Investigation of Faculty Members' Emotional Intelligence*

Gulsah Tasci* and Osman Titrek

Istanbul 29 Mayıs University, TURKEY

Sakarya University, TURKEY

Abstract: The main aim of the present study is to investigate the emotional intelligence of faculty members based on their career stage and gender. In the study, a mixed method was employed to determine the emotional intelligence of faculty members and to reach generalizable findings. The convenience sampling method was used in the quantitative study, while the quota sampling method was used in the qualitative section. The quantitative section sample included faculty members in various stages in their careers. In the qualitative dimension, the sample included faculty members who participated in the quantitative application. The quantitative study findings demonstrated that there were significant differences between the emotional intelligence competencies of female and male faculty members in the workplace based on the empathy and self-awareness dimensions. The qualitative study findings revealed that there were differences between the emotional intelligence dimensions, especially based on the career stage and gender. Recommendations are presented based on the study findings.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, faculty member, higher education, career stages, gender.

Introduction

The careers of the faculty members constantly change. While the early years of assistant professorship are often characterized by enthusiasm, idealism, uncertainty, change, and stress, the subsequent associate professorship and professorship years could be characterized by significant achievements, reassessment of priorities, and changes in goals and roles (Lumpkin, 2014). However, several contextual factors affect an academic career. One of these is emotional intelligence. Nelson and Low (2003) argued that the emotional intelligence of individuals will positively affect their career adaptation.

In recent years, it has become increasingly important for faculty members to use their emotional intelligence actively in higher education. As the relationship between emotional intelligence and employee performance increases productivity, it is increasingly important for organizations (Ahmed et al., 2016). The individual skills for success in coping with environmental pressures and desires include emotional intelligence, which was described as the employment of all emotional, individual, and social skills, development of which could be quite different than intellectual intelligence, and the significance assigned to emotional intelligence by the institutions to improve their performance in the competitive environment led to the popularization of the concept (Aksaraylı & Özgen, 2008). Especially in recent years, several studies focused on the role of emotions in professional life (Titrek, 2013), and the fact that emotions were an integral part of organizations, and organizations should pay more attention to their employees' emotional state (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Furthermore, in these studies, it was observed that the capacity to cope with the present uncertainty and complexity through individual and organizational vision depended on "emotional intelligence" (Titrek, 2013). Thus, similar to the individuals, organizations should foster mental or cognitive intelligence and emotional intelligence for development (Goleman, 1998).

Historically, several authors attempted to describe emotional intelligence. However, it was realized that emotional intelligence was quite complex due to the lack of a single definition (Van Rooy et al., 2005). Various definitions of emotional intelligence included the definition by Goleman (1998) as the ability to learn to recognize and analyze the emotions of ourselves and others, and to generate adequate responses to these emotions by the active reflection of
knowledge and energy of emotions on daily life and work, while Bar-On (2010) described emotional intelligence as interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine the effectiveness of self-recognition and self-expression, recognition of the others and establishing personal and professional relationships with them daily. According to Zohar and Marshall (2000), emotional intelligence was the center and most basic element of intelligence since it is a source of guidance. Furthermore, several emotional intelligence models were developed. For example, Herbst and Maree (2008) suggested that three models have been used in emotional intelligence research; the models developed by Bar-On (1997), Goleman (1995), and Salovey and Mayer (1990). The model developed by Salovey and Mayer (1990) conceptualized emotional intelligence based on interconnected cognitive skills, Bar-On (1997) developed a mixed model that defined emotional intelligence based on interconnected emotional and social competencies, skills, and facilitators that influence behavior. Finally, Goleman’s (1995) model approached emotional intelligence based on dimensions, each of which included various competencies associated with personal or social attributes of behavior. Furthermore, Goleman (1998) argued that emotional intelligence was more important than intelligence in predicting job performance and described the dimensions of the emotional intelligence theory based on 2 main competencies in 5 dimensions, 25 emotional competencies, and in 2 significant categories: the review of the origins of emotional intelligence would reveal that its historical roots go back to Plato. Also, Plato stated that “All learning has an emotional base” (as cited in Vârășteanu & Iftime, 2013, p. 1830). Conceptually, Goleman (1995, 1998) focused on the new definitions of intelligence:

1. Personal Competencies: Self-awareness, self-regulation, and motivation.
2. Social Competencies: Empathy and social skills.

On the other hand, certain authors classified emotional intelligence models as skill-based and mixed models (Mayer & Cobb, 2000). While skill-based models emphasized the potential use of reasoning through emotions and defined emotional intelligence as a skill, mixed models associated emotional intelligence with social skills, attributes, and behavior, with an emphasis on the positive outcomes of emotional intelligence (Mayer & Cobb, 2000).

Literature review revealed several studies on emotional intelligence (Aksaraylı & Özgen, 2008; Bar-On, 1997, 2010; Botey et al., 2020; Cartwright & Pappas, 2008; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Hamilton, 2018; Hughes & Evans, 2018; Keskin et al., 2020; Musonda et al., 2019; Titrek, 2004, 2013; Yun et al., 2020; Zurita-Ortega et al., 2020). It is seen that emotional intelligence is in a positive and meaningful relationship with areas such as empathy, problem-solving, coping with stress, general mood, interpersonal skills, communication skills, social skills, self-esteem, self-motivation, empathy, and self-evaluation (Nelson & Low, 2003; Sarısoy & Erişen, 2018; Titrek, 2013).

Most suggested a correlation between the performance of school principals and emotional intelligence. According to Nelson and Low (2003), emotional intelligence was the most important variable that determined performance, success, and leadership. Goleman (1995) argued that emotional intelligence could be acquired and developed through education, which would ultimately have a positive impact on professional performance. In the context of school leadership, emotions and emotional intelligence skills include interpersonal skills, management skills, self-management skills, and the skills associated with the implementation of an emotional learning system. All emotional competencies and skills are associated with the professionalism of school leaders in leading individuals, society, and the organization (Beycıoğlu & Pashiardis, 2015). For example, in a study by Stone et al. (2005) that investigated the correlations between the emotional intelligence of school principals and vice-principals and leadership performance, it was reported that the performance of the above-average leaders was significantly higher when compared to leaders with below-average EQ. Thus, it was concluded that the emotional intelligence of school administrators was important for professional performance and this inevitably affected the school standards. Also, Cliffe (2011) indicated that emotional intelligence determined the professional performance of school administrators. Furthermore, Grobler and Conley (2013) emphasized the correlation between the emotional competence of school leaders and instructional leadership associated with student achievement as an indicator of effective and successful schools. Similarly, Benson et al. (2012) argued that emotional intelligence was a complementary resource for building competent school leaders and developing resilient school communities.

Another group of studies on emotional intelligence was on workplace performance. Goleman (1995) described the impact of emotional intelligence on professional group interactions and professional performance. Similarly, in another study, Druskat et al. (2013) demonstrated that there was a correlation between emotional intelligence and job performance. It was observed that certain studies focused on the problems in emotional intelligence competency of higher education leaders (Anderson & Coates, 2009; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003), or the significance of emotional intelligence in higher education leadership (Herbst & Maree, 2008).

On the other hand, research on the emotional intelligence of faculty members is very limited (see Botey et al., 2020; Chan, 2008; Dornelles & Crispim, 2021; Parrish, 2015). In universities, various factors affect the academic career of faculty members. In addition to factors such as intellectual intelligence, teaching skills, number of publications, personality traits and emotional intelligence are also very important (Aksaraylı & Özgen, 2008). Universities, which are professional, educational, and cultural environments, play an important role in active knowledge management and the development of a knowledge base. Thus, faculty members are the main players in higher education. As could be confirmed by individual academic careers, the career development of faculty members entails working with organizational harmony in the faculty, which is a complex and sometimes challenging process (Brazeau & Woodward, 2012). Often faculty members
find themselves balancing multiple roles inside and outside the institution. Coping with the high workload could lead to overload as faculty members advance in the academic or administrative hierarchy, and their inability to employ emotional intelligence skills could sometimes prevent them to build an academic career. Tierney and Bensimon (1996) emphasized that junior faculty members are socialized in the institution through their interactions with peers and particularly with senior faculty members. Thus, the skill of the faculty members to employ emotional intelligence is more important in higher education institutions. Also, Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) investigated the development and origins of emotional intelligence in their study. They reported that individuals with high emotional intelligence achieved a competitive advantage against other individuals and climbed the career ladder more rapidly. In another study, Creed et al. (2002) investigated the effects of optimistic and pessimistic approaches on career adaptability with the employment of emotional intelligence. In the study, it was determined that individuals with high emotional intelligence build their career goals well. Furthermore, it was also determined that individuals' emotions about career goals were optimistic, making it easier for them to achieve life satisfaction through positive gains in life. The study findings demonstrated that individuals with a high level of emotional intelligence had more positive career future perceptions. In another study, Oğan and Çinel (2021) investigated the correlation between emotional intelligence and career adaptability in professional life. They reported that emotional intelligence allows individuals to become adaptive and understand interpersonal communication and manage their energy better in professional life.

In another study conducted on the emotional intelligence competencies of academicians, as the work experience of academicians increased, the variables of self-awareness/awareness, social skills, empathy, motivation, self-management became prominent among emotional intelligence competencies (Karamanlıoğlu et al., 2020). Effective use of emotional intelligence in the organization could guide individual ideas and activities of the faculty members (Arabshahi et al., 2013). Studies on success in professional life or career development demonstrated that ‘intellectual intelligence (IQ) alone was not sufficient, and skills such as understanding one’s own and others’ emotions, expressing emotions, controlling emotions, empathy, and awareness in communication were also very important (Aksaraylı & Özgen, 2008). Therefore, adaptation to self-emotions could contribute to the development of higher education institutions.

As a result, the literature review revealed that studies on the emotional intelligence skills of the faculty members were quite limited. It was observed that most studies addressed the correlations between emotional intelligence and leadership or emotional intelligence training of the teachers. It is also noteworthy that, from a historical perspective, most studies on the academic careers of faculty members were conducted with traditional approaches (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1995), based on demographics (e.g., gender), employment status, or tenure. Other studies, on the other hand, focused on the lives of the faculty members who were at a certain stage in their academic career, or on female faculty members (Toutkoushian & Conley, 2005). For example, Kalivoda et al. (1994), in a study on the attitudes, beliefs, and values of a group of faculty members about their careers, reported that assistants, associate professors, and professors advanced through the required development stages in their institutions. Baldwin (1990) argued that to maintain intellectually vibrant and productive faculty, administrators should be aware of the powerful developmental and career-long forces that affect their colleagues. However, the current literature provides little insight into how faculty members at different career stages experience their professional lives based on their emotional intelligence skills.

In short, the present study aimed to investigate the skills of faculty members in different career stages to employ the sub-dimensions of emotional intelligence and associated skills in professional life. For this purpose, the following research questions were determined:

1. Does the use of emotional intelligence skills by the faculty members in professional life differ based on the career levels?
2. Does the use of emotional intelligence skills by faculty members in professional life differ based on gender?
3. Does the use of emotional intelligence skills by faculty members in professional life differ based on sub-dimensions?
4. What are the perceptions of the faculty members about the employment of emotional intelligence skills in professional life based on the career levels?
5. How emotions affect human relations in university?
6. What are the factors that negatively affect the employment of emotional intelligence skills by the faculty members in professional life based on the career levels?

Methodology

The present study aimed to investigate the skills of faculty members in different career stages to employ emotional intelligence sub-dimensions and associated skills in professional life. Therefore, a mixed-method that included a qualitative dimension was employed to understand the emotional intelligence skills of faculty members and to generalize the findings. According to Edmonds and Kennedy (2017), since the mixed method combines qualitative and quantitative
methods, it allows researchers to conduct in-depth research on the study topic. Since the emotional intelligence scales are based on the participants’ own perceptions and they have some limitations, the use of qualitative method after quantitative method was deemed appropriate in this study. Supporting this decision, Donaldson-Feilder and Bond (2004) state that using self-filled scales in the process of evaluating emotional intelligence can be potentially misleading. Because they emphasize that emotional intelligence has a strong relationship with self-consciousness, so that people who are not self-conscious may be incapable of evaluating their emotional intelligence and tend to evaluate themselves high? states that they tend to underestimate. In sequential descriptive design, quantitative data are prioritized, and qualitative data are used to improve qualitative data and to conduct an in-depth analysis of the subject (Creswell, 2014). The convenience sampling method was employed in the quantitative dimension of the research, while the quota sampling method was adopted in the qualitative dimension.

Sample and Data Collection

The study sample included faculty members in different career stages in the quantitative dimension. The convenience sampling method was employed to assign the sample. The quantitative dimension of the study was conducted with 371 faculty members employed in the Turkey Marmara Region universities during the 2020-2021 academic year. The participant demographics in the quantitative sample were as follows: 152 participants were female and 219 were male, 205 were assistant professors, 71 were associate professors, 95 were professors (Table 1).

In the qualitative dimension, the sample included the faculty member who participated in the quantitative application and assigned based on their career stages. In the qualitative dimension of the study, the quota sampling method, a non-random sampling method, was preferred. The study group was assigned with quota sampling. In quota sampling, the author determines the relevant categories based on the study topic, the sample size for each category, and the number of individuals in each category is kept constant. Quota sampling ensures that individuals who meet the criteria for each category are included in the study group (Neuman, 2007). Each category included volunteer individuals who participated in the quantitative dimension of the study. The categories were determined based on the tenure of the faculty members such early career stage (Asst. Prof.) (P1F-P2M-P3F-P4F-P5M), middle career stage (Assoc. Prof) (P6M-P7M-P8F-P9M-P10F), advanced career stage (Prof) (P11F-P12F-P13M-P14M-P15F), and a total 15 faculty members (8 females, 7 males) were included in each category (Table 2).

Data Analysis

In the study, separate data analysis methods were employed to analyze the qualitative and quantitative data collected with the mixed research methodology. In the quantitative dimension of the study, the “Emotional Intelligence Abilities Use in Worklife Scale” developed by Titrek (2004) was used to measure the emotional intelligence levels of the faculty members. The emotional Intelligence Scale is a five-point Likert-type scale that includes 72 items in five subscales. The five dimensions of emotional intelligence (self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills) were applied as sub-scales to determine the emotional intelligence levels of the faculty members in the study group. The validity and reliability of the scale were determined in the study, and exploratory factor analysis was conducted twice due to the high number of scale items and the small sample size, and unacceptable reliability coefficients. In the exploratory factor analysis, the items with factor loads below

| Table 1. Distribution by title |
|-----------------------------|
| Title          | n      |
| Asst. Prof.    | 205    |
| Associate Professors | 71  |
| Prof.          | 95     |
| Total          | 371    |

| Table 2. Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Participants (Qualitative) |
|------------------|-----|
| No               |     |
| Gender           |     |
| Male             | 7   |
| Female           | 8   |
| Career Stages    | %   |
| Early career     | 46.7|
| Advanced career  | 53.3|
| Total            | 15  |

Data Analysis

In the study, separate data analysis methods were employed to analyze the qualitative and quantitative data collected with the mixed research methodology. In the quantitative dimension of the study, the “Emotional Intelligence Abilities Use in Worklife Scale” developed by Titrek (2004) was used to measure the emotional intelligence levels of the faculty members. The emotional Intelligence Scale is a five-point Likert-type scale that includes 72 items in five subscales. The five dimensions of emotional intelligence (self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills) were applied as sub-scales to determine the emotional intelligence levels of the faculty members in the study group. The validity and reliability of the scale were determined in the study, and exploratory factor analysis was conducted twice due to the high number of scale items and the small sample size, and unacceptable reliability coefficients. In the exploratory factor analysis, the items with factor loads below
.32 and similar items with a factor load of .10 were excluded from the scale (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2001). Exploratory factor analysis revealed that the scale included 4 dimensions and 24 items, which explained 66.09% of the total variance. The self-awareness dimension included 12 items (items 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49). The motivation dimension included 5 items (31, 32, 33, 34, 35). Social skills dimension included 4 items (58, 59, 60, 61). Empathy dimension included 3 items (42, 43, 44). Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients were .95, .89, .89, and .72 for the sub-dimensions, and .90 for the overall scale. The novel scale was named after the original. It was observed that the study data distributed normally based on kurtosis and skewness, and Kolmogorov Smirnov test results; and parametric tests were conducted in the study. The differences between the emotional intelligence skills of faculty members based on their tenure were analyzed with the one-way analysis of variance. Furthermore, differences between the emotional intelligence skills of faculty members based on gender were analyzed with the independent samples t-test. The total scale Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient was .90. Quantitative data of the study were analyzed with the one-way analysis of variance and independent samples t-test. In the findings quantitative dimension of the study, “Emotional Intelligence Abilities of Faculty Members in Work life Scale” was used. Quantitative data of the study were analyzed by One-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) and t-test for unrelated samples. Byrne (2010) and Hair et al. (2009) argued that if skewness of the data is between −2 to +2 and kurtosis of the data is between −7 to +7, it is considered to be normal (Table 3).

| Table 3. Descriptive Statistics (Skewness and Kurtosis) |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Sub-dimension   | N    | Minimum | Maximum | X    | SD  | Skewness | Kurtosis |
| Self-awareness  | 371  | 14     | 56      | 32.49| 14.1| 0.374    | -1.652   |
| Motivation      | 371  | 19     | 25      | 21.77| 2.31| 0.094    | -1.44    |
| Social skills   | 371  | 13     | 20      | 18.34| 2.012| -0.824   | -0.971   |
| Empathy         | 371  | 8      | 15      | 12.5 | 1.73| -0.462   | -0.503   |
| Total           | 371  | 60     | 111     | 85.1 | 14.89| 0.357    | -1.46    |

Qualitative dimension data were analyzed with the content analysis method. The qualitative analysis was based on Goleman (1995)'s theory of emotional intelligence in the study. Thus, the dimensions of emotional intelligence were determined as "Social Skills", "Empathy", "Self-awareness", and "Motivation" in data analysis, and new sub-themes were developed based on the content analysis. To determine the validity and reliability of the study, the codes developed by the authors were compared and evaluated by an expert in qualitative studies. The codes were finalized based on the expert review. After the content analysis, the sub-themes were coded, and the form was submitted to two experts. The experts analyzed the themes, sub-themes, and codes, and reported that the intercoder agreement was over 90%. The codes were revised based on expert feedback, and the content analysis was conducted with the finalized themes.

Online interviews were conducted to determine the perceptions of the faculty members about the use of their emotional intelligence skills in professional life based on tenure, the factors that negatively affect their ability to use emotional intelligence, and the strategies they adopted to employ emotional intelligence effectively in their academic lives. The interview data were analyzed with content analysis. Sub-themes and themes were determined based on the data codes. The qualitative study data were discussed and interpreted based on the study themes and the relevant literature.

Findings

In this section, qualitative and quantitative study findings are presented.

Quantitative findings

The quantitative data were collected with the “The Employment of Emotional Intelligence Skills by Faculty Members in Professional Life Scale.” One-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) was conducted to determine whether there was a difference between the emotional intelligence skills of the faculty members based on tenure.
Table 4. One-way Analysis of Variance Based on Career Stage Descriptive Statistics Results

| Dimension   | Tenure | f   | \( \bar{x} \) | SD  |
|-------------|--------|-----|---------------|-----|
| Self-awareness | Asst. Prof. | 205 | 31.15         | 13.76 |
|              | Assoc. Prof. | 71  | 33.97         | 14.46 |
|              | Prof.      | 95  | 34.26         | 14.41 |
|              | Total      | 371 | 32.49         | 14.10 |
| Motivation   | Asst. Prof. | 205 | 21.79         | 2.27  |
|              | Assoc. Prof. | 71  | 21.68         | 2.37  |
|              | Prof.      | 95  | 21.80         | 2.36  |
|              | Total      | 371 | 21.77         | 2.31  |
| Social skills | Asst. Prof. | 205 | 18.34         | 1.94  |
|              | Assoc. Prof. | 71  | 18.38         | 2.07  |
|              | Prof. Dr.  | 95  | 18.29         | 2.14  |
|              | Total      | 371 | 18.34         | 2.01  |
| Empathy      | Asst. Prof. | 205 | 12.52         | 1.72  |
|              | Assoc. Prof. | 71  | 12.27         | 1.60  |
|              | Prof. Dr.  | 95  | 12.65         | 1.83  |
|              | Total      | 371 | 12.50         | 1.73  |
| Total        | Assoc. Prof. | 71  | 86.30         | 15.97 |
|              | Prof.      | 95  | 87.01         | 15.18 |
|              | Total      | 371 | 85.10         | 14.89 |

The emotional intelligence skill scores of the faculty members presented in Table 4 were analyzed based on tenure. In the “self-awareness” dimension, the mean score of assistant professors was 31.15 (SD = 13.76), the mean score of associate professors was 33.97 (SD = 14.46), and the mean score of professors was 34.26 (SD = 14.41). In the “motivation” dimension, the mean score of assistant professors was 21.79 (SD = 2.27), the mean score of associate professors was 21.68 (SD = 2.37), and the mean score of professors was 21.80 (SD = 2.36). In the relation “social skills” dimension, the mean score of assistant professors was 18.34 (SD = 1.94), the mean score of associate professors was 18.38 (SD = 2.07), and the mean score of professors was 18.29 (SD = 2.14). In the “empathy” dimension, the mean score of assistant professors was 12.52 (SD = 1.72), the mean score of associate professors was 12.27 (SD = 1.60), and the mean score of professors was 12.65 (SD = 1.83). The overall scale mean score of assistant professors was 83.80 (SD = 14.30), the overall scale mean score of associate professors was 86.30 (SD = 15.97), and the overall scale mean score of professors was 87.01 (SS = 15.18). (Table 4).

Table 5. Independent Variables T-Test Results Based on Gender

| Dimension   | Gender | f   | \( \bar{x} \) | SD  | df  | t   | p    | Cohen’s d |
|-------------|--------|-----|---------------|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------|
| Self-awareness | Female | 152 | 21.75         | 2.32 | 369 | -1.26 | .002* | 0.013     |
|              | Male   | 219 | 21.78         | 2.30 |     |     |      |           |
| Motivation   | Female | 152 | 18.36         | 1.99 | 369 | .146 | .780 | --        |
|              | Male   | 219 | 18.32         | 2.03 |     |     |      |           |
| Social skills | Female | 152 | 12.87         | 1.45 | 369 | 3.433| .000* | 6.154     |
|              | Male   | 219 | 12.25         | 1.86 |     |     |      |           |
| Empathy      | Female | 152 | 48.60         | 5.19 | 369 | 60.379| .000* | 6.154     |
|              | Male   | 219 | 21.31         | 3.52 |     |     |      |           |
| Total        | Female | 152 | 101.57        | 6.78 | 369 | 46.080| .003* | 4.725     |
|              | Male   | 219 | 73.66         | 4.88 |     |     |      |           |

*p<.05

The differences between emotional intelligence skills of faculty members based on gender that are presented in Table 5 were analyzed. It was observed that there was a significant difference between the attitudes of female employees (= 21.75) and male employees (= 21.78) based on the self-awareness dimension (t (369) = -1.26, p <.05). Cohen’s d value (d = 0.013) was low that indicates a weak relationship between gender and self-awareness (Cohen, 1988). It was observed that there was no significant difference between the attitudes of female employees (= 18.36) and male employees (= 18.32) based on the motivation dimension (t (369) = .146, p >.05). It was observed that there was no significant difference between the attitudes of female employees (= 12.87) and male employees (= 12.25) based on the social skills dimension (t (369) = 3.433, p >.05). It was observed that there was a significant difference between the attitudes of female employees (= 48.60) and male employees (= 21.31) based on the empathy dimension (t (369) = 60.379, p <.05). Cohen’s
d value ($d = 6.154$) was high that indicates a strong relationship between gender and empathy (Cohen, 1988). It was observed that there was a significant difference between the attitudes of female employees ($= 101.57$) and male employees ($= 73.66$) based on the overall scale scores ($t (369) = 46.080$, $p < .05$). Cohen’s $d$ value ($d = 0.4.725$) was high that indicates a strong relationship between gender and total of emotional intelligence skills (Cohen, 1988). (Table 5).

| Dimension         | SD Between Groups | df  | MS       | F       | p      |
|-------------------|-------------------|-----|----------|---------|--------|
| Self-awareness    | 822.019           | 2   | 411.009  |         |        |
|                   | 72778.677         | 368 | 197.768  | 2.078   | .127   |
|                   | 73600.695         | 370 |          |         |        |
| Motivation        | .759              | 2   | .380     |         |        |
|                   | 1965.305          | 368 | 5.341    | .071    | .931   |
|                   | 1966.065          | 370 |          |         |        |
| Social skills     | 307               | 2   | .153     |         |        |
|                   | 1498.577          | 368 | 4.072    | .038    | .963   |
|                   | 1498.884          | 370 |          |         |        |
| Empathy           | 6.101             | 2   | 3.051    |         |        |
|                   | 1098.643          | 368 | 2.985    | 1.022   | .361   |
|                   | 1104.744          | 370 |          |         |        |
| Total             | 797.333           | 2   | 398.667  |         |        |
|                   | 81243.173         | 368 | 220.769  | 1.806   | .166   |
|                   | 82040.507         | 370 |          |         |        |

$p < .05$

The differences between the emotional intelligence skills of the faculty members were analyzed. It was observed that there was no significant difference between the attitudes of the groups based on the dimension of self-awareness ($F (2-368) = 2078$, $p > .05$). It was observed that there was no significant difference between the attitudes of the groups based on the motivation dimension ($F (2-368) = .071$, $p > .05$). It was observed that there was no significant difference between the attitudes of the groups based on the social skills dimension ($F (2-368) = .038$, $p > .05$). It was observed that there was no significant difference between the attitudes of the groups based on the empathy dimension ($F (2-368) = 1.022$, $p > .05$). It was observed that there was no significant difference between the attitudes of the groups based on the overall scale scores ($F (2-368) = 1.806$, $p > .05$). (Table 6).

**Qualitative Findings**

**Definition of emotional intelligence:**

The views of the faculty members on the employment of emotional intelligence in professional life were categorized with the content analysis based on career stages (Early career, middle career and advanced career) and the two main emotional intelligence themes. 8 participants stated that emotional intelligence was associated with personal competencies. The views of the participants in the early, middle, and advanced career stages (P1F-P2M-P3F-P4F-P5M-P6M-P7M-P8F-P9M-P10F-P11F-P12F-P13M-P14M-P15F) were in the emotional intelligence personal competence category. The views of 5 participants in the advanced career stage were in the social competencies sub-theme.

Sample quotes in the "Personal Competencies" sub-theme were as follows:

"Emotional intelligence is the awareness about what we hear and understanding our emotions well" (P1F).

"Emotional intelligence is the ability of the individual to manage his/her emotions and decisions in a balanced way." (P12F).

"Emotional intelligence is the ability to self-criticize my emotions with both positive and negative approaches." (P14M).

Sample quotes in the "Social Competence" sub-theme were as follows:

"Emotional intelligence is the ability to manage relationships" (P3F).

"Emotional intelligence is the ability to use body language effectively" (P5M).

"Emotional intelligence is a type of intelligence that increases organizational performance and academic achievements" (P7M).

"Emotional intelligence is a tool that effectively resolves conflicts in my university" (P8F).
Faculty members' skills to employ emotional intelligence in the university based on the career stage. Based on the career stages of the faculty members, it was observed that their views on the skills associated with the employment of emotional intelligence were grouped under two categories: "personal competencies" and "social competencies". Also, the analysis of the views of the participating faculty members on the skills associated with the employment of emotional intelligence based on the career stage revealed that they employed emotional intelligence skills more effectively in early career stages, especially the female faculty members. However, it was determined that female faculty members did not employ emotional intelligence effectively in advanced career stages. Sample statements are presented below:

“I think that the emotional intelligence of the faculty members, especially women, is particularly good in empathizing certain issues. However, I often observed that they do not act professionally in their relationships at work. I think they especially prevent jealousy among female faculty members. This is particularly evident in faculty members in middle or advanced career stages. In particular, they worry that the academics in the early career stages will surpass them. Those in advanced career stages cannot effectively resolve conflicts in human relations, they are traditionalists. Young academics, on the other hand, are more adaptive, empathetic, and establish good relations” (P7M).

“Faculty members use emotional intelligence in the organization is a very important question. Because emotional intelligence entails knowing oneself and establishing good relationships. This differs based on the career stage. I think that in the first years of the career, especially women, are aware of their and other academics’ emotions. As they move up the career ladder, especially when they are in advanced stages, I think that female academics do not prefer to use emotional intelligence. I think they adopt a stricter, rigid role, even a masculine one. Therefore, relations in the university can become more superficial and problematic” (P4F).

Certain participants stated that male academics in advanced career stages employed emotional intelligence more effectively. Sample statements are presented below:

“I have observed the following about emotional intelligence and male academics: I think that as men advance academically, for example, when they reach advanced career stage, they adopt a fatherly role where emotional intelligence absorbs the profession, they manage their emotions well, know what they want, understand the feelings of others, in other words, integrate personal and social skills. This, of course, internalizes success because they use emotional intelligence well, manage relationships well in the university, and are liked by other academics, leading to a nice university climate” (P7M).

Certain participants emphasized that male academics in advanced career stages employed the self-awareness dimension of emotional intelligence more effectively. Sample statements are presented below:

“There is a common opinion among academics that emotional intelligence is employed more effectively by women. However, male academics maintain their relationships well in the workplace, consider both the positive and negative consequences of their emotions, especially in situations such as making work-related decisions (such as the professors) and managing these decisions. This naturally contributes to an increase in positive relationships and academic performances. Another important observation is that male academics are open to self-criticism and questioning themselves about these criticisms.” (P6M).

One participant stated that both male and female faculty members at middle career stages (associate professor) employed emotional intelligence effectively:

“In my opinion, both male and female associate professors employ emotional intelligence better. If you ask why? Frankly, I think that these are self-confident individuals who discarded novice emotions, now know how to motivate themselves and use their emotions, know themselves and the areas that they are good at, work in harmony with their colleagues, employ creativity and emotional intelligence effectively in both their academic and private lives” (P10F).

Reflections of the faculty members on their ability to employ emotional intelligence in professional life based on career stage were grouped under 2 main categories: "Personal competencies" and "social competencies". Sample statements are presented below:

“When I consider how effectively I use emotional intelligence myself, I think that I use emotional intelligence very effectively since young academics in early career stages adapt to the current conditions and have higher awareness levels. First, I am aware of my competencies, I know what I want, I am aware of my weaknesses and strengths. On the other hand, I have the empathy required to conduct social relations effectively in my university, I value people based on the process, not the outcomes. I am a very good listener. Therefore, I think that the key to success in the current century is the effective use of emotional intelligence” (P12F).

Factors that negatively affect the employment of emotional intelligence skills by faculty members in professional life based on the career stage. The analysis of the factors that negatively affected the employment of emotional intelligence in professional life based on the career stages demonstrated that the participant answers could be grouped in 2 categories: "personal competencies" and "social competencies". Sample statements are presented below:
"Recently, it is common to observe young male academics in early career stages who do not employ emotional intelligence since they abandoned their modesty in professional life. They are impatient and non-empathetic; they think that they know everything. Because of the empathy level in their social relationships, they experience conflicts" (P7M).

Certain participants stated that university administrators' effective use of emotional intelligence was associated with organizational culture:

"It is associated with the organization in the university. It is about catching the attention of your managers (professors) and colleagues. It may not be enough just for you to employ emotional intelligence effectively. Therefore, the fact that university administrators do not employ emotional intelligence sufficiently affects and prevent the stakeholders of the organization (from employing it)” (P3F).

Certain participants stated that females employed emotional intelligence better than males. It was stated that the reason for this was social stereotypes.

"The first thing that comes to my mind is gender. The women, especially if they are associate professors and managers, employ emotional intelligence well and it improves their relationships and success in the university. I think that most men cannot use emotional intelligence adequately due to social stereotypes. Thus, these stereotypes should be eliminated” (P6M).

Certain participants stated that lack of experience was an obstacle to emotional intelligence:

“Based on the career stage, the obstacles to emotional intelligence are the result of young academicians’ inability to manage this process due to lack of experience. They are open to learning, empathy, self-analysis, but they do not know how to find a balance and motivate themselves. I think that they cannot use emotional intelligence effectively without regretting it, so to speak. With professional experience, emotional intelligence is employed better, especially from the level of associate professorship. In the professor stage, the existence of excessive egotism prevents the employment of emotional intelligence. Thus, personal, and social masks could not be removed. For men, it is the climax of their profession. The more I see, my emotional intelligence skills improve” (P8F).

One participant stated that the factor that negatively affected emotional intelligence was the inadequate familial foundations:

“The development of emotional intelligence occurs in the family, then at school and in the society. Thus, the obstacles are at the core. In other words, it is not impossible for an individual who never developed that habit and culture in the family to try to learn emotional intelligence later, but it is difficult. Of course, it can be improved and learned. Thus, that individual will have to work hard to raise self-awareness at every stage of the career, understand and manage self-emotions well” (P15F).

The strategies that faculty members adopted to employ emotional intelligence more effectively in professional life were as follows based on the career stage. It was observed that the participating faculty members adopted strategies such as participating in conflict management seminars, MBTI seminars, and developed empathy to employ emotional intelligence more effectively in professional life. It could be suggested that they attempted to improve self-awareness, social awareness, and social skills. Sample participant statements are presented below:

“A seminar was organized in our university on this topic a few years ago, I attended it. After that semester, my awareness was raised. I even took personality tests such as MIP. I found myself in a process of understanding my strengths and weaknesses. Being aware of my abilities, that is, my feelings and decisions improved my self-confidence. After that day, I start every day by posting a motivational sentence on the board. Due to this positive perspective, my social relationships have become stronger, and I try to empathize more. Teamwork goes well now” (P12F).

Discussion

In this section, based on the above-mentioned findings, the quantitative and qualitative research problems are discussed based on the literature similarly affects leadership effectiveness and status conferral.

1. As a result of the findings obtained in the quantitative dimension of this research: The quantitative study findings demonstrated that there was a significant difference between the "self-awareness” sub-dimension scores of the faculty members based on gender. The self-awareness scores, a sub-dimension of emotional intelligence, of female faculty members were higher than males. It was revealed that the faculty members evaluated both negative and positive emotions in professional decisions, concluded based on emotional responsibilities, understood the consequences of their emotions, and had the skill to confront their negative emotions. Similar findings were reported by Titrek (2004). However, in a study conducted by Constantine and Gainor (2001), the emotional intelligence sub-dimension scores of female participants were higher when compared to males. Moreover, it was demonstrated that there was a significant difference between the total scale and “empathy” scores based on gender. It was concluded that the female faculty members listened to their colleagues, considered the views of others in professional life, and were sensitive to the emotional needs of others. Titrek (2004) reported similar findings. Furthermore, studies conducted by Schutte et al.
(1998) and Ciarrochi et al. (2001) on emotional intelligence competencies demonstrated that emotional intelligence levels of females were higher than males. These findings were partially consistent with the present study findings. According to Goleman (1995), the root of empathy is self-awareness. In the current study, it was similarly observed that empathy and self-awareness were particularly high among female academicians. In other words, based on the findings of studies on emotional intelligence, self-efficacy perceptions of females were higher when compared to males, especially in the self-awareness and empathy dimensions.

2. As a result of the findings regarding the qualitative dimension of this research:

First of all, the views of the faculty members on emotional intelligence skills in professional life were categorized based on the content analysis results based on the career stage (early career, middle career, and advanced career) and the two main emotional intelligence dimensions. 8 participants stated that emotional intelligence was associated with “personal competencies”. The views of the participants in the early, middle, and advanced career stages were in the emotional intelligence personal competence category. The views of 5 participants in the advanced career stage were in the “social competencies” sub-theme. Similarly, Goleman (1995) stated that personal competencies (Self-awareness, self-regulation, and motivation); social competencies (Empathy and social skills).

Secondly, the analysis of the emotional skills employed by the faculty members in professional life based on the career stage demonstrated that the emotional skills of female faculty members were higher in the early career stage. On the contrary, the participants stated that female faculty members in advanced career stages did not employ emotional intelligence effectively. Shehzad and Mahmood (2013) reported that the interpersonal skills of female teachers were higher when compared to males. Female teachers were emotionally self-aware and empathic. These differences could be associated with social expectations (Naghavi & Redzuan, 2011). It was reported that female academicians, especially female academicians in early career stages, were more empathetic and aware of their feelings. It was also demonstrated that female academicians in advanced career stages did not employ emotional intelligence effectively. In contrast, certain participants stated that male academicians in advanced career stages employed emotional intelligence more effectively, especially in the self-awareness dimension. Also, one participant stated that both male and female faculty members in the middle stages employed emotional intelligence effectively.

Thirdly, the analysis of the factors that negatively affected emotional intelligence skills in professional life revealed that the participants stated 2 groups of negative factors: “personal competencies” and “social competencies.” These factors were determined as lack of empathy, gender factor, lack of modesty, impatience, not being open to learning, social prejudices, negative organizational culture, the influence of administrators, inability to develop emotional intelligence in the family environment, and the lack of professional experience. Previous studies demonstrated that emotional intelligence was not consistent and increased with age, and it could be learned (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995). Similar to the present study findings on administrators, previous studies argued that administrators with negative emotions create a failed workplace by reducing the motivation of their subordinates, while administrators with a positive mood could improve the success in the workplace (Goleman et al., 2013). Furthermore, Arghode (2013) noted the significance of emotional self-awareness of the educators and the employment of emotions in learning activities that lead to an unforgettable learning experience. It could be suggested that the findings of the above-mentioned studies were consistent with the current study findings. Furthermore, some of the participants stated that lack of experience is an obstacle to using emotional intelligence. For example, in the professors who do not use the using emotional intelligence. The literature review demonstrated that professors who employed emotional intelligence effectively in the classroom had high quality and sustainable relations with the students (Mortiboys, 2012; Powell & Kusuma-Powell, 2010). In contrast, studies demonstrated that the behavior of the professors who did not employ emotional intelligence in the classroom did not lead to high-quality relations with students, did not communicate well, were reluctant, or could not regulate their emotions (Mortiboys, 2012; Powell & Kusuma-Powell, 2010). It could be suggested that the findings of the above-mentioned studies and the present study were similar. In the present study, one participant stated that faculty members in advanced career stages experienced difficulties in communicating with the students.

Finally, it was observed that the faculty members participating in the study adopted strategies such as attending conflict management and MBTI seminars, improving empathy to develop emotional intelligence skills in professional life. It could be suggested that they adopted these strategies to improve self-awareness, social awareness, and social skills. Similarly, Cherniss and Adler (2000) reported that conflict management was based on competencies associated with emotional intelligence such as personal awareness, self-confidence, self-control, empathy, and organizational awareness. In a similar study, Clarke (2010) emphasized the significance of emotional intelligence in conflict management. Furthermore, the findings indicate that Hamilton (2018), Dornelles and Crispim (2021) and Goleman (1995) argued that emotional intelligence could be acquired and improved through education, which would ultimately affect professional performance positively. As a result, it could be suggested that the findings of the above-mentioned studies were consistent with the current study findings.
Conclusion

In the present study, the emotional intelligence skills of faculty members were analyzed based on the career stage and gender. In the study, a mixed-method that was employed to determine the emotional intelligence skills of the faculty members and to reach generalizable findings. The study findings revealed the significance of the development of emotional intelligence in faculty members. Emotional intelligence in education is considered effective in every area, including the faculty members’ emotional intelligence skills. The self-awareness and empathy scores, a sub-dimension of emotional intelligence, of female faculty members were higher than males. In particular, the emotional intelligence skills of the faculty members in different career stages affect their professional relations, student relations, and they affect the career development and performances of faculty members.

Recommendations

Faculty members should establish healthy and strong ties and relationships with individuals. Faculty members’ competencies in human relations could be discussed based on emotional intelligence. Thus, it could be suggested that faculty members who acquire emotional intelligence skills would be more successful and better researchers. The main recommendations of the present study included the following:

• Faculty members should be trained in emotional intelligence skills.
• In depth studies should be conducted on the reasons for gender-based differences in the emotional intelligence skills of the faculty members.
• Experimental studies should be conducted to improve the emotional intelligence skills of faculty members.

Limitations

The main limitation of the current study was the lack of more than one instrument to investigate the emotional intelligence skills of the faculty members based on career stages. The COVID-19 pandemic forced the university to online education, and face-to-face instruction was no longer possible. Certain universities opted for the hybrid model. Thus, further interviews were not conducted with the participants. In the study, the authors could interview only a limited number of participants due to the pandemic.

Ethical Concerns

The present study that involved human participants was reviewed and approved by Istanbul 29 Mayıs University Ethics Committee. The participants signed an informed consent form before the study was conducted.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Author Contribution Statement

Taşçı: Conceptualization, design, analysis, writing. Titrek: Edit/review, supervision.

References

Ahmed, Z., Sabir, S., Rehman, Z., Khosa, M., & Khan, A. (2016). The impact of emotional intelligence on employee's performance in public and private higher educational institutions of Pakistan. Journal of Business and Management, 18(11), 119-127. [https://doi.org/10.9790/487X-18110419127]

Aksaraylı, M., & Özgen, I. (2008). Akademik kariyer gelişiminde duygusal zekanın rolü üzerine bir araştırma [A study on the role of emotional intelligence in academic career development]. Ege Academic Review/ Ege Akademik Bakış, 8(2), 755-769.

Anderson, M., & Coates, H. (2009). Balancing act: Challenges for educational leadership. Professional Educator, 8(1), 32-37. [https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2013.842225]

Arabshahi, M., Lagzian, M., Rahimnia, F., & Kafashpour, A. (2013). The impact of emotional intelligence on faculty members' knowledge sharing behaviors. Management Science Letters, 3(12), 2963-2970. [https://doi.org/10.5267/J.MSL.2013.10.027]

Arghode, V. (2013). Emotional and social intelligence competence: Implications for instruction. International Journal of Pedagogy and Learning, 8(2), 66-77. [https://doi.org/10.5172/ijpl.2013.8.2.66]

Ashforth, B. E., & Humphrey, R. H. (1995). Emotion in the workplace a reappraisal. Human Relations, 48, 97-124. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/001872679504800201]
Baldwin, R. G. (1990). Faculty career stages and implications for professional development. In J.H. Schuster, D.W. Wheeler, & Associates (Eds.), Enhancing faculty careers: Strategies for development and renewal (pp. 20-40). Jossey-Bass.

Bar-On, R. (1997). Bar-On emotional quotient inventory: A measure of emotional intelligence. Multi-Health Systems.

Bar-On, R. A. (2010). Emotional intelligence: An integral part of positive psychology. South African Journal of Psychology, 40(1), 54-62. https://doi.org/10.1177/00812463100400106

Benson, G., Martin, L., Ploeg, J., & Wessel, J. (2012). Longitudinal study of emotional intelligence, leadership and caring in undergraduate nursing students. Journal of Nursing Education, 51(2), 95–101. https://doi.org/10.3928/01484834-20120113-01

Beycioğlu, K., & Pashiardis, P. (2015). (Eds.) Multidimensional perspectives on principal leadership effectiveness. IGI Global. https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-4666-6591-0

Blackburn, R. T., & Lawrence, J. H. (1995). Faculty at work: Motivation, expectation, satisfaction. Johns Hopkins University Press.

Botey, M., Vaquero-Diego, M., & Sastre, F. J. (2020). Perceived emotional intelligence of university professors based on the nature of the subject taught. Technological Forecasting & Social Change, 161, 1-10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2020.120292

Brazeau, G. A., & Woodward, J. M. B. (2012). Rethinking faculty career development strategies. American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education, 76(10), 185, 1-2. https://doi.org/10.5668/ajpe7610185

Byrne, B. M. (2010). Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming. Routledge.

Cartwright, S., & Pappas, C. (2008). Emotional intelligence, its measurement, and implications for the workplace. International Journal of Management Review, 10(2), 149-171. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2370.2007.00220.x

Chan, D. W. (2008). Emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and coping among Chinese prospective and in-service teachers in Hong Kong. Educational Psychology, 28(4), 397-408. https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410701668372

Cherniss, C., & Adler, M. (2000). Promoting emotional intelligence in organizations. ASTD.

Ciarrochi, J. V., Chan, A. Y. C., & Baigar, J. (2001). Measuring emotional intelligence in adolescents. Personality and Individual Differences, 31(7), 1105-1119. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(00)00207-5

Clarke, N. (2010). Emotional intelligence and its relationship to transformational leadership and key project manager competences. Project Management Journal, 41(2), 5-20. https://doi.org/10.1002/pmj.20162

Cliffe, J. (2011). Emotional intelligence: A study of female secondary school headteachers. Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 39(2), 205-218. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1741143210390057

Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences (2nd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Constantine, M. G., & Gainor, K. A. (2001). Emotional intelligence and empathy: Their relation to multicultural counselling knowledge and awareness. Professional School Counseling, 5(2), 131–137.

Creed, P. A., Patton, W., & Bartrum, D. (2002). Multidimensional properties of the LOT-R: Effects of optimism and pessimism on career and wellbeing related variables in adolescents. Journal of Career Assessment, 10(1), 42-61. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072702010001003

Creswell, J. W. (2014). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches. Sage.

Donaldson-Feilder, E. J., & Bond, F. W. (2004). The relative importance of psychological acceptance and emotional intelligence to workplace well-being. British Journal of Guidance & Counselling, 32(2), 187-203. https://doi.org/10.1080/0806988041001692210

Dornelles, M., & Crispim, S. F. (2021). Emotional intelligence of university professors: A comparative study between Brazilian public and private sector education. International Journal of Higher Education, 7(e021016), 1-16. https://doi.org/10.20396/riesup.v7i0.8657189

Druskat, V. U., Mount, G., & Sala, F. (2013). Linking emotional intelligence and performance at work: Current research evidence with individuals and groups. Psychology Press. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203763896

Dulewicz, V., & Higgs, M. (2000). Emotional intelligence a review and evaluation study. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 15(4), 341-372. https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940010330993

Dulewicz, V., & Higgs, M. (2003). Leadership at the top: The need for emotional intelligence in organizations. The International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 11(3),193–210. https://doi.org/10.1108/eb028971
Edmonds, W., & Kennedy, T. (2017). *An applied guide to research designs* (2nd ed.). SAGE. https://www.doi.org/10.4135/9781071802779

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. Bantam Books.

Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. Bantam Books. https://doi.org/10.1002/tli.40619981008

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. E., & McKee, A. (2013). *Leadership and emotional intelligence*. Harvard Business School Press.

Grobler, B. R., & Conley, L. (2013). The relationship between emotional competence and instructional leadership and their association with learner achievement. *Education as Change, 17*(1), 177-199. https://doi.org/10.1080/16823206.2013.866003

Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., & Anderson, R. (2009). *Multivariate data analysis*. Prentice Hall.

Hamilton, D. (2018). Examining perceptions of online faculty regarding the value of emotional intelligence in online classrooms. *Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration, 20*(1), 63-81.

Herbst, T. H. H., & Maree, J. G. (2008). Thinking style preference, emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 34*(1), 32-41. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v34i1.1422

Hughes, D. J., & Evans, T. R. (2018). Putting ‘emotional intelligences’ in their place: Introducing the integrated model of affect-related individual differences. *Frontiers in Psychology, 9*, 2155. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.02155

Kalivoda, P., Sorrell, G. R., & Simpson, R. D. (1994). Nurturing faculty vitality by matching institutional interventions with career-stage needs. *Innovative Higher Education, 18*(4), 255–272. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01191048

Karamanlıoğlu, A., Şenkul, G., & Sığrı, U. (2020). Çatışma yönetiminde duygusal zekânın rolü: Akademisyenler üzerine bir araştırma [The role of emotional intelligence in conflict management: A research on academicians]. *Science Journal of Turkish Military Academy/ Kara Harp Okulu Bilim Dergisi, 30*(1), 111-139. https://dergipark.org.tr/la/pub/khobilim/issue/55353/759370

Keskin, E., Yavla, Ö., & Aktaş, F. (2020). Duygusal zeka, kariyer uyumu ve yaşam doyumu arasındaki ilişkiler: Turizm sektörü çalışanları üzerine bir araştırma [The relationships between emotional intelligence, career adaptation and life satisfaction: A research on employees working in tourism sector]. *Journal of Business Studies Research/ İletişim Araştırmaları Dergisi, 13*(3), 2985-2995. https://doi.org/10.20491/1sarder.2020.1021

Lumpkin, A. (2014). The role of organizational culture on and career stages of faculty. *The Educational Forum, 78*(2), 196-205. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2013.878420

Mayer, J. D., & Cobb, C. D. (2000). Educational policy on emotional intelligence: Does it make sense? *Educational Psychology Review, 12*, 163–183. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1009093231445

Mortiboys, A. (2012). *Teaching with emotional intelligence* (2nd ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203806463

Musonda, A., Shumba, O., & Tailoka, F. O. (2019). Validation of the Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Scale in a Zambian context. *European Journal of Psychology and Educational Research, 2*(2), 31-41. https://doi.org/10.12973/ejper.2.2.31

Naghavi, F., & Redzuan, M. (2011). The relationship between gender and emotional intelligence. *World Applied Sciences Journal, 15*(4), 555-561.

Nelson, D. B., & Low, G. R. (2003). *Emotional intelligence: Achieving academic and career excellence*. Prentice Hall.

Neuman, W. L. (2007). *Basics of social research qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Allyn and Bacon.

Oğan, E., & Cinel, O. M. (2021). İş hayatında duygusal zeka ve kariyer uyum yetenekleri arasındaki ilişki [The relationship between emotional intelligence and career adaptability in business life]. *Alanya Akademik Bakış Dergisi, 5*(1), 369-391. https://doi.org/10.29023/alanyaakademik.69723

Parrish, D. R. (2015). The relevance of emotional intelligence for leadership in a higher education context. *Studies in Higher Education, 40*(5), 821-837. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2013.842225

Powell, W. R., & Kusuma-Powell, O. (2010). *Becoming an emotionally intelligent teacher*. Corwin.

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality, 9*, 185–211. https://doi.org/10.2190/DUGG-P24E-52WK-6CDG

Sarısoy, B., & Erişen, Y. (2018). Öğretmenler için duygusal zeka becerileri eğitim programının tasarlanması, uygulanması ve değerlendirilmesi [Designing, implementing, and evaluating emotional intelligence skill training program for teachers]. *Elementary Education Online/ İlköğretim Online, 17*(4), 2188-2215. https://doi.org/10.17051/ilkonline.2019.507002
Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, J. T., Golden, C. J., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences, 25*(2), 167–177. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(98)00001-4

Shehzad, S., & Mahmood, N. (2013). Gender differences in emotional intelligence of university teachers. *Pakistan Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 11*(1), 16-21.

Stone, H., Parker, J. D., & Wood, L. M. (2005). *Report on the Ontario principals’ council leadership study*. Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations. https://bit.ly/3jYeKQg

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidel, L. S. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics* (4th ed.). Allyn and Bacon.

Tierney, W. G., & Bensimon, E. M. (1996). *Promotion and tenure: Community and socialization in academe*. State University of New York Press.

Titrek, O. (2004). *Eğitim fakültesi öğretim üyelerinin duygu zeka yeteneklerinin iş yaşamında kullanma ve akademik başarı düzeylerine ilişkin karşılaştırmalı bir araştırma* [A comparative study on the use of emotional intelligence competencies and academic achievement of faculty of education faculty members in business life] [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Ankara University.

Titrek, O. (2013). *IQ’ dan EQ’ ya: Duyguları zekice yönetme* [From IQ to EQ: Managing emotions intelligently] (4th ed.). Pegem.

Toutkoushian, R. K., & Conley, V. M. (2005). Progress for women in academe, yet inequities persist: Evidence from NSOPF: 99. *Research in Higher Education, 46*(1), 1–28. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-004-6287-6

Van Rooy, D. L., Viswesvaran, C., & Pluta, P. (2005). An evaluation of construct validity: What is this thing called emotional intelligence? *Human Performance, 18*, 445–462. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327043hup1804_9

Vărășteanu, C. M., & Iftime, A. (2013). The role of the self-esteem, emotional intelligence, performance triad in obtaining school satisfaction. 3rd World Conference on Learning, Teaching and Educational Leadership (WCLTA-2012). *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 93, 1830-1834. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.10.125

Yun, D., Jung, H., & Ashihara, K. (2020). Dimensions of leader anger expression unveiled: How anger intensity and gender of leader and observers affect perceptions of leadership effectiveness and status conferral. *Frontiers in Psychology, 11*, 1-17. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.01237

Zohar, D., & Marshall, I. (2000). *SQ: Spiritual intelligence, the ultimate intelligence*. Bloomsbury.

Zurita-Ortega, F., Olmedo-Moreno, E. M., Chacón-Cuberos, R., López, J. E., & Martínez-Martínez, A. (2020). Relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence in teachers in universities and other educational centers: A structural equation model. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 17*(1), 293. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17010293