

Assessing the Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Job Satisfaction: An Empirical Study on Faculty Members with Respect to Gender and Age

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Abstract

Emotional Intelligence is an important factor for teacher's success. The purpose of this paper is to investigate the impact of Emotional Intelligence on Job Satisfaction among the academicians in Egyptian higher education institutions. The sample consisted of 100 faculty members from four universities. Various standard statistical tools such as Karl Pearson coefficient of correlation, t-test and regression analysis were used to interpret the data. Findings suggest that Emotional Intelligence did not affect the level of Job Satisfaction. Gender did not have a significant effect on Emotional Intelligence or Job Satisfaction. Older employees had higher levels of Emotional Intelligence; however, age had no effect on reported Job Satisfaction. Gender did not have a moderating effect in Emotional Intelligence-Job Satisfaction relationship. Age had mixed findings. For the younger generation, the relationship was significantly positive. For the older generation, it was insignificant and negative. Results should be approached with caution. Limitations and future research directions are provided in the article.

Keywords: emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, age, gender, academicians, Egypt

1. Introduction

Nowadays, in the era of globalization and fierce competition, the human element has become the organization's main source of gaining a competitive edge. Among the concepts that emerged in the field of organizational behavior and gained wide attention between researchers is Emotional Intelligence (EI). EI is one part of social intelligence and is a relatively new concept. It is defined as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189).

Researchers are trying to solve the ultimate question of how to keep employees happy and retained. Job satisfaction (JS) is the term that reflects the employee's feelings towards the work and the organization as a whole (Javier & Deligero, 2014). It is believed that job satisfaction is an attitude that consists of cognitive, affective and behavioral aspects. The focus of this paper is on the affective aspect. JS is linked to the overall market value of the organization (Edmans, 2012), organizational commitment (Leite, Rdrigues, & Albuquerque, 2014), motivation (Scheers & Botha, 2014) and absenteeism of employees (Diestel, Wegge, & Schmidt, 2013) among many others.

The importance of emotions in organizational settings is pervasive. Both employers and managers need to learn to understand their emotions as well as others' feelings. This enables them to effectively communicate, make decisions and solve problems. No wonder that emotions were linked to the effectiveness of leaders (George, 2000).

It is believed that high EI is important for academicians as it reflects high social skills which help them in their interactions with students. Consequently, they succeed, develop and progress in their institutions. Nevertheless, the research in this area is still in the infancy stage (Arani, 2011). To the authors' knowledge, no published studies have discussed the variables of emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and their interactions with age and gender on academicians in Egypt. Hence, this study adds to the literature as it focuses on academicians' EI and its effect on JS.

The purpose of this study is to analyze the effect of Emotional Intelligence on Job Satisfaction, and more specifically among the academicians in private Higher Education Institutions in Egypt. In addition, the study aims to identify the effect of age and gender on the proposed relationship. The importance of this study stems from the fact that results of past research are inconsistent. Additional exploration is required to further validate other researchers' work.

2. Emotional Intelligence

The construct of emotional intelligence (EI) as an inclusive theory was discussed in the work of psychologists (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). According to them, EI is an important component of social intelligence and it is the ability of an individual to understand and control their own thoughts and sentiments. In addition, they are also capable of using this intelligence in steering their actions. EI helps an individual to encourage self-feelings, to remain positive as well as nurture relationships. Research has highlighted the importance of EI in enhancing social interactions for teachers' success in educational institutions (Arani, 2011).

Goleman (1995) has identified five elements of EI that have a significant influence on studying the behavior of the employee in an organization. The five elements are: Self-awareness which is defined as knowing and having control on self in spite of adverse situations, maintaining calmness, and making a calculated decision. Second is Self-management, defined as the handling of emotions in such a way where that even the negative emotion prepares the individual for a constructive task.

The third element is Self-motivation wherein the individual continuously moves towards his/her goal in spite of lack of resources and insufficient support from the management/fellow employees. The fourth element is Empathy wherein an employee is not only concerned about self but also understands the feelings of co-workers. The people under this category go out of the way to help those who are under frustration or feeling depressed. The final element is Social skills wherein an individual is expert in skills like networking, persuasion and can successfully convert an unfavorable situation into a favorable one by his/her social skills.

2.1 Emotional Intelligence and Gender

The literature suggests that EI also varies between men and women (Harrod & Scheer, 2005). As per their biological nature women are more intense and experience positive and negative emotions as compared to their male counterpart. From childhood, women are oriented to be emotional socially while men are taught to be strong and emotionally stable. Petrides and Furnham (2006) believe there are gender differences as each group experiences different responsibilities, life situations and stressors. Hence, in their study, they fixed the gender variable and focused on females only.

EI and gender have a limited exposure in the scientific field (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003). In the study conducted by the same aforementioned authors, they found significant difference in the mean scores on EI between men and women. In a comparative study done by Shahzad and Bagum (2012), significant difference was found between males and females on Trait EI. In addition, unlike the default assumption, males scored a higher mean score than females on the overall EI.

Investigating the relationship between emotional and social competencies in relation to gender, Hopkins and Bilimoria (2008) conducted a study consisting of 105 top level executives in financial organizations. The results show that there were no significant differences between male and female leaders with regard to displaying emotional and social competencies. The results were different, however when it was conducted among youth. Harrod and Scheer (2005) investigated the relationship between EI and demographic characteristics (age, sex, household income, parents' level of education, and location of residence) among youths aging between 16-19 years old. Results have shown that EI levels were positively related to females, parents' education, and household income. Females have shown higher EI levels than males. Moreover, EI scores differed with age.

On the other hand, the above results contradicted the findings of a study by Chan (2004), where perceived EI was investigated in teachers against their gender, age and the years of experience. There was no significant difference with regards to perceived EI in relation to gender and age differences. However, significant differences were found with regards to teaching experiences.

Another study was conducted on Italian teachers' EI and self-efficacy, results suggested that men score higher on intra-personal (self) EI while women scored higher on interpersonal (others) EI (Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2008). Shahzad and Bagum (2012) concluded that men and women have the same level of EI; however, they report different scores on the sub-dimensions of EI. Lopez-Zafra, Garcia-Retamero and Martos (2012) recommend doing research on countries with different cultural views on women.

2.2 Emotional Intelligence and Age

As per Karniz (2005) study, Emotional Intelligence also varies with age. When the survey was done at the age of ten, both genders reflected same emotions at extreme ends. Girls also showed anger like boys when they get annoyed. But when the study was done at the age of thirteen, the aggression in girls converted into passive form of reflection like backbiting, gossiping, negative grapevines and indirect revenge. Fariselli, Ghini and Freedman (2006) found a positive but weak relationship between age and EI. Their sample reported that age only predicted 1.6% of EI. The researchers recommended investigating other variables that may affect EI.

Several studies tested the interaction between EI, age and gender. Extremera, Fernandez and Salovey (2006) surveyed Spanish students. They found that females showed higher EI than males and that with aging, EI increases as well for both. Alumran and Punamaki (2008) tested the effect of EI on reaching adolescence in teenagers. They found that girls exhibit higher EI than boys. However, they did not find any age differences.

Singh and Srivastava (2012) investigated age and gender of managers and their effect on EI. Age affected EI in groups of up to 30 and 50-60 years old. However, gender did not have an impact. Gaitniece-Putane (2006) used the MANOVA test and found that age, gender and their interaction together influence EI, specifically dimensions of empathy and social responsibility. In addition, the age group 30-35 years old showed the highest scores on EI.

As per (Martines, Fernandez-Berrocal, & Extremera, 2006; Petrides & Furnham, 2006; Goleman, 1995), EI is considered as the most crucial determinant of success whether it is in work or relationship. EI is not simply a natural ability; it can develop, change and be trained in individuals (Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2008).

Arani (2011) conducted a study on English teachers in Iran focusing on EI, JS and organizational commitment. Her findings suggest a positive significant relationship between EI and JS. Concerning gender, results uncovered a significant difference in EI with females scoring higher than males. No difference was found between both groups with regard to JS. In addition, age did not affect EI or JS unlike the results of several other studies.

3. Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction (JS) is “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke, 1969; 1976). It is the perception of the employee on how well the things are provided that is considered as important. In the discipline of organizational behavior, JS is one of the most crucial and frequently studied constructs. Individuals with positive feelings about their jobs show high levels of job satisfaction; while an individual with negative feelings about his/her job shows low level of job satisfaction. Studies show that jobs with training, variety, independence and autonomy satisfy the majority of employees (Damenpour, 1991).

JS is simply an attitude with three generally accepted dimensions. Firstly, how the employee feels emotionally with regard to the job and the level to which the job provides the individual with interesting tasks, learning possibilities and empowerment. The content of the work itself is the most significant factor affecting job satisfaction. A previous survey done by PriceWaterhouseCoopers in 2008 uncovered that career development was most important to young employees (cited in Leaf & Ryan, 2010).

Secondly, JS is often established on the basis of relationship between work output and the individual expectations. The expectations may be in the form of financial remuneration or appreciation from the superiors or in the form of advancement in the organization. Pay is the pivotal variable that often comes up when JS is discussed (Leaf & Ryan, 2010). For people who are at the start of their career, pay does correlate with job satisfaction and overall happiness. This situation takes an overturn when an individual attains a stage of comfortable living.

It is found that people with a moderately higher package reflect an average level of job satisfaction. Money is an important motivator but what motivates is not essentially the same that makes a person satisfied. JS is increasingly linked to intrinsic motivation, unlike money (Grandey, Chi, & Diamond, 2013). Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw and Rich did an analysis of the pay-satisfaction relationship. The researchers found significant but weak relationship between both variables. In addition, they reported that American employees had the lowest scores relative to employees in Australia, Europe and Asia. Finally, their analysis showed that the different levels of employment along with their higher paychecks did not reflect a higher level of satisfaction (2010).

Thirdly, the kind of support an employee receives in his/her organization from superior/coworkers and the extent to which superiors and fellow employees are technically proficient and socially supportive. Interdependence, feedback, social support, and interaction with co-workers outside the workplace are strongly related to job satisfaction (Westerman, McFarlan, & Iansiti, 2006). It is believed that cooperative coworkers or team members are a significant source of job satisfaction. A good workgroup or effective team makes the job more fulfilling and

satisfying. An employee-centered supervisor, who takes a personal interest, cares about the employee and provides advice and assistance to the individual has a positive impact on the JS.

Traditional studies focusing on JS intended to investigate the relationship between JS and different organizational variables. For example, Judge, Thoresen, Bono and Patton (2001) did a meta-analysis on the relationship between JS and performance. The researchers conclude that there is a moderate correlation between JS and performance. In addition, they believe that the time has come to study JS with other organizational variables. Another study conducted by Petrides and Furnham (2006) found several correlations related to JS. The researchers found positive significant correlations between JS and organizational commitment, JS and job control and JS with trait emotional intelligence. Onuoha and Segun-Martins (2013) found positive correlation between JS and emotional intelligence as well. In addition, they proposed that JS and marital status are correlated. Scarcity remains in studies on the interaction between emotions and JS.

3.1 Job Satisfaction and Gender

While there is no significant difference between males and females when it comes to analytical skills, problem solving, competitiveness, optimism and other intellectual abilities, different groups report different scores on some elements of JS. Kifle and Desta (2012) show that females are more satisfied with the social networking they encounter inside the organization. However, males are motivated by career progress, responsibilities and working hours. Petrides and Furnham (2006) found that females experience less perceived control on their work as they progress. This in turn leads to less organizational commitment and less JS. Onuoha and Segun-Martins (2013) did their study on married working women. They found a positive correlation between JS and EI.

One of the reasons of women's more contented attitudes is that they stress more on their role as home-makers relatively and extend pleasure from the responsibilities fulfilled at home front (Veroff, Douvan, & Kulka, 1981). A working woman instead of comparing herself with the similar level male employee in the organization, her comparison is with the other women. Hence, she expects less as compared to her male counterpart. As per Clark (1997), the disparity between males and females starts decreasing with the years of experience and qualifications. It is also reduced with age. Younger females have more expectations as compared to older females. On the other hand, females report that they need work-life balance to meet the demands of their homes while males ask for more money (Leaf & Ryan, 2010).

Kifle and Desta (2012) investigated the difference in JS among persons who completed their PhD at Australia's Group of Eight (Go8) universities. JS was not dependent on gender, despite that the author controlled the variables like age, employment status and family type/living arrangement. For those with statistically accepted differences, males are more contented than females with the basic sphere of JS that includes satisfaction with hours worked, satisfaction with prospect for career advancement and satisfaction with workload. Females are satisfied with another facet that takes account of contributing to the society and conducting relationships with fellow employees.

3.2 Job Satisfaction and Age

Although demographic variables play a significant role in the studies related to JS, results were often conflicting. As per Herzberg et al. (1957), when an employee starts his/her job, the enthusiasm and drive to perform is on the higher side and start decreasing in the following years. However, older employees tend to be more satisfied with their jobs as compared to younger ones. The survey conducted by Morello (2010) in Washington Post shows that, for all ages, only 45 percent of the respondents marked 4-5 on a scale of 5 indicating a positive response to JS. This was the lowest percentage ever encountered showing how employees are dissatisfied in their work. Gallup-Healthways well-being index reported 87.5 percent of Americans are happy with their jobs. Older employees have the maximum level of JS with approximately 95 percent (Mendes, 2011). The reasons proposed for such results were a lucrative package, a satisfying career, expertise and stability desired in a particular age.

On the other hand, Onuoha and Segun-Martins (2013) found a negative relationship between age and JS. The researchers justify the results saying that older employees may have lost their physical skills so they make mistakes; they have lower productivity and consequently lose satisfaction with work. They also mentioned that culture plays a larger part in the findings. The study was conducted in Nigeria where the dependency rate of adults is high due to unemployment. Hence, the working population feels more stress and the result is high dissatisfaction rate. More recently, a report published by the Conference Board research firm found that average Americans are overall satisfied with their jobs; however, they are not happy (2014). The employees reported that communication, interest in job tasks and recognition are the most important determinants of JS and it is the responsibility of the employer to ensure the availability of such elements. It is believed that for employers, in a tight market and suffering economies, should put JS as a high priority to attract and retain the qualified

employees. Employers should have strong EI skills to handle the needs and demands of their employees.

Another school of thought believes that the older an employee gets, the less the job opportunities he/she receives as his/her expertise has developed in a special kind of work. Thereby, older employees are less likely to leave and remain more contented in their current job (Warr, 1992; Doering et al., 1983; Glenn et al., 1977). Some studies indicated a positive correlation between age and satisfaction but others reported a U-shaped relationship (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Leaf and Ryan (2010) revealed in their report that old employees appreciate non-monetary rewards specifically different types of benefits. On the other hand, young employees demand career advancement and work-life balance.

In a comparative study conducted by Arani (2003) on secondary school teachers' job satisfaction in Iran and India, value orientation and school climate were measured against gender, age, years of teaching experience, subject matter and salary. Results showed that there was no significance in the relationships between JS and gender, as well as age, years of teaching experience, the subject taught, and the salary. This was further supported by Klein (2007) who compared overall satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey and certain demographics including age and gender of full-time business faculty of the Wisconsin Technical College System. Klein has found that there was no significant relation between gender and overall satisfaction, as well as no relation between age and overall satisfaction.

It is worthy to note that this study is a continuation of another two papers (El-Badawy & Sadek, in review; El-Badawy, Srivastava, & Sadek, 2014). The first paper investigated EI, JS and organizational learning capabilities between academicians. No significant relationship was found between EI and JS; however, it was a positive relationship. The second paper was a comparative study between Egypt and India. It found significant positive relationship between EI and JS. It was concluded that different cultural and demographic variables need to be explored in terms of their effect on EI and JS. Therefore, the purpose of this paper was formed. First, the effects of gender and age on EI, JS and the relationship between EI and JS were investigated. Second, the impact of EI on JS among academicians in higher education institutions of Egypt was tested.

Based on the literature review and the previous two papers, the following hypotheses were developed:

H1: Gender affects EI so that females will exhibit higher EI than males.

H2: Age affects EI so that employees of older age will have higher EI than younger ones.

H3: Gender will not affect JS so that both genders will exhibit similar levels of satisfaction.

H4: Age affects JS so that older employees will be more satisfied than younger ones.

H5: EI will have a positive impact on JS.

H6: Gender moderates the relationship between EI and JS.

H7: Age moderates the relationship between EI and JS.

4. Method

4.1 Participants and Sampling Procedures

The Hypotheses were mainly tested within the context of the Higher Education Industry in Egypt. Respondents were mainly academicians in private Higher Education Institutions. Generally, and specifically in Egypt, teachers lack adequate skills when it comes to their teaching and interactions with students. Nevertheless, researchers did not succeed in finding a way to improve their performance (Anari, 2011). Studies in this area are considered in the infancy stage.

Unfortunately, in Egypt, there is lack of statistical reports on populations from different industries. The researchers could not reach the exact population number of teachers in higher education institutions. In addition, teachers were reluctant to answer surveys or participate in studies. Hence, the number of collected questionnaires was limited.

Graduate students were assigned to deliver the questionnaires and an explanatory cover letter personally to 160 randomly selected respondents in four private universities. The completed questionnaires were collected within three weeks after delivery. There were 100 responses that were used in the data analysis for an overall return rate of 62.5%.

4.2 Measurement Scales

Two main standardized scales were used in order to obtain data on the study variables. Emotional Intelligence was mainly the independent variable whereas the Job Satisfaction was the dependent variable. The measures

used in this study were obtained from their original source.

Emotional Intelligence scale: The researchers used the Schutte et al. (1998) EI scale. This is a self-report, Likert-type scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The scale is made of 33 items. The sum of all items constitutes the total scale score, and this could be ranging from 33 to 231 (higher scores are indicating greater EI).

Job Satisfaction scale: The scale is made of 5 items. Items 1 & 2 are taken from Brayfield and Rothe (1951); Items 3, 4 and 5 are taken from Krishnakumar (2008). The items were measured on a 5-point rating scale where 1 is representing strongly disagree while 5 is representing strongly agree. Items could be as such “I am fairly satisfied with my coworkers” and “I find real enjoyment in my work”.

4.3 Analysis

The analysis of the data was done through the program of SPSS (a product of IBM®). Descriptive statistics, correlation and regression analyses were conducted.

4.4 Validity and Reliability Analyses for Measurement Scales

The variables were subject to explanatory factor analysis. The analysis was mainly based on principal factoring with iterations and oblique rotations. In order to identify the reliability and validity of the scale, the criterion of factor loadings equal to or greater than 0.30 and the reliability coefficient of Cronbach Alpha equal to or greater than 0.60 were used.

5. Results

5.1 Descriptive Statistics

The collected sample included 35% males and 65% females. 70% were below 35 years old while 30% were above 35 years old. All participants were from the academia field, 45% were Bachelor degree holders, 28% finished their Masters degrees and 27% were PhD holders. Finally, 48% of the sample were teaching assistants, 27% were assistant lecturers, 13% lecturers, 8% associate professors and 4% were professors.

Table 1. Cronbach's Alpha

Variables	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Emotional Intelligence	33	.879
Job Satisfaction	5	.641

Cronbach's Alpha was calculated for the two main variables studied. Table 1 shows that both variables were redeemed reliable.

5.2 Hypotheses Tested

Table 2. T-test for gender and EI

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	P-value
Male	35	71.75	8.74	98.00	1.04	0.30
Female	65	69.58	10.58			

H₁₀: Gender does not affect EI.

H₁₁: Gender affects EI.

The first hypothesis aimed to test the effect of gender on emotional intelligence. The results showed that gender did not have a significant effect on the scores of emotional intelligence as evident by the non-significant p-value ($p > .05$). In addition, the mean scores of females were lower than males. We failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 3. T-test for age and EI

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	P-value
Less than 35 years	70	68.90	9.81	98.00	-2.26	0.026
Over 35 years	30	73.71	9.72			

H2₀: Age does not affect EI.

H2₁: Age affects EI.

The second hypothesis tested if age had a significant effect on EI scores. The results showed that employees of older age had significant higher scores than younger employees as evident by the significant p-value ($p < .05$) and the higher mean score (73.7). The null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 4. T-test for gender and JS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	P-value
Male	35	68.00	14.81	98.00	-0.59	0.55
Female	65	69.92	15.77			

H3₀: Gender does not affect JS.

H3₁: Gender affects JS.

The third hypothesis tested the claim that gender will not affect the level of job satisfaction. The results showed that both groups did not show different levels of JS as evident by the non-significant p-value and the small difference in mean scores. We failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5. T-test for age and JS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	P-value
Below 35 years	70	69.00	16.25	98.00	-0.25	0.79
Over 35 Years	30	69.83	13.42			

H4₀: Age does not affect JS.

H4₁: Age affects JS.

The fourth hypothesis tested the effect of age on the reported mean scores for JS. From the table, it was proven that there was no statistically significant difference between older and younger employees when it comes to their levels of job satisfaction ($p > .05$). The null hypothesis was not rejected.

H5₀: There is no relationship between EI and JS.

H5₁: EI positively impacts JS.

The fifth hypothesis tested the relationship between EI and JS. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient was computed. The results showed no significant correlation between both variables [$r = .12$, $n = 100$, $p = .22$]. The regression analysis reflected the non-significance of the proposed relationship $F(1, 98) = 1.52$, $p = .22$ and that EI hardly explained any variance in JS ($R^2 = 1.5\%$). We failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 6. Moderating effect of gender on EI and JS

Model Summary					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate		
.147 ^a	.022	-.009	15.46471		
ANOVA ^b					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Probability
Regression	509.639	3	169.880	.710	.548 ^a
Residual	22959.111	96	239.157		
Total	23468.750	99			

Coefficients					
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Probability
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	36.497	45.716		.798	.427
Emotional Intelligence	.407	.634	.264	.642	.522
Gender	10.772	25.427	.335	.424	.673
EI - Gender Interaction	-.118	.354	-.283	-.334	.739

H6₀: Gender has no moderation effect on EI-JS relationship.

H6₁: Gender moderates the EI-JS relationship.

For further testing, the sample was split into two groups according to gender. The Pearson Correlation coefficients between EI and JS were: for males, $r = .17$, $p = .33$; for females, $r = .12$, $p = .36$. The correlation for both groups was non-significant. The regression analysis for JS on EI taking into consideration the effect of gender and the gender-EI interaction reflected a non-significant relationship as well $F(3, 96) = .71$, $p = .55$. It was concluded that gender did not have any moderation effect on the EI-JS relationship. We failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 7. Moderating effect of age on EI and JS

Model Summary					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	
	.204 ^a	.042	.012	15.30555	
ANOVA ^b					
Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Probability
Regression	979.792	3	326.597	1.394	.249 ^a
Residual	22488.958	96	234.260		
Total	23468.750	99			
Coefficients					
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Probability
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.552	33.999		.104	.917
Emotional Intelligence	.923	.476	.599	1.939	.055
Age	40.876	25.368	1.223	1.611	.110
EI - Age Interaction	-.567	.348	-1.418	-1.630	.106

H7₀: Age has no moderation effect on EI-JS relationship.

H7₁: Age moderates the EI-JS relationship.

The Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated for both age groups as well. For the group below 35 years old, $r = .22$, $p = .07$; for the group above 35 years old, $r = -.15$, $p = .42$. The analysis showed that the correlation between EI and JS for the younger employees is positive and almost significant while for older employees, the correlation is not significant and in addition, negative.

The regression analysis of JS on EI for the younger group showed an almost significant relationship $F(1, 68) = 3.30$, $p = .07$. However, the R^2 remains small (4.6%). For the older group, the regression analysis showed a non-significant relationship $F(1, 28) = .66$, $p = .42$.

Regressing JS on EI, age and age-EI interaction also provided a non-significant relationship $F(3, 96) = 1.39$, $p = .25$. Finally, from the scatter plots of both age groups, the direction of the slope is different. From the analyses,

it was concluded that age had an effect on the EI-JS relationship. However, it is not a mere moderating effect. Hence, we failed to reject the null hypothesis.

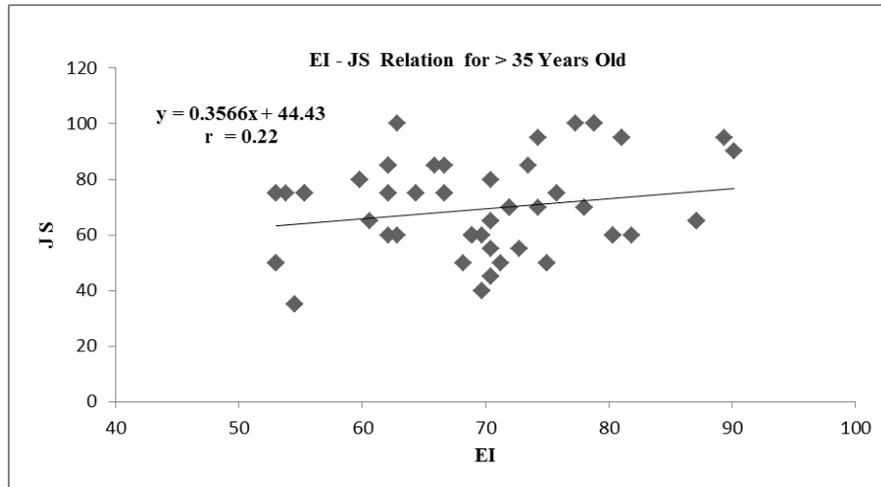


Figure 1. The EI-JS for the younger group

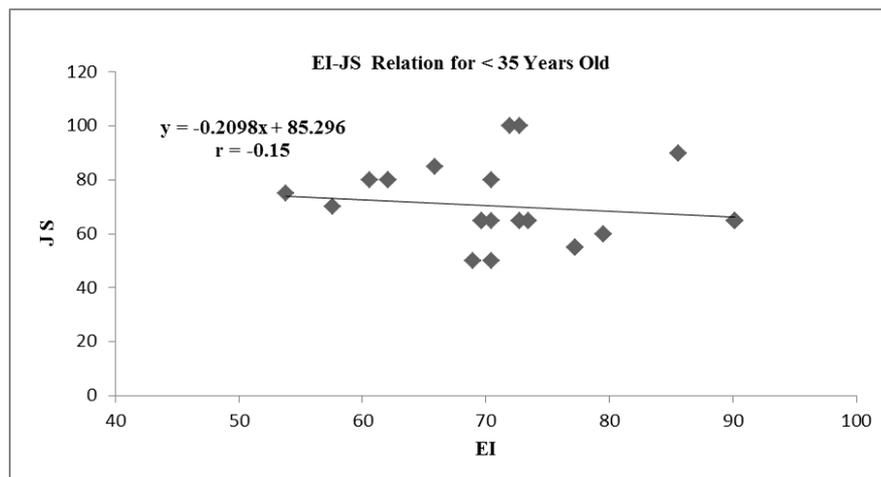


Figure 2. The EI-JS for the older group

6. Discussion

The aim of the present paper is to provide more in-depth analysis on the study done by El-Badawy, Srivastava and Sadek (2014). However, the focus here was on the sample from Egypt to provide a better outlook on the workplace behavior there. As mentioned by Arani (2011), employees of the academia field are neglected. Research concerning their behavior and how to improve and develop it is rare. Specifically, research on Emotional Intelligence is in the infancy stage despite its importance as part of the social intelligence teachers must have to be able to handle students' interactions on daily basis.

The analysis of this study revealed several interesting points for scholars and practitioners. First, concerning gender, it did not affect EI. In addition, the average score for females were lower than males. These results reflect the fact that EI is experienced differently across cultures and social groups. These results are in congruent with the findings of Hopkins and Bilimoria (2008), Harrod and Scheer (2005) and Chan (2004) and contradict the findings of Mandell and Pherwani (2003). Shahzad and Bagum (2012) also found that men had higher EI than women. It is believed that gender did not affect EI in our sample because the Egyptian society is highly male-dominated. Hence, females tend to present themselves in a masculine manner and separate their emotions from the workplace.

Gender did not have an effect on JS as well. These results coincide with Kifle and Desta (2012). Such results provide support that gender does not interfere with the level of job satisfaction attained. However, there could be other elements that affect job satisfaction such as the organizational environment, employee-employer relationship, nature of job, working hours or others. Ahmad (2000) concluded that a high level of job satisfaction among the employees is achieved by the workplace learning. Chiva and Alegre (2008) have also added to these findings that developing the employees' competencies and JS come through the presence of a stimulating work environment.

Concerning age, the results showed that there is a positive relationship between age and EI. The results reflect that with age, comes experience. Hence, older employees are more socially intelligent and better able to manage their feelings and understand others' feelings and body language as well. However, age had no effect on JS. Morello's (2010), Petrides and Furnham's (2006) and Klein's (2007) results were the same. They reflected that JS was merely a state with the same trend showing across different age groups. However, the results of the present study contradict the belief that with older age, employees become more satisfied and complacent with their jobs. Although stability and expertise are important, they are not the prerequisite for satisfaction. Since this study was conducted in higher education institutions, age is less of a factor in affecting JS. Academic employees are concerned with working conditions, remuneration and academic achievements. Arani (2003) reported no significant relationship between age and JS for high school teachers as well. In addition, satisfaction is not a synonym for happiness. Measuring satisfaction for different age groups is not enough to conclude if they are happy and retained in their institutions.

The analysis showed that there is no significant relationship between EI and JS. This reflects that, in our sample, EI does not directly lead to JS. Academicians seek other factors to reach JS. In addition, gender did not have a moderating effect on the relationship between EI and JS. However, when it came to age, the results were quite different. For the younger employees, there was a positive strong relationship between EI and JS. The analysis also showed that for the younger group, the direction of the relationship is positive while it is negative for the older group and insignificant.

7. Limitations and Future Research Directions

This study has several limitations. First, the sample size is not large enough for the results to be generalized. The study did not cover all private institutions present in Egypt. Second, the distribution of the age groups was not the same for males and females. Hence, the comparisons were not practical to make. Third, self-reported measures were used. Individuals may have answered inaccurately or had social desirability bias. Fourth, the study focused on private higher institutions, there was no resemblance of the public institutions.

Some future recommendations include surveying public institutions and comparing the results with the private ones. Splitting age into several groups is important to capture any differences between generations. It is also recommended for future researchers to conduct comparative studies in countries with cultures similar to Egypt. Finally, expanding the scope of the study and examining the impact of EI on productivity, success and academic achievements of academicians is suggested.

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