotional-social intelligence model is generally considered more comprehensive than Mayer and Solovey’s EI ability model (Fernandez-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006).

The next model is the emotional competencies model, which was developed to predict personal outcomes and organizational effectiveness in the workplace (Goleman, 1998; Boyatzis & Sala, 2004). Two versions are widely used for the measurement of emotional intelligence built on this model. They are: emotional

competence inventory (ECI) and emotional competence inventory, second version (ECI-2). The ECI-2 comprises four major blocks: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management, which are further subdivided into 18 competencies (Sala, 2002; Boyatzis & Sala, 2004). The fourth model of EI is the trait emotional intelligence model, which contains many of the personal traits included in previous models (Petrides et al., 2007). Well-being, sociability, self-control, and emotionality are the four elements included in the trait emotional intelligence model.

Among the above-discussed models, the emotional-social intelligence model and trait emotional intelligence model are operationalized through self-report measures, whereas the EI ability model is implemented through ability tests. Finally, the emotional competencies model relies on a multi-rater instrument. However, Cherniss (2010) argues that no model is free from limitations and, therefore, it is better to use a customized instrument that is more sensitive to the field of investigation and the research context.

Review of Related Research Studies

Several studies in the past have explored the status of emotional intelligence and its relationship with demographic variables and job satisfaction. A study conducted among 424 employees from across nine different industry sectors including education, banking & insurance, and other service sector organizations revealed that the level of EI among employees was moderately high. The study also revealed that the demographic variables including gender, age, educational qualification, and work experience had significant effects on emotional intelligence (Pooja & Kumar, 2016). Emotional intelligence scores were in favour of females, high age (51-60 years), non-technical education, and long work experience (16-20 years). Similarly, a recent study conducted in Australia reported that the level of EI among radiation therapists was moderately high, and the EI scores were high among radiation therapists having a higher level of education, female, and young (Stami, Ritin, & Dominique, 2018).

However, Yoke and Panatik (2016) did not find any significant differences in the levels of EI among Malaysian public school teachers based on gender and work experience. In a similar vein, a recent study conducted among bank employees in India showed no effect of age, education level, gender, and work experience on the levels of EI (Karthikeyan & Lalwani, 2019).

Interestingly, some studies have reported mixed findings. For instance, a study conducted among Turkish teachers revealed that age and work experience positively affect emotional intelligence whereas gender and education level of the teacher had no significant effect on emotional intelligence (Biol, Atamturk, Silman, & Sensoy, 2009). A study conducted in the education and banking sectors of Sri Lanka showed a

positive relationship between academic qualification and EI, no relationship between gender and EI, and an inverse relationship between work experience and EI (Jayakody & Dharmasiri, 2017).

Likewise, there are several research studies concerning the relationship between EI and job satisfaction. A study conducted among newly qualified Malaysian dentists indicated emotional intelligence as a valid predictor of job satisfaction (Pau & Sabri, 2015). In a similar manner, a study carried out among 120 Ghanaian nurses showed a significant positive relationship between EI and job satisfaction (Tagoe & Quarshie, 2016). However, no differences between males and females were observed in the study vis-à-vis the levels of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.

A recent study conducted among 238 Italian school level teachers suggested that the greater level of emotional intelligence might lead to a higher level of job satisfaction of teachers by preventing negative work experience among them (D'Amico, Geraci, & Tarantino, 2020). But research conducted among the academicians of Indian and Egyptian private universities and colleges revealed no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction (Badway, Srivastava, & Sadek, 2014). Likewise, a recent study conducted among high school physical educators in the US showed that EI was negatively associated with unpleasant emotions, and unpleasant emotion was negatively associated with job satisfaction (Lee et al., 2019).

Conceptual Background and Statement of Hypotheses

Scholars have argued that demographic variables play significant role in shaping an individual's emotional intelligence. According to Gur, Gunning-Dixon, Bilker, and Gur (2002), high EI among females is attributed to biological factors such as "the larger volume of cortex devoted to emotional modulation" (p. 998), and social factors such as family upbringing where they are taught to be more empathetic. Likewise, Bar-On (1997) and Mayer et al. (2000) have asserted that EI has generally a positive relationship with age although it may plateau in the 40s age. In general, people also expect that emotional intelligence increases with the increase in education level (Al-Busaidi et al., 2019). In the similar vein, Triarchic theory (Sternberg, 1985) also contends that the internal world of individuals, experiences gained over time, and the contextual factors are the drivers of the intelligent behavior of individuals.

Despite the arguments of scholars regarding the relationship between various demographic variables and EI, it appears that there is a lack of substantive theories indicating the nature of relationship between demographic variables and EI. Moreover, existing studies have provided conflicting results on the relationship between demographic factors and EI. Thus, the various hypotheses vis-à-vis the relationship between demographic variables and EI are stated as follows:

H₁: There is no influence of gender on the emotional intelligence of university-level teachers.

H₂: There is no influence of age on the emotional intelligence of university-level teachers.

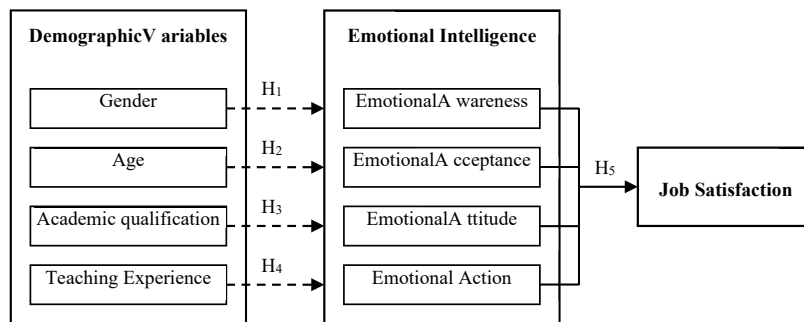
H₃: There is no influence of academic qualification on the emotional intelligence of university-level teachers.

H₄: There is no influence of the teaching experience on the emotional intelligence of university-level teachers.

However, there are several theoretical underpinnings regarding the positive relationship between EI and job satisfaction. For instance, according to Affective Events Theory, emotions largely determine how employees react workplace situations, and their reactions affect job satisfaction and performance (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Likewise, Locke (1969) ascribes job satisfaction as a consequence of complex emotional reactions in the workplace. Prominent scholars in the field have also argued that EI triggers higher job satisfaction by promoting self-respect, positive moods, and a feeling of emotional well being and reducing negative affective emotions (Salovey & Mayer 1990; Goleman, 1995). Thus, on the grounds of theories and concepts discussed above as well as the overwhelming past research evidence (Anari, 2012; Tagoe & Quarshie, 2016; Shukla & Srivastava, 2016; D’Amico et al., 2020), it may be postulated that highly emotionally intelligent individuals experience continuous positive feelings that trigger higher level of job satisfaction. Thus, next hypothesis of the study can be stated as:

H₅: There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among university-level teachers.

Based on the hypothesized relationships of EI with demographic variables and job satisfaction as stated in the hypotheses 1 to 5 above, a conceptual framework has been depicted as shown in the Figure 1.



(Source: Author developed)

Figure 1: Conceptual framework for examining the relationship of emotional intelligence with demographic variables and job satisfaction

In the fifth hypothesis, a positive relationship between EI and job satisfaction generally indicates a cause-and-effect relationship between EI and job satisfaction. However, some scholars argue, “the relationship between the dependent and independent variables does not necessarily imply causation, particularly in cross-sectional studies” (Malhotra & Dash, 2010, p. 212). Thus, the hypothesis simply states a positive relationship between the two variables rather than one variable (i.e., emotional intelligence) causes a better status of the other variable (i.e., job satisfaction).

Research Methodology

Population and Sampling Framework

The population of this study comprises the teachers from four major universities of Nepal – Tribhuvan University, Pokhara University, Kathmandu University, and Purbanchal University– and the various private colleges affiliated to these universities. Since most of the population is concentrated in Kathmandu valley (i.e., Kathmandu, Bhaktapur and Lalitpur districts of Nepal), stratified random sampling was done within Kathmandu valley. Stratified random sampling was used in order to ensure adequate representation of teachers associated with both public and private sector academic institutions. To this end, first of all, certain number of academic institutions from both public and private sector were randomly selected and then individual faculty members were randomly chosen from the pool of faculties provided by the concerned institutions until it reaches the desired number.

In total, 200 questionnaires were distributed to the identified teachers. Among them, 156 teachers returned the duly filled in questionnaires. As suggested by Tabachnik and Fidell (2001), this is an adequate size of the sample for regression analysis that has been used in this study. In this study sample, most of the teachers were males (79.5%) and there were only 20.5% females. In terms of age, 19.9% were young (23-33 years), nearly half of the respondents (47.4%) were middle-aged (34-44 years) and 32.7% were older adults/old (45 years-above). Regarding the academic qualification, 46.8% had a Master’s degree, 34% had an M. Phil. degree, and 19.2% had a Ph.D. degree. The distribution of teaching experience was more on the higher side (11 years-above: 44.9%; 6-10 years: 28.2%; and 5 years or less: 26.9%) than the lower side. The sample included 56.4% of teachers from the university-affiliated private colleges, and the rest (43.6%) were from universities and their constituent campuses.

Data Collection Instrument and Procedure

A structured questionnaire was used as an instrument for data collection. The emotional intelligence part of the questionnaire was adapted from Sungoh (2007), in which the items were specially designed for university-level teachers, and the instrument was tested among 500 teachers. Likewise, the items

under job satisfaction were adapted from past studies (Al-Rubaish, Rahim, Abumadini, & Wosornu, 2011; Vijayanthi, Shreenivasan, & Roy, 2014). But the whole questionnaire was finalized only after pretesting with senior university-level teachers and experts in the area of study. The final version of the data collection instrument was then distributed to the identified respondents with a cover letter stating the objectives of the research and the assurance of treating information with the utmost confidentiality.

Validity and Reliability

Validity is concerned with measuring the right thing whereas reliability indicates accuracy in measurement (Sekaran, 1992). The validity of the study was ensured through an adequate review of theoretical literature in preparing the data collection instrument and by adapting the tested scales in the previous studies along with pretesting of the scales in a given research context. Additionally, adequate correlations among items under different constructs indicated convergent validity ($p < 0.05$).

As suggested by Neuman (2006), the reliability of the study was confirmed by using different measures: establishing a clear conceptual framework, using a precise level of measurement, and pretesting the data collection instrument. Moreover, inter-item consistency reliability statistics for all constructs were obtained by calculating Cronbach's Alpha coefficients and the values were found to be within the range of 0.60 to 0.90. Despite Nunnally's (1978) recommendation of 0.70 as a threshold level of Cronbach's Alpha to ensure the reliability of constructs, it is not uncommon to find low Cronbach's alpha values in constructs having less than ten items (Pallant, 2005). In such cases, 0.6 can be the lower limit of acceptability (Hair, Tatham & Black, 2006). In the contrary, if the value of alpha is higher than 0.90 it may indicate redundant items in the construct (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Thus, all constructs measuring emotional intelligence and job satisfaction were adequately reliable and, at the same time, there was no problem of redundancy.

Statistical Techniques for Data Analysis

The study uses both descriptive and inferential statistics for data analysis. Means were calculated to measure the central tendency of constructs and correlation coefficients were obtained to measure the strengths of relationships among items under each construct for validating the constructs. Independent-samples t-test, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), and standard multiple regression analyses were used to make inferences about stated hypotheses. The assumption of normality of data was tested using the Shapiro Wilk (S-W) test, and the data were found to meet the assumption. Despite the availability of different statistical techniques for the normality test, the S-W test was employed as it is generally recommended for samples up to 2000 (Garson, 2012). Moreover, the assumptions of normality, linearity,

and homoscedasticity were tested and met in the regression analysis through the inspection of histograms with normal curves superimposed, normal p-p plots, and scatterplots.

Results and Discussions

This section of the paper presents the results regarding the status of the emotional intelligence of university-level teachers in Nepal and its relationship with demographic variables and job satisfaction along with the discussions.

Status of Emotional Intelligence

Table 1 shows the status of the emotional intelligence of university-level teachers in Nepal, measured in a five-point Likert scale, vis-à-vis four different constructs—emotional awareness, emotional acceptance, emotional attitude, and emotional action.

Table 1: Status of emotional intelligence (EI) of university-level teachers in Nepal

Emotional Intelligence (EI) Dimensions	Mean		
	Public Sector Institutions	Private Sector Institutions	Overall
Emotional Awareness	3.83	3.54	3.67
Emotional Acceptance	3.85	3.69	3.76
Emotional Attitude	3.79	3.72	3.75
Emotional Action	3.78	3.81	3.80
Overall Emotional Intelligence	3.81	3.69	3.74

Table 1 shows that the emotional intelligence level of university-level teachers in Nepal is moderately high. However, teachers from the public sector academic institutions are more emotionally intelligent than the teachers from the private sector academic institutions. As reported in Table 2, the independent-samples t-test also reveals that the overall EI of teachers from public sector academic institutions is significantly higher than the EI of teachers from private sector institutions ($p < 0.05$).

Table 2: t-tests results of EI by sector of institution

	Levene's Test Results		t-test Results	
	F	Sig.	t	Sig.
Overall Emotional Intelligence	0.406	.525	2.251	.026

The result regarding the status of emotional intelligence corroborates with the findings of a study by Pooja and Kumar (2016). They found a moderately high level of EI among the employees of the service sector organizations in India. However, this finding contradicts the finding of a study conducted among the undergraduate accounting students in the USA, which revealed that the students had below the average

level of emotional intelligence (Bay & McKeage, 2006). The empirical evidence based on the study of nine countries suggests that there is a positive influence of culture on emotional intelligence, particularly in the collectivistic, long-term orientation, and uncertainty avoidance cultures (Gunkel, Schlagel, & Engle, 2013). Since Nepal is also characterized by the collectivistic and uncertainty avoidance cultures (Gautam, Dick, Wanger, Upadhyay, & Davis, 2005), the reason behind the moderately high level of EI among university-level teachers may be the influence of Nepalese socio-cultural factors.

Likewise, some studies have reported high EI among private school teachers (Mehta, 2015) whereas some others have shown high EI among public school teachers (Garg & Kapri, 2016). Conflicting results from study to study are not unexpected given that the differences in individual qualities such as adaptability, interpersonal ability, and intrapersonal ability across organizational contexts (Malekar & Mohaty, 2009) and the use of diverse theoretical models to measure emotional intelligence.

Influence of Demographic Variables on Teachers' Emotional Intelligence

Influence of Gender on Emotional Intelligence

Table 3 portrays the mean values of emotional intelligence for male and female and the t-test results for the difference between their means.

Table 3: t-test results of EI by gender

EI Dimensions	Mean		Levene's Test Results		t-test Results	
	Male	Female	F	Sig.	t	Sig.
Emotional Awareness	3.60	3.91	1.907	.169	-2.667	.008
Emotional Acceptance	3.73	3.86	1.147	.286	-1.157	.249
Emotional Attitude	3.74	3.80	5.760	.018	(-0.521)	(.605)
Emotional Action	3.78	3.85	0.013	.911	-0.681	.497
Overall Emotional Intelligence	3.71	3.85	1.475	.226	-2.122	.035

Note: Under t-test results, figures in the brackets denote the values when two groups have unequal variances.

The mean scores and the t-test results presented in Table 3 show that female teachers have high levels of emotional intelligence than male teachers in Nepalese universities. Particularly by looking at the t-test results of overall emotional intelligence, the first hypothesis of the study is rejected ($p < 0.05$). It implies that gender influences the emotional intelligence of university-level teachers.

Even though this finding is inconsistent with some previous studies (Nagar, 2017; Karthikeyan & Lalwani, 2019), the result corroborates with the overwhelming number of past studies such as by Anari (2012), Stami et al. (2018), and Kant (2019). This result is consistent with the argument that females are better at recognizing, appraising, and regulating their emotions than males (Thayer & Johnsen, 2000). It may be attributed to the biological (such as larger volume of cortex devoted to emotional modulation) as well as

social factors (such as family environments) that trigger high EI among females (Gur et al., 2002).

Influence of Age on Emotional Intelligence

Table 4 shows the mean values of emotional intelligence for young, middle-aged, and old teachers and the one-way ANOVA results for the difference between their means.

Table 4: One-way ANOVA results of EI by age

EI Dimensions	Mean			Levene's Test Results		One-way ANOVA Results	
	Young	M-aged	Old	L-stat.	Sig.	F	Sig.
Emotional Awareness	3.60	3.66	3.71	1.725	.182	0.304	.738
Emotional Acceptance	3.76	3.69	3.85	0.748	.475	1.134	.325
Emotional Attitude	3.78	3.74	3.74	0.946	.390	0.101	.904
Emotional Action	3.72	3.78	3.86	1.178	.311	0.781	.460
Overall Emotional Intelligence	3.72	3.73	3.79	2.141	.121	0.712	.492

Though the level of EI is higher among old teachers compared to young and middle-aged teachers, the one-way ANOVA results in Table 4 indicate that the differences are not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$). Thus, we do not reject the second hypothesis of the study. It implies that there is no sufficient evidence to believe the influence of age on the teacher's emotional intelligence.

This finding is in agreement with some studies (Chan, 2004; Anari, 2012; Marembo & Chinyamurindi, 2018) and in contrast with some other previous evidence (Pooja & Kumar, 2016; Nagar, 2017). Thus, despite scholars' arguments and some empirical evidence in favour of the positive relationship between age and EI levels of individuals (Mayer et al., 2000; Gautam & Khurana, 2019), age did not show any significant influence on the level of emotional intelligence among university-level teachers in Nepal. Even though the mean differences are not statistically significant, it partially confirms with the evidence-based arguments of Bar-On (1997) and Stein and Book (2006). They have demonstrated that EI rises slowly and steadily from late teens and reaches a peak in the 40s age.

Influence of Academic Qualification on Emotional Intelligence

Table 5 states the mean values of emotional intelligence among university-level teachers in Nepal, based on academic qualification, and the one-way ANOVA results for the difference between their means.

Table 5: One-way ANOVA results of EI by academic qualification

EI Dimensions	Mean			Levene's Test Results		One-way ANOVA Results	
	Low Exp.	Med. Exp.	High Exp.	L-stat.	Sig.	F	Sig.
Emotional Awareness	3.72	3.74	3.59	1.085	.341	1.059	.349
Emotional Acceptance	3.81	3.74	3.74	0.218	.804	0.264	.768
Emotional Attitude	3.80	3.76	3.71	0.160	.853	0.408	.666
Emotional Action	3.85	3.70	3.83	0.274	.761	1.099	.336
Overall Emotional Intelligence	3.79	3.73	3.72	0.265	.768	0.686	.505

The one-way ANOVA results presented in Table 5 reveal that all the dimensions of EI are unaffected by the academic qualification among university-level teachers ($p > 0.05$) and hence we cannot reject the third hypothesis of the study.

In contrast to general expectations that higher academic qualification triggers greater emotional intelligence (Al-Busaidi et al., 2019), this study did not provide adequate statistical evidence to claim the influence of academic qualification on the emotional intelligence of university-level teachers. This finding substantiates the finding of Birol et al. (2009) that reported no differences in the emotional intelligence of school-level teachers in Turkey, based on their academic qualification. In the same line, Nagar (2017) also found no effect of academic qualification on the emotional intelligence of bank managers in various districts of Rajasthan, India. No significant influence of academic qualification on the EI of university-level teachers in Nepal may be attributed to the fact that sometimes communication and other soft skills play more important roles than technical or other specific qualification, in shaping the emotional intelligence of individuals, as argued by Goleman (1995).

Influence of Teaching Experience on Emotional Intelligence

Table 6 exhibits the mean EI scores of university-level teachers in Nepal, based on teaching experience and the one-way ANOVA results for the difference between their mean emotional intelligence scores.

Table 6: One-way ANOVA results of EI by teaching experience

EI Dimensions	Mean			Levene's Test Results		One-way ANOVA Results	
	Low Exp.	Med. Exp.	High Exp.	L-stat.	Sig.	F	Sig.
Emotional Awareness	3.72	3.74	3.59	1.085	.341	1.059	.349
Emotional Acceptance	3.81	3.74	3.74	0.218	.804	0.264	.768
Emotional Attitude	3.80	3.76	3.71	0.160	.853	0.408	.666
Emotional Action	3.85	3.70	3.83	0.274	.761	1.099	.336
Overall Emotional Intelligence	3.79	3.73	3.72	0.265	.768	0.686	.505

The results presented in Table 6 show that there is no significant difference in the levels of EI among low experienced (5 years or below), medium experienced (6-10 years), and highly experienced teachers (above 10 years) ($p > 0.05$). Thus, we cannot reject the null hypothesis. It denotes that there is no adequate evidence to state teaching experience as an influencing factor in a teacher's emotional intelligence.

This finding is in consonance with the finding of Marembo and Chinyamurindi (2018) but contradicts the finding of Mishra and Mohapatra (2010). Marembo and Chinyamurindi (2018) found no significant influence of teaching experience on EI of academicians in a South African academic institution, whereas

Mishra and Mohapatra (2010) found that experienced managers scored significantly higher EI scores compared to less experienced managers in the Indian context. The probable reason for the lack of evidence in favour of the positive relationship between teaching experience and EI can be because of the choice of EI measurement tool (Yoke & Panatik, 2016). This may also be explained by the fact that there is a lack of adequate soft skills training for both early career and experienced teachers, mainly because of limited institutional resources and capacities in the Nepalese context, and thus, their EI levels might not have significantly differed. Despite the lack of statistical significance, it is also interesting to note that highly experienced teachers scored less on EI in the Nepalese context. But, it could be ascribed to the fact that most of the highly experienced teachers belong to the older adult group and research evidence have shown that that EI rises with age only up to young adult age and tend to decline after that (Kumar & Muniandy, 2012), and thus, we may expect a slightly low level of emotional intelligence among highly experienced teachers.

Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction

Table 7 points out the key results of standard multiple regression analysis for different job satisfaction (JS) variables against the various dimensions of emotional intelligence (EI).

Table 7: Results of standard multiple regression analysis for job satisfaction

EI Dimensions	EI and Extrinsic JS	EI and Intrinsic JS	EI and Overall JS	VIF
Constant	1.622	1.208	1.415	-
Emotional Awareness	-0.142	-0.081	-0.111	1.127
Emotional Acceptance	0.199*	0.431***	0.315***	1.165
Emotional Attitude	0.089	0.104	0.096	1.117
Emotional Action	0.348**	0.208*	0.278**	1.050
R ²	0.115	0.210	0.202	-
F-value	4.892**	10.060***	9.940***	-

N = 156; *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001.

Figures in Table 7 reveal that extrinsic job satisfaction, intrinsic job satisfaction, and overall job satisfaction are significantly positively correlated with emotional acceptance and emotional action. Particularly by observing the statistical significance of F-value for overall job satisfaction, the stated hypothesis, “there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among university-level teachers” is accepted (R² = 0.202; p<0.001). Table 7 also demonstrates that the VIF (variance inflation factor) values are less than the suggested limit of 10 (Pallant, 2005) and hence there is no problem of multicollinearity in the regression models. Results also show that emotional acceptance and emotional

action are the statistically significant variables contributing to the positive relation between EI and job satisfaction.

This finding corroborates with the overwhelming research evidence in the past (Anari, 2012; Tagoe & Quarshie, 2016; Shrestha & Baniya, 2016; D'Amico et al. 2020). For instance, a study conducted among 84 Iranian high school teachers (Anari, 2012) and a study conducted among 229 employees from 27 public and private organizations of Nepal (Shrestha & Baniya, 2016) showed a positive relation between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. But, research conducted in private higher educational institutions in Egypt and India showed that the link between EI and job satisfaction was insignificant (Badway et al., 2014). Thus, despite some differences across contexts, this study substantiates the arguments of the proponents of EI. Different scholars have noted that emotional intelligence, particularly the emotional action or regulation, may cause a higher level of job satisfaction (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Zeidner, Matthews & Roberts, 2012).

Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results

Even though results have already been presented and discussed in the earlier sections of this paper, Table 8 summarizes the hypotheses testing results for combined and concise comprehension of the study findings vis-à-vis different hypotheses.

Table 8: Summary of findings vis-à-vis different hypotheses

Hypotheses	Results	Significant Variables
H1: There is no influence of gender on emotional intelligence of university-level teachers.	Rejected; positive for female	Emotional awareness
H2: There is no influence of age on emotional intelligence of university-level teachers.	Not rejected	-
H3: There is no influence of academic qualification on emotional intelligence of university-level teachers.	Not rejected	-
H4: There is no influence of the teaching experience on emotional intelligence of university-level teachers.	Not rejected	-
H5: There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among university-level teachers.	Accepted	Emotional acceptance, Emotional action

As shown in Table 8, this study reveals that only the gender, in favour of females, influences emotional intelligence. The results may be ascribed to the various factors including biological attributes in favour of females in emotion processing (Gur et al., 2002), the importance of soft skills and abilities than technical

knowledge in EI (Goleman, 1995; Bar-On, 2000), the role of sociocultural context in shaping different dimensions of EI (Gunkel et al., 2013) than the role of age or experience, and so on. However, a separate study is needed to pinpoint why only the gender, not other selected demographic variables, influences EI of university-level teachers in Nepal. Besides the points discussed above (alongside the Table 7) in the paper, the positive relationship between EI and job satisfaction may also be attributed to the fact that EI may reduce unpleasant emotions and emotional exhaustion, which may ultimately result in high job satisfaction (Lee et al., 2019).

Conclusion and Implications

The results show that the status of emotional intelligence among university-level teachers in Nepal is moderately high. However, teachers associated with public sector academic institutions are more emotionally intelligent than teachers from the private sector institutions. Among the four demographic variables included in the study, only the gender, in favour of females, was found to influence the EI of teachers. The evidence from this study suggests that emotionally intelligent teachers are also satisfied with their job. Amongst the four EI dimensions, emotional acceptance and emotional action influence teachers' job satisfaction, whereas emotional awareness and emotional attitude do not have any significant roles in their job satisfaction. To sum up, the university-level teachers in Nepal have a moderately high level of EI, females are more emotionally intelligent than males, and the EI of teachers influences their job satisfaction.

This paper has contributed additional knowledge in the academic literature and provided much-needed insights into the influence of demographic factors on EI, and its relation to job satisfaction among university-level teachers. Considering the substantially low level of EI among teachers associated with private sector academic institutions, they need to pay more attention to enhancing the EI levels of their teachers through relevant interventions such as soft skills training on communication and interpersonal skills that may help to foster EI levels of their teachers. A meta-analysis of 24 studies has also revealed that appropriate training interventions can be a reliable means for enhancing the EI levels among healthy adults (Hodzic et al., 2017).

Given that females are still under-represented in the university-level teaching in Nepal, strategies to include more females in the recruitment & selection process could be an important step leading to a win-win situation between academic institutions and society in Nepal. The findings of this study also imply that faculty training & development and socialization programs of universities and affiliated colleges should incorporate the elements of EI, particularly the emotional acceptance and emotional action, to enhance the level of job satisfaction among their teaching faculties.

This piece of research has some limitations, particularly the relatively small sample size and the use of self-report measures for assessing EI instead of more balanced measures such as multi-rater or 360-degree assessment. Despite these limitations, this work could provide valuable insights for policy decisions to the Nepalese higher education institutions, and provide a basis for conducting more advanced research. Future researchers may take a larger sample, include additional demographic and job outcome variables in the model, use a multi-rater instrument for assessing EI, and cover different industry sectors or countries to allow for comparison among them in their studies.

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