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What Contributes to a Military Veteran Turned College Instructor's Job Satisfaction?

Elizabeth Button
Walden University

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College of Psychology and Community Services

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Elizabeth Lee Button

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Review Committee

Dr. Steven Linnville, Committee Chairperson, Psychology Faculty
Dr. Kimberly Rynearson, Committee Member, Psychology Faculty
Dr. Rolande Murray, University Reviewer, Psychology Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
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Abstract

What Contributes to a Military Veteran Turned College Instructor's Job Satisfaction?

by

Elizabeth Lee Button

MPhil, Walden University, 2019

MA, Marymount University, 2005

BS, Mary Washington College, 1999

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

General Psychology

Walden University

August 2023

Abstract

Veterans may seek a second job after retirement or separation from military service. Some choose to seek employment in the field of education and earn the appropriate credentials to do so. If so, they bring motivation, leadership skills, and emotional intelligence (EI) to the classroom. While EI might be a complement to education, it is essential in the military, and veterans continue to use these attributes as they pursue employment in areas of education. The extra steps that former military service personnel must take to transition from the battlefield to the classroom, their immersive experience in the real world, and the critical importance of EI in the military have the potential to produce a successful instructor. This study was focused on what contributes to the success of instructors in the classroom who experience job satisfaction in their new careers. Predictor variables assessed in this study were biological sex, number of years teaching in the classroom, military experience, and level of EI. A stepwise linear regression analysis was used to calculate the contribution of these predictor variables on job satisfaction. Participants were higher education instructors in the United States who had been teaching for at least two years. The 124 participants completed surveys that included demographic information, the Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test, and the Job Satisfaction Survey. EI was the most important predictor variable for job satisfaction. These findings may be employed to help college and university personnel who hire or train instructors so that the veteran employees are satisfied in their positions and form positive social change through relationships with their students.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

When a student enrolls in higher education, the goal of both the student and the institution is, ultimately, the student's graduation. High graduation rates are the goal for college administrators because this statistic is used as a metric for university quality (Gordanier et al., 2019); however, this outcome is not the norm. The National Center for Education Statistics (2019) reported that only 60% of students complete their bachelor's degree within 6 years. Many of these students withdraw completely, change programs and take longer than the standard 4 years to complete a degree, or fail in their course work (Wilson et al., 2019). Researchers have suggested that many factors contribute to a student's success in higher education, including not only the student's emotional intelligence (EI) but also the EI of the instructors (Costa & Faria, 2020; Devis-Rozental & Farquharson, 2020; Dolev & Leshem, 2017; Gutierrez & Tomas, 2019; MacCann et al., 2020; Strickland & Cheshire, 2017). EI has predictive validity for academic performance, job performance, and life satisfaction (Miao et al., 2017a) and was one of the variables focused on in this dissertation.

Effective teachers are emotionally intelligent teachers (Oznacar et al., 2017). Some researchers have even suggested that effective teaching cannot exist without EI (Kaur et al., 2019), as these instructors foster student success (Ali et al., 2017; Maamari & Majadalani, 2018) and directly shape the EI of their students (Puertas-Molero et al., 2019; Quinlan, 2016). EI is essential in social relationships (Goleman, 1995), and a student's relationship with an instructor is also essential. For emotionally intelligent

instructors to positively influence the greatest number of students, the instructor should remain in their position for a long and extended time. Factors contributing to whether an instructor stays in a position include EI and the instructor's personal job satisfaction. The link between these two factors was the focal point of this research.

A number of researchers have discovered several characteristics associated with EI; for example, women tend to possess more characteristics of EI than do men (Shehzad & Mahmood, 2013) and are more likely to experience both positive and negative emotions (El Badawy & Magdy, 2015). Other researchers have found that individuals with more years of teaching experience tend to have higher EI (Kumar & Muniandy, 2012), and older teachers tend to have both higher levels of EI and higher levels of job satisfaction than do younger teachers (Ahmed, 2015). According to Baba (2017), EI constructs are high predictors of job satisfaction. These characteristics—the sex of a person, the number of years of teaching experience, and levels of EI—were considered when identifying independent variables in this study, as well as the individual's military service.

EI is reported to have a positive effect on job satisfaction in academia (Joshi et al., 2015) and appears to be cross-cultural. For example, Shi et al. (2015) reported this type of intelligence was related to job satisfaction in Chinese soldiers as well as Pakistani school administrators (Suleman et al., 2020), teachers in Hong Kong (Li et al., 2018), and Iranian teachers (Tabatabaei & Farazmehr, 2015). EI is also related to empathy, communication skills, and commitment (Placek et al., 2019). Researchers have stated that emotions are expressed verbally and non-verbally (MacCann et al., 2016), and both types

of communication are essential to consider when hiring instructors who teach either directly in the classroom or asynchronously online. Employees who are more capable of controlling their emotions are more likely to follow through with their work responsibilities (Samanvitha & Jawahar, 2012), an essential skill that online instructors must possess. Whether the instructor is face-to-face in a classroom or communicating with students via words on the screen, it is important that the individual's EI is well developed.

A career in academia is the goal for some individuals, and their education is geared toward that vocation; however, not every person who is employed in academia identified education as their primary career choice. Some individuals in academia may have pursued another career, retired from that occupation, and decided later to pursue academia as a new career choice or decided to change career fields entirely to enter academia.

For example, the U.S. Census Bureau (2022) reported that in 2021, there were 16.5 million veterans in the United States, and many of these veterans might have been actively looking for jobs at that time. After a person serves in the military and chooses to switch careers or retires, some servicemen and servicewomen pursue teaching and employ their skills in the classroom. Former service members are considered to be easy to train and are accustomed to constantly learning and developing in their positions (Friend, 2018). In an occupation such as teaching, in which a person is judged by others (e.g., students, department heads), the ability of former service personnel to take constructive criticism and apply it to their skillset (Friend, 2018) is an asset as they hone

their craft as instructors. Wolfberg (2019) opined it is likely that former service personnel have learned to resolve conflict in a constructive manner.

This group of individuals were the population for this study. What makes the retired or separated military veteran part of such a unique population is that a serviceperson who chooses academia as a second career choice potentially has the motivation to seek out additional training and education so they can teach in the classroom (Robertson & Brott, 2014). The willingness to obtain additional training required for licensure or further education required for teaching in higher education, paired with the likely presence of higher EI, has the potential to help create a successful instructor. The extra steps that former military service personnel must take to transition from the battlefield to the classroom, their immersive experiences in the real world, and the EI they have displayed while in the military have the potential to produce a successful and perhaps well-satisfied instructor.

Chapter 1 includes a background for understanding the nature of the study and a discussion of the purpose of the study. Components of the study, including operational definitions, data collection, and implication for social change, are discussed. The significance of the study and the research questions and hypotheses are also presented.

Background

EI is a concept of interest to psychologists (Honkavuo, 2019) because researchers are focusing on aspects in intelligence beyond cognition (Parnell & St. Onge, 2015). Unlike other constructs in psychology, EI has been conceptualized in several different ways. Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined it 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" (p. 189); this description is of an abilities model. Bar-On (2006) conceptualized EI as social and emotional skills, how people understand their emotions, and how people understand the emotions of others, which is as a trait model. Goleman (1995) reported that EI is more of a mixed model in which the focus is on competencies (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003). Partido and Stafford (2018) summarized the components of EI to include self-awareness, self-confidence, self-control, empathy, motivation, and social competence. These six components are all present in the abilities model, the trait model, and the mixed model.

EI has been extensively studied in education, and much of the research has focused on characteristics of the academic environment and the students themselves (Hamilton, 2018), or the modality with which instruction is delivered (Kauffman, 2015). Studies of students' characteristics include how they perceive their instructors (Lillis, 2012) and the ability of students to manage their emotions (Beauvais et al., 2014). These are two factors that contribute to how well students perform in the classroom. Other factors include the relationships between students and faculty, for communication between student and faculty increases student engagement (Faranda, 2015), potentially increases retention, and allows for more effective teaching (Ibad, 2018). Some students who drop out cite lower-level relationships with faculty members (Brouwer et al., 2016). The factors that contribute to how well students perform and whether they stay enrolled are all dependent on the EI of the student and the instructor (see Costa & Faria, 2020; Dolev & Lesham, 2015).

Unlike what is considered to be an individual's innate intelligence, EI can be learned (Mattingly & Kraiger, 2019). Several researchers have suggested that EI should be a part of the training curriculum in academic fields, whether formally or incorporated into the curricula (Anand, 2019; Cerit & Beser, 2014; Chapin, 2015; Kaya et al., 2018; McCloughen & Foster, 2018). Parrish (2015) suggested that training should be focused on the most relevant traits in academia because researchers have linked EI to learning outcomes in higher education (Mosca, 2019; Orak et al., 2019). Other scholars have suggested that training in "emotional ability" (i.e., emotional intelligence) should be provided to education instructors (Zurita-Ortega et al., 2020, p. 1). Providing training to instructors takes time and has an associated cost; so, it is beneficial for institutions to hire instructors who already possess high levels of EI.

An individual's level of EI impacts their sense of job satisfaction (Miao et al., 2017b; Rahman & Haleem, 2018). According to Gong et al. (2020), job satisfaction will be high when a person has high EI and is engaged in their work. If employees are satisfied, the turnover rate will tend to be lower. One external factor that helps predict turnover rate in organizations is having leaders who possess EI (Miao et al., 2017a; Rahim et al., 2015); research on leaders in education who possess this asset might have similar results. Devonish (2016) asserted that examining personality traits such as EI is necessary for hiring personnel because personality is related to job satisfaction (Jovanovic, 2011; Relojo et al., 2015). Although interventions have shown positive outcomes in increasing EI (Hodzic et al., 2018; Kotsou et al., 2019), it would benefit personnel in higher education institutions to hire faculty with known high levels of EI to

reduce costs and avoid training time needed to develop this trait in their instructors.

Akhtar and Khan (2019) echoed this assertion, noting a need to study whether faculty with higher EI are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs.

Some positions require that personnel possess EI simply by virtue of the occupation, such as teaching in the humanities (Botey et al., 2020) or teaching in general (Katsberg et al., 2020). Researchers such as Shafait et al. (2021) described teaching as an emotional practice that involves relationships with others, which then emphasizes the importance of possessing EI. Because teaching can be a stressful occupation (Brackett et al., 2010; Merida-Lopez & Extremera, 2017; Yin, 2015) and an emotion-based profession (Arif et al., 2019), higher education instructors must possess EI to be effective in the classroom (Akhmetova et al., 2014). Stress influences a person's performance (Sekreter, 2019), and in some cases, has led to their early retirement (Puertas-Molero et al., 2018). Higher levels of EI help moderate a person's reaction to stress (Wilbraham et al., 2018), as the trait is a protective factor against this stress (Redin & Erro-Garces, 2020).

According to Sherman (2020), those who work in helping professions that require interpersonal relationships, such as teaching, may have higher EI levels, but academicians are not the only types of employees who possess EI. Nurses, salespeople, and managers often need to have high levels of EI, since they, too, are frequently working with the public (Sherman, 2020). Outside of academia and the civilian world, military personnel are challenged by stressful jobs, whether the serviceman or servicewoman is enlisted or an officer, as the occupation may result in its members experiencing intense and potentially dangerous situations that may elicit strong emotions (Oden et al., 2015). EI is

a necessary asset for an individual in the military to possess, especially when those individuals are training younger servicemen and servicewomen (Daffey-Moore, 2015; Goodman, 2018; Kitchell, 2019).

The necessity to possess high levels of EI was discussed by Dixon (1976) who noted that many military leadership failures were a result of the leaders' feelings and personality traits, such as low self-esteem and defensiveness. It is not a matter of a lack of intelligence but insight into emotions that is now conceptualized as EI. An officer of a unit must be both a good leader and be seen by others as a good leader (Koh & O'Higgins, 2018), and possession of high levels of EI is part of what that officer needs in order to be successful (Panait & Bucinschi, 2018). Leaders must recognize their own emotions in sensitive or stressful situations, as well as understanding the emotions of others. Leaders must also understand how emotions influence decision-making. A leader with higher levels of EI is more capable of recognizing their own emotions and their unit members' reactions to decisions (Oden et al., 2015). While EI might complement education, it is essential in the military.

Building on this necessity of having strong EI, educators in the military have begun to implement programs that can increase the EI of servicemen and servicewomen. By employing Bar-On's (2006) model of EI, the U.S. Army began to put more of a focus on the interpersonal and resiliency components in its training programs (Sewell, 2009). Other military institutions such as the U.S. Military Academy have begun to include character development as part of their curricula, including consideration of the cadets' socio-emotional capabilities (Callina et al., 2019). According to Cherniss (1999),

researchers in the United States Air Force (USAF) were studying the importance of EI and by 1998, they had found that recruiters who possessed higher levels of EI were more likely to be successful in their recruiting techniques and were more likely to meet their quotas for obtaining recruits (Government Accountability Office, 1998). Based upon this finding, the USAF began considering how to use EI to predict the performance of its unit members (Government Accountability Office, 1998).

Although EI is important in training and recruitment for the various branches of the military, there are limits to this application. Military psychological researchers have identified EI as an essential skill for members to possess because it might help them to become potential leaders. If a military member has the skill set to deal with people successfully, this could be reflected in their job satisfaction. Military servicemen and servicewomen are anticipated to possess high levels of EI (Bowe & Jones, 2017). If this is the case, it is essential to know whether these skills learned in the military can be transferred into a civilian classroom, and if the skills for rapport building with members of their military unit can potentially translate to rapport building with students.

The Pew Research Center (2019) noted that approximately 8.4% of veterans sought employment in education after separating from the military. Many of these veterans had high levels of expertise in their jobs, also noting that with the right amount of support, these skills could translate into the classroom (Parham & Gordon, 2016). Therefore, it could be important to know if the developed EI of these former servicemen and servicewomen might lend itself to job satisfaction in the civilian education system. Some of these members may naturally have higher levels of EI, while others might have

developed their EI in the more formal training the military provides its members (Callina et al., 2019). There is a chance that these servicemen and servicewomen might not have formal classroom experience, but their real-world experiences of serving the country, combined with their EI level, could provide them with the necessary skillset for success in the classroom.

Emotionally intelligent behaviors substantially impact job satisfaction (Long et al., 2016), and researchers have stated that this impact is seen in several industries (Sherman, 2020). During my search for appropriate studies on EI, I found a gap in the literature regarding how an instructor's past military history and developed EI impacted their job satisfaction in their current teaching career. Data from this study have implications for positive social change by emphasizing that emotionally intelligent instructors in the classroom who were veterans can affect positive change in their students.

Problem Statement

Universities are concerned about student retention after initial enrollment in higher education, given that the National Center for Education Statistics (2019) suggests that only 60% of students complete their bachelor's degree within 6 years. Many factors affect this retention rate, including the influence of the instructor, their communication skills, their engagement with the students (Dev et al., 2016; Ibad, 2018; Oznacar et al., 2017), and the EI of the professor (Dolev & Leshem, 2017; Gutierrez & Tomas, 2019). Longevity in their positions helps instructors develop meaningful relationships with their students. Many factors contribute to whether an instructor stays in their position, such as

job satisfaction and their developed EI. The focus of this research was on the link between these two factors.

A significant amount of research has been conducted on factors that contribute to a person's level of EI (El Badawy & Magdy, 2015; Kumar & Muniandy, 2012; Shehzad & Mahmood, 2013). In their study, Shehzad and Mahmood (2013) suggested that women perform better than men with regard to many characteristics of EI. When studying educators, Kumar and Muniandy (2012) found the longer an instructor had been teaching, the higher the mean EI score was. Along the same lines, El Badawy and Magdy (2015) reported that the older a person is, the higher EI they possess. Kaur et al. (2019) added that competency in EI can increase satisfaction with work in several fields. On a more general level, Kitchell (2019) contended that in some professions, individuals tend to have higher levels of EI by virtue of their occupation. For example, in the military, senior enlisted and young officers need to possess a sufficient level of EI to best train younger members (Daffey-Moore, 2015; Goodman, 2018). Identifying variables examined in previous literature is important, and the following variables have been considered for this study: (a) sex, (b) years of teaching experience, and (c) level of EI. These were the variables used as predictors in this study to determine their relationship to the outcome variable of instructor job satisfaction, along with the most important predictor of interest—military experience.

Although researchers might discover that the demographics and EI levels of instructors are related, there is a gap in the literature concerning the association of an instructor's status (i.e., never served versus serving/retired) and job satisfaction. If former

military servicemen and servicewomen are anticipated to possess high levels of EI (Bowe & Jones, 2017), they may also demonstrate a high level of job satisfaction in their new career as civilian instructors. Moreover, their job satisfaction may positively impact students' classroom and campus experiences, enabling these students to successfully complete coursework and obtain their desired degree. Such results could ultimately lead to an improvement in a university's graduation rates, which is the goal of a university.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine if former military servicemen and servicewomen, who may possess more heightened levels EI, may also experience higher levels of job satisfaction in post-high school education than those who have never served in the military. A goal in this study was to determine if the number of years an individual teaches in the classroom influences their levels of job satisfaction, regardless of prior military experience. This study's predictor (independent) variables were sex, EI level, military experience (yes or no), and years of teaching experience. The outcome (dependent) variable was job satisfaction. For the purposes of this study, the Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (Schutte et al., 2009) was used to measure EI, and the Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1994a) was used to measure job satisfaction.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The first research question (RQ) for this study was whether military experience, EI, years of teaching experience, and sex influence job satisfaction in higher education. The research questions were addressed as follows.

RQ1: What is the relationship between military experience and job satisfaction among higher education instructors?

H₀₁: There is no significant predictive relationship between military experience and job satisfaction among higher education instructors.

H_{a1}: There is a significant predictive relationship between military experience and job satisfaction among higher education instructors.

RQ2: What is the relationship between EI and job satisfaction in higher education?

H₀₂: There is no significant predictive relationship between EI and job satisfaction in higher education.

H_{a2}: There is a significant predictive relationship between EI and job satisfaction in higher education.

RQ3: What is the relationship between years of teaching experience and job satisfaction in higher education?

H₀₃: There is no significant predictive relationship between years of teaching experience and job satisfaction in higher education.

H_{a3}: There is a significant predictive relationship between years of teaching experience and job satisfaction in higher education.

RQ4: What is the relationship between sex and job satisfaction in higher education?

H₀₄: There is no significant predictive relationship between sex and job satisfaction in higher education.

H_{a4}: There is a significant predictive relationship between sex and job satisfaction in higher education.

RQ5: What is the relationship between military experience, EI, years of teaching experience, and sex versus job satisfaction in higher education?

H_{o5}: There are no significant predictive relationships between military experience, EI, years of teaching experience, and sex versus job satisfaction in higher education.

H_{a5}: There are significant predictive relationships between military experience, EI, years of teaching experience, and sex versus job satisfaction in higher education.

Theoretical Framework

The theory of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997) was used as the framework for this research. Building on Gardner's (2006) theory of multiple intelligence, EI is applied by a person when they use their own emotions and the emotions of others as they problem solve or manage their behavioral regulation (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). According to Joshi et al. (2015), instructors who possess higher levels of EI are more likely to be successful in the classroom. Therefore, these theories are appropriate for understanding an instructor's interactions. Another theory that could be applied was Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy. According to this theory, self-efficacy refers to a person's belief that they have the ability to attain goals they wish to accomplish. Researchers have noted that EI and self-efficacy are closely related, especially among instructors in higher education (Farhan & Ali, 2016; Wu et al., 2019). If an instructor feels competent in the classroom, they are better able to affect more change in the students, both academically and emotionally. Both theories have been studied in

several different settings, academia included (Rice, 2015). The framework for this dissertation was based on the emotional intelligence and self-efficacy theories, because the theories can be applied in an appropriate manner to better understand the factors that contribute to job satisfaction of instructors in higher education.

Nature of the Study

A nonexperimental quantitative design was chosen for this study because the data were gathered from existing, validated surveys, including the Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) as developed by Schutte et al. (2009), and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) developed by Spector (1994a). The SSEIT has high internal consistency and high test-retest reliability (Schutte et al., 1998) and was validated on several different populations (see Gong & Paulson, 2018). The JSS also has high internal consistency (Spector, 1994b).

In this dissertation study, there were four predictor variables and one outcome variable. One of the predictor variables, EI, was calculated using the SSEIT. Other predictor variables included sex, years of teaching experience, and military experience (yes/no). The outcome variable, job satisfaction, was calculated using the JSS.

The invitation to participate was disseminated on social media through academic channels on Twitter that reach educators worldwide, on my personal Facebook page, and in academic groups. There was also an invitation to share the information with other educators. Participants responding to the study were asked to fill out three surveys, including a demographic survey with five questions (sex, years teaching, position at the school, military experience or not, and if military experience, type of discharge), a job

satisfaction survey (36 questions that took approximately 5 minutes to complete), and an EI assessment (33 questions that took about 5 minutes to complete). Data were analyzed with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM SPSS v25, 2017) using multiple regression to examine the relationships between the predictor variables and the outcome variable. In a regression analysis, the independent variables are referred to as predictor variables, and dependent variables are referred to as outcome variables. This terminology was throughout the dissertation.

Definitions

Emotional Intelligence: A person's ability to understand how they feel as well as how other people feel, and how to use this understanding to make judgments and work through problems (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Job Satisfaction Survey: The JSS is a 36-item scale that examines employees' feelings regarding their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. The scale has 10 subscales: (a) pay, (b) promotion, (c) supervision, (d) fringe benefits, (e) contingent rewards, (f) operating conditions, (g) coworkers, (h) nature of work, (i) communication, and (j) total satisfaction (Spector, 1994c). Using Cronbach's alpha, internal consistency is reported to be .91 overall, and test-retest reliability is .71 (Spector, 1985).

Military Discharge: Separation from a branch of the Armed Forces, whether Honorable Discharge, General Discharge, Other Than Honorable, Bad Conduct Discharge, or Dishonorable Discharge (U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs, 2020).

Military Experience: Any time spent serving one or more of the four branches of the United States military (Army, Navy/Marine Corps, Air Force, and Space Force) or

U.S. Department of Homeland Security (Coast Guard), whether active duty, reserves, or guard. This term includes veterans and retirees.

Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test: The SSEIT is a trait-based assessment modeled after the concepts created by Salovey and Mayer (Schutte et al., 2009). This assessment is a 33-item scale that takes about 5 minutes to complete and provides four main subscales: (a) perception of emotion, (b) managing own emotions, (c) managing others' emotion, and (d) use of emotion (Schutte et al., 2009). Using Cronbach's alpha, internal consistency is reported to be .90; test-retest reliability is .78 (Schutte et al., 1998).

Self-efficacy: A person's belief that they can be successful in the areas where they wish to excel (Bandura, 1977).

Sex: The biological state of being male or female.

Years of Teaching Experience: Total number of years spent teaching, whether in a physical classroom or online.

Assumptions

The assumptions for this research included the following:

- An ability-based model of EI exists and can be accurately measured (Mayer, Salovey et al., 2008).
- Women tend to score higher on EI than do men, including their scores on most subscales (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Relajo et al., 2015).
- EI levels differ between individuals who have and have not served in the United States military.

- People teaching in higher education possess average to above-average EI by virtue of their occupation (Sherman, 2020).
- Responses to the self-report surveys are considered to be accurate and honest.

These assumptions were necessary within the context of the study based on the data from previous researchers who described EI according to Salovey and Mayer's (1990) definition. The assumptions regarding differences in EI levels between former military and non-military persons were based on the assertion that, while not formally taught, EI is essential in military leadership positions. Teaching is a highly interpersonal occupation that requires an instructor to be aware of their emotions and the emotions of others. Although there was a chance for response bias by participants, the assumption was made that there would be accurate and honest responses to self-report surveys. There was also the understanding that the participants were professionals in higher education who had likely conducted their own research and understood the importance of honesty.

Scope and Delimitations

A goal in this dissertation study was to gather information regarding the EI levels of nonmilitary and former military instructors in higher education and examine their levels of job satisfaction associated with their EI levels. Participants were recruited through social media channels that focus on academics, and those who were not United States citizens were not included in the sample. Only people over the age of 18 were allowed to participate in the study. The participants in this study were self-selected (i.e., it was their choice to participate).

The participants in this research consisted of faculty in higher education who were teaching for a United States college or university, either in person or online. Efforts were made to recruit participants who had prior military experience, and military experience was a required criterion in the paid participants group. When a person initially begins teaching in higher education, there may be some frustrations and obstacles present, such as creating original syllabi or lectures or adjusting to workplace politics, both of which might reduce the job satisfaction of these new educators. While the experiences of all participants were examined, those who had been teaching for fewer than 2 years were cautiously analyzed due to those factors.

This study has the potential for generalizability to the higher education population. Because participants were located throughout the United States, the sample was not localized to any particular major metropolitan area. There are many types of higher education institutions in the United States, ranging from community colleges to universities that offer doctoral degrees. Further, this study was designed to include participants from all types of institutions. This study can also be easily replicated for anyone interested in studying the constructs of EI and job satisfaction in nonmilitary and military personnel.

Limitations

There was a limitation in this study that involved the convenience sample of participants available. This convenience sample might have overinflated results concerning job satisfaction because participants may have known that the researcher would know their scores were included somewhere. To address this, the answers given

remained anonymous, but possibly inflated scores were considered during analysis.

Another limitation was that the COVID-19 pandemic required Walden University to mandate no face-to-face recruitment and data collection. This mandate restricted me from contacting professionals through means other than social media or other virtual measures; simply, recruiting face-to-face was not possible. Because the surveys were taken online, there was no interaction between myself and the participants to ensure that they understood all of the questions asked on the surveys. Participants were given my contact information if they had questions regarding the survey questions. Response bias is always possible, and any responses from participants that were suspicious (such as providing the same answer to every question) was flagged as problematic and discarded. There was also the consideration that many who participated in this study spent time on the internet and frequented social media; therefore, older people might not have seen the posts.

Significance

This research is significant because the data from the research can help fill a gap in understanding regarding the relationship between EI, potential prior military service, and faculty job satisfaction when the individual is teaching either online and/or face-to-face. Researchers have tended to examine the characteristics of faculty who possess higher levels of EI, such as the sex of the instructor (Shehzad & Mahmood, 2013) and length of teaching experience (Kumar & Muniandy, 2012). Dev et al. (2016) also noted that there has not been a significant amount of research conducted on linking EI with the quality of an instructor's performance. While the research regarding sex and EI is well-documented, one purpose of this study was to examine these two factors alongside the

impact of serving in the military and the resulting self-developed EI. Data from the dissertation may be used to determine whether there is a relationship between EI and military service. There are also implications for why educational institutions should hire former servicemen and servicewomen to achieve higher instructor success.

Summary

As an ability, EI has been studied for several decades since its introduction by Salovey and Mayer in 1990, and researchers have provided several findings. For one, EI is more prevalent in women than in men (Shehzad & Mahmood, 2013); although, some research in more technical fields has found the opposite (Jha & Singh, 2012). Researchers have also reported that some occupations, such as the military, tend to have personnel with higher EI (Daffey-Moore, 2015; Goodman, 2018). According to Kumar and Muniandy (2012), the longer an individual has taught, the higher that teacher's level of EI is. Similarly, leaders (i.e., corporate and noncorporate) who have been in their position longer are better performers (Herbst & Maree, 2008). EI is also well-documented to be related to job satisfaction (Baba, 2017). Despite these findings, there is a gap in the literature regarding the effect of an instructor's military status on their job satisfaction. A goal of this study was to explore the relationship between all these components.

Chapter 2 provides a more in-depth look at the research conducted in the areas of EI, job satisfaction, and prior military service. There is a discussion of the theoretical framework of the dissertation and after the literature review, there is a synthesis of the research findings. The critique of previous research methods and a summary conclude the chapter.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Student retention at universities is a challenge for educators in higher education (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019), and many factors can affect whether students stay enrolled through the entirety of their programs. One of these factors, according to Rahim et al. (2015), is the relationship students have with the faculty. These relationships cannot be developed if faculty do not remain employed with their institutions. Rahim et al. (2015) noted that the average employee turnover rate in the United States is approximately 15%, although, this is dependent on the industry. Some researchers have suggested that between a quarter and almost half of educators consider quitting within the first five years (Merida-Lopez et al., 2020). These statistics might lead a person to wonder if there is anything that can be done to reduce this turnover in academia.

One of the most cited reasons for faculty turnover is the lack of job satisfaction (Zahra et al., 2013). As such, job satisfaction was the main focus in this study. Another variable that was also important in this study and is related to job satisfaction is EI (Miao et al., 2017a). Case studies have shown that employees with higher EI are 63% less likely to quit their jobs (Cherniss, 1999). The usefulness of high EI for individuals in a helping profession has been studied extensively (e.g., Sherman, 2020; Weiszbrod, 2020). However, one occupation that has not been given sufficient attention regarding EI is the United States military, although, higher levels of EI can be found among military personnel (see Daffey-Moore, 2015). It is possible that the EI skills acquired within the

military could transfer well into the civilian field, such as those former military personnel who become teachers in higher education.

Former military personnel form a unique subset of the workforce. When a person retires from their line of work, they are usually older and have worked for 30 or more years in their field. However, after a person retires or separates from the military, they may not be of actual retirement age and may have many years, or even decades, of work left to pursue. Given this potentially large time frame in which another career can be discovered, the skillsets possessed in the military, including EI, could enhance any civilian job. Some employers, however, might be hesitant to hire former servicemen and servicewomen due to stereotypes regarding military personnel, or a belief that skills learned do not transfer well into the civilian world (Citröen, 2021).

Helping former military members transition to jobs in which they can excel and enjoy is paramount. Such hiring would benefit all parties if their skills can translate to a civilian classroom, in which they can develop relationships with students and be satisfied in their positions. Therefore, a purpose of this study was to examine the military status of an instructor, their EI level, their number of years spent in the classroom, their sex, and the relationship between each of those variables and job satisfaction.

A significant amount of research has examined the relationship between EI and sex, and men and women were found to have roughly the same levels of EI with small differences on some of the dimensions (Cabello et al., 2016; D'Amico et al., 2020). However, this study is unique because it considers the individual's sex and their EI in

relation to other variables. It is also unique because the participants were retired military, or those who had separated from the military, and became educators.

EI is a vital component of a military person's leadership ability. Although training for officers is focused on the development of EI (Sewell, 2009), there is little research available on the impact of EI levels on military personnel even though researchers have argued that military personnel are expected to possess constructs similar to EI (Chiorcea & Cioranu, 2021). Aside from the lack of research regarding applications of EI in military leadership, there is also a paucity of research concerning the relationship between prior military service and job satisfaction in higher education. If a serviceman or servicewoman separates or retires from the military and chooses higher education as a second career, it is important to know how they will fare in the transition.

This chapter includes a discussion of the strategies used to find relevant literature on the variables to be studied, as well as a review of the applicable literature. The theoretical foundations the study is built on are also discussed. The gap in the literature that necessitated this study is addressed, and the literature is synthesized and critiqued.

Literature Search Strategy

The Walden University Library was used during the literature search. Databases used included Thoreau, PsycINFO, Academic Search Complete, ERIC, Military and Government Collection, and SAGE Journals. Search engines employed included Google and Google Scholar. Mendeley and Research Rabbit were also used to search for relevant articles. Keywords such as *emotional intelligence*, *job satisfaction*, *student success*, *university teachers*, *college professors*, *emotional intelligence AND sex OR gender*,

emotional intelligence AND job satisfaction, emotional intelligence AND student success, emotional intelligence AND teacher performance, and emotional intelligence AND military were searched in the databases and search engines.

I primarily included articles published in 2015 or more recently for this literature review. A few seminal articles regarding theoretical foundations were accessed from the 1970s, the 1990s, and the early 2000s. Journal articles, including peer-reviewed journals, articles, publications released from the military, and published papers from conferences were examined for background data. The research on EI in leadership positions and in helping professions has increased significantly within the past several decades; hence, there was no difficulty accessing literature to build an argument for this research.

Theoretical Foundation

There were several theories used as framework for this study. The first theory was the theory of EI, as introduced by Salovey and Mayer (1990). The second theory applied was Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy. Both theories were appropriate for studying the relationship between EI and job satisfaction, and these two theories are discussed in this section.

EI has an extensive history of conceptualization, and several different models have been introduced, including an abilities model, a trait model, and a mixed model (Kanesan & Fauzan, 2019). The abilities model (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) is focused on EI as an emotional processing ability. For the purpose of this study, it is important to note that Mayer and Salovey (1997) asserted EI is something that can be learned and increases over time. The trait model (Petrides & Furnham, 2001) is applied to address EI as a

personality characteristic that can be categorized into four factors. The mixed model (Bar-On, 2006; Goleman, 1995) is focused on both abilities and personality traits (Kanesan & Fauzan, 2019). Bar-On (2006) stated that EI helps a person cope with demands and pressures from the environment. Further, Goleman (1995) noted that EI is encompassed in personality characteristics that cannot be categorized under the more traditional cognitive intelligence.

Hughes and Evans (2018) considered these different explanations of how EI can be categorized, ultimately arguing that while there are different conceptualizations of EI, finding the theoretical bases of these different theories of EI has become problematic. While this might be true, for the purposes of this study, the EI model used is the abilities model suggested by Mayer and Salovey (1997).

Mayer and Salovey (1997) identified a four-branch model of EI that conceptualized EI as an ability that a person possesses. The branches include the following: (a) perceiving emotion, (b) using emotions to facilitate thought, (c) understanding emotion, and (d) managing emotions. Many of the assessments used to test for EI include these four branches, each of which are represented in the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT; Schutte et al., 2009). The ability model lends itself to assessments with self-report questions (O'Connor et al., 2019), which is another reason the ability model was chosen. After 20 years, Mayer et al. (2016) updated their four-branch model to include more problem-solving ability. This suggests that EI is an intelligence model similar to more traditional cognitive intelligence models, but it is focused on emotions instead of more traditional verbal or numerical abilities (MacCann

et al., 2014). Continuing with contrasts to traditional cognitive intelligence, ability EI is not subject to the Flynn effect (Pietschnig & Gittler, 2017), which is another reason why the ability model was selected.

The theory of EI was the major theory applied in this study, but another theory that was helpful for understanding EI and job satisfaction was Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy, based on his social-cognitive learning theory. The researcher defined self-efficacy as an individual's perceptions of whether they can achieve their goals. This self-perception influences how determined a person is to do well on a task; the more a person believes they will be successful, the more effort they will put into the task (Bandura, 1977). Sahin (2017) further explained that self-efficacy also determines how a person manages their feelings, thoughts, and difficulties.

Bandura (1977) suggested that there may be differences in performance and self-efficacy expectations when a task being performed is ambiguous, or if the requirements are not well-defined. Perhaps self-efficacy is even more important in an educational setting in which little support is given. In an educational environment, self-efficacy, an offshoot of Bandura's theory, is important for an instructor to possess if they want to be an effective teacher (Amirian & Behshad, 2016). Teacher self-efficacy refers to the teacher's perception that they can perform specific teaching tasks successfully (Ngui & Lay, 2020), or that they have the ability to manage professional activities (la Velle, 2020). Researchers have stated that perceived self-efficacy in teachers is a predictor for an increase in competencies (Kassis et al., 2019), and this view strengthens the argument that self-efficacy is a relevant theory for use in this dissertation study. Sanchez-Gomez

and Bresó (2020) noted that higher EI is related to higher levels of professional efficacy. Self-efficacy theory is appropriate for studying the relationship between EI and job satisfaction because an instructor's beliefs about their capabilities are manifested in the classroom.

Both Mayer and Salovey's (1997) conceptualization of EI and Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy lend themselves to helping explain the research questions listed in this study. Regarding the relationship between EI and job satisfaction, researchers have demonstrated that employees with higher EI are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs (Baba, 2017; Joshi et al., 2015; Kaur et al., 2019; Oznacar et al., 2017). Data from this study are of benefit in the literature regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and EI, with the added variable of potential prior military service. An improved understanding of self-efficacy may be used to help explain this higher level of job satisfaction, and data from this dissertation may add to the literature. The relationship between military experience and job satisfaction has not been well-defined in the research and was explored in this study. Therefore, the abilities theory of EI and the theory of self-efficacy may help explain any relationship between these two variables.

Literature Review

This review was focused on the research conducted and the findings reported for each predictor variable, the outcome variable, and any interactions between the variables. Methodologies in previous research used to study these variables are explained, and the quantitative methodology chosen for this study is justified. After the review, the gap in the literature is identified, and the literature reviewed is synthesized and critiqued.

History of Emotional Intelligence

Furnham (2012) notes that the concept referred to as *emotional intelligence* emerged in 1920 in conjunction with Thorndike's social intelligence; it was then re-introduced in 1967 by Guilford. Some researchers might argue that EI was even present in Darwin's work that was focused on the need for emotional expression for the human species to survive (Busu, 2020). During the 1990s, EI took shape as its own branch of intelligence (Dhani & Sharma, 2016). Building on Gardner's (2006) theory of multiple intelligence, Mayer and Salovey (1997) and Goleman (1995) argued that although there is a small correlation between EI and cognitive intelligence, EI is separate from the traditional definitions of intelligence (Olderbak et al., 2019). Despite the distinction between cognitive intelligence and EI, some researchers were not convinced that there was a difference between the two.

When the concept of EI was first emerging, psychologists argued that it was merely a subset of traditional intelligence, not a separate entity (Lebeck & Chighizola, 2018). The qualifier, the term *emotional*, might have been a misnomer because EI does require some cognitive capability; it is not just an emphasis on feelings. A person needs to have the mental capacity to understand and evaluate their emotions (Busu, 2020). This differentiation was eventually accepted, and EI emerged as a separate entity. As research on EI grew, the assertion that EI is just as, if not more, important as the cognitive model of intelligence emerged. EI changed from its separate existence being questioned to being an essential skill that people should possess. Kunwar (2021) noted that success in life depends 20% on a person's intellect (i.e., IQ), 80% on EI, and an adversity quotient (how

successful an individual is over time). With this assertion, it might be suggested that the need for EI is vital, especially concerning success in a person's occupation.

Although EI appeared to be accepted within the psychological community as a separate entity, the emergence of a new type of intelligence brought forth additional problems. According to Dasbourough et al. (2021), researchers argued that the EI concept would soon die out, possibly due to the lack of validity. Another problem with the concept of EI was how to measure it. While intelligence as a cognitive model can be quantified with standardized tests (such as the Weschler family of assessments), there is no one definition of EI, and there is no singular accepted assessment for measuring it. Presently, there are many different assessments for measuring EI, and most scholars agree (or understand) that EI is either an ability or a personality trait (Petrides, 2017). These diverse assessments measure EI based on the belief model; although, some researchers continue to argue whether EI is a valid concept (Wolfe, 2019) and cannot be measured in a manner such as the measurement of cognitive intelligence.

Creating a new construct in a discipline requires that the construct be well-defined and that definition be agreed upon. According to Petrides et al. (2004), there was initially no agreement on how to operationally define EI. Additionally, there was no distinct difference between the different types of proposed EI (i.e., trait versus ability). Other than arguments about how to operationally define EI, disagreements about EI research arose, as well as concerns regarding how to objectively measure EI. Because many assessments for measuring EI levels are based on self-reports, some researchers have questioned its validity. This may have prompted the argument that the construct of EI would die out.

Even pioneering researchers in EI (see Salovey et al., 2008) admitted that using self-report inventories to measure EI can be problematic; instead, they suggested that other tasks that demonstrate EI should be used as a supplement to the inventories. With respect to application of EI in everyday life, some researchers asserted that EI does not have as significant an effect on relationships as initially suggested (Vidic et al., 2017).

Although data from research that distinguished EI as a legitimate concept slowly emerged, the construct is now considered to be an essential ability and trait. Throughout the literature review and for this study, EI is considered to be an ability (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The abilities model conceptualizes EI as an individual's cognitive ability to process emotions and then assess them (Fiori & Vesely-Maillefer, 2018). Researchers also explained that because EI is correlated to other cognitive abilities (Olderbak et al., 2019), the argument could be made that the person's ability to use their EI is a separate construct from more traditional cognitive intelligence and can be independently researched. Mayer and Salovey's (1997) four-branch model emphasizes this cognitive component.

Most assessments for cognitive intelligence generally follow a standardized procedure. In contrast, assessments for quantifying EI are self-report assessments, which can cause concern. There may be response bias by which the responder answers in a socially desirable way, the responder either overestimates or underestimates their ability, or the responder outright lies. Ideally, an abilities-based assessment would require actual demonstration of EI branches (Fiori & Vesely-Maillefer, 2018), but that is not always

feasible and was not feasible in this dissertation study. Regardless, if a researcher wants to measure EI, they have several assessments from which they can choose.

These assessments can be classified into three categories, as defined by Merida-Lopez and Extremera (2017): (a) self-report mixed, (b) self-report ability, and (c) performance-based ability. One of these self-report ability assessments is the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) created by the original researchers (Mayer et al., 2002). Schutte et al. (2009) developed the SSEIT, a self-report assessment focusing on the abilities model. Bar-On's (2006) assessment, the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (BOEQI), is a mixed model approach. According to Dhani and Sharma (2016), EI combines cognitive abilities (traditional intelligence) and personality components. Five dimensions are identified in this assessment: (a) intrapersonal, (b) interpersonal, (c) stress management, (d) adaptability, and (e) general mood (Ghanizadeh & Moafian, 2010). Finally, Goleman (1995) created the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory that conceptualizes EI as a competency model. Other measures of EI are available for use, but the MSCEIT, SSEIT, and BOEQI are commonly used. Although these tests purport to measure EI, it is important to note that they measure different aspects of EI (Wolfe, 2019).

The MSCEIT (Mayer et al., 2002) is the most well-known measure of ability EI (Petrides, 2017). The MSCEIT is a lengthy test that may not lend itself to being taken online due to the length and time needed, so the SSEIT was employed for this study because it, too, focuses on the abilities model of EI. The subsets of the assessment include the four-branch model of EI (Salovey et al., 2008) that focuses on perceiving

emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions, and managing emotions. These four branches are thought to be organized in a hierarchy, and the individual's understanding of their emotions and management of emotions involve higher cognitive processes (Fiori & Vesely-Maillefer, 2018). According to Salovey et al. (2008), people may conflate EI as being solely this last branch of managing emotions, but each branch is important when evaluating EI. Regardless of the manner in which a person conceptualizes how the four branches fit together, these branches provide the foundation for understanding EI, and applying these four branches can help researchers understand how EI can be applied to everyday life.

Emotional intelligence is not simply a concept in psychology that only works when applied to the workplace or when dealing with difficult people. While the term is often brought up when discussing these topics, EI plays a role in the everyday mental, physical, and emotional lives of people, and those with higher levels of EI tend to have better relationships with others and may be more satisfied with these relationships (Salovey et al., 2008). EI is associated with health indicators, including subjective well-being (Sanchez-Alvarez et al., 2016). EI in the workplace is researched worldwide, and Salovey et al. (2008) pointed out that EI is associated with a more positive work environment. This dissertation study was focused on the academic environment, and the role that EI plays in this environment is a well-researched concept.

An area of interest that is of current interest in discussions concerns difficulties in academia caused by burnout. Freudenberger (1974) discussed burnout and the topic was later studied more extensively by Maslach (1978). Possessing EI can help negate some of

these feelings of burnout, for studies have found that EI is negatively correlated to feelings of burnout (Yin, 2015) and is considered an essential coping mechanism to work through this potential burnout (Hamilton, 2018). Those with higher EI are more likely to engage in behavior that promotes an organization's functioning (Dirican & Erdil, 2019) which, in education, could mean a more efficient faculty who experience potentially lower levels of burnout. In a study that examined core self-evaluations (CSE), Yan et al. (2018) noted that those who had higher CSEs were more likely to have higher EI, and they opined that this ability might have helped them manage their stress at work.

Thory (2016) suggested that employees with higher EI find meaningfulness in their work via the EI concept of self-awareness, and according to Oznacar et al. (2017), effective teachers are likely to possess EI, perhaps because they are aware of the effects that they have on their students. Instructors with higher levels of EI are also more likely to have higher levels of self-efficacy (Farhan & Ali, 2016). This attribute might increase their job satisfaction because of their feelings of competency and pride in their classroom interactions.

Relationship Between Gender and Emotional Intelligence

When comparing characteristics that individuals possess, one way of grouping people is by their sex—either they are male or female individuals. While reading the literature, a scholar who expects a definitive answer regarding the differences in EI levels between male and female individuals would find that research conducted on the EI levels of men and women produced contradictory data.. Some researchers reported that women tend to possess more characteristics of EI than do men (El Badawy & Magdy, 2015;

Rahman & Haleem, 2018; Shehzad & Mahmood, 2013; Valente et al., 2018), and women are more likely to experience both positive and negative emotions (El Badawy & Magdy, 2015). Brackett and Mayer (2003) also found that women score higher on EI when using a performance measure, such as the MSCEIT.

Although some studies found that women have higher EI than men, other research suggests that men possess higher levels of EI than women (Shehzad & Mahmood, 2013). Shehzad and Mahmood (2013) also reported that women tended to score higher on most subscales of EI than men, but men scored higher on subscales that were focused on stress and stress management. Relajo et al. (2015) echoed this, noting that men scored higher on intrapersonal dimensions while women scored higher on interpersonal dimensions. Karimpour et al.'s (2019) study conducted with Iranian students suggested that men were more likely to possess the social skills component of EI, while women were better at identifying and regulating their emotions. Other researchers have also suggested that higher levels of EI alleviate the stress of men rather than women (Yin, 2015). A study conducted with Hispanic students found no significant differences in the subsets of EI between men and women but showed that the mean score for men in management was slightly higher (Shirvani & Shirvani, 2021).

As a pioneer in understanding EI, Goleman (1998) was one of the first researchers to suggest there were no differences in EI levels between men and women, and there is a large amount of research that supports Goleman's statement. In their study of Malaysian participants, Kumar and Muniandy (2012) found no significant difference between men and women. They asserted that levels of EI are not dependent on the instructor's sex.

Brackett and Mayer (2003) noted that there were no significant differences between men and women on self-report measures, and Pardellar et al. (2017) also found no significant difference between men and women on MSCEIT scores, but noted that women tended to score slightly higher overall. The consensus appears to be that although men and women may differ in terms of levels of EI, those differences may occur only in specific subsets, or only at a non-statistically significant level (Cabello et al., 2016), such as managing personal emotions (Ahmad & Zadeh, 2016). Most statistical effect sizes regarding sexual differences tend to be moderate (Costa & Faria, 2020). This dissertation study may add to the research regarding differences, if any, between men and women regarding EI levels.

Background Regarding Years of Teaching Experience

The question of whether age is a contributing factor to job satisfaction has been explored since the 1980s when O'Brien and Dowling (1981) studied the reason why or if there is a positive correlation between age and job satisfaction. They reported that the effects of aging, such as taking on a more responsible job or having a higher income, were contributing factors. According to Cabello and Fernandez-Berrocal (2015), older adults generally have higher levels of EI, while others show no significant relationship between age and EI. Another factor related to the construct of EI is the number of years an instructor has been in the classroom. Kumar and Muniandy (2012) observed that a greater number of years of teaching experience was related to higher EI, but Zysberg and Gimmon (2016) suggested that awards such as tenure (a permanent position secured after a specified amount of time) did not affect an instructor's EI.

Ahmed (2015) noted that older teachers tend to have higher levels of EI and higher levels of job satisfaction, whereas although other researchers argued that although having higher levels of EI was associated with job satisfaction, those researchers did not make a distinction regarding age. Amirian and Behshad (2016) added to the research when they found a positive relationship between the EI of teachers and the number of years in the classroom in their sample. Cross-culturally, Llego et al. (2019) reported no significant relationship between EI and the number of years in the classroom among Arab teachers in Saudi Arabia. One study cited research that suggested years spent in the classroom are related to effectiveness, but other research found inconsistent relationships between years spent teaching and the well-being of the instructor (see Fernandez-Berrocal et al., 2017). According to Cabello et al. (2016), while age is a factor that is associated with various levels of EI, the results are not very consistent.

There are other factors that might explain differences in EI levels when discussing data on participants of various ages. For example, a person with a doctoral or similar professional degree would likely be older than someone with a bachelor's degree. As a result, there could be the assumption that EI is related to the levels of the degree an instructor holds. Long et al. (2016) asserted that there was a difference between the EI levels of instructors with different academic degrees, but Amirian and Behshad (2016) did not find that EI levels of an instructor were related to the type of degree held. Given this conflicting information, it is difficult to generalize how time spent in the classroom might affect EI, but the instructor's age could be a component.

Instructors are expected to be leaders in their classrooms who must be aware of their emotions and regulate these emotions (Majeski et al., 2017)—they must possess EI. Regardless of the leadership style the instructor employs, researchers have suggested that instructors who are older and have more years of experience tend to perform better (Herbst & Maree, 2008). Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2010) echoed this assertion, noting that an instructor's EI increases each year in the classroom. Although some abilities begin to decline as a person ages, Cherniss et al. (2016) reported that EI increases as a person ages. Akhtar and Khan (2019) stated that EI and levels of job satisfaction were the highest during the first 5 years and after 20 years an instructor held their position, but decreased between 11 and 15 years of teaching.

Ahmed (2015) supported the idea that the longer an instructor is in the classroom, the higher their EI becomes. Their finding is another reason to be cautious about self-reports of job satisfaction from instructors who are new to the classroom. An instructor who has been in the classroom for only 1 or 2 years might be dissatisfied with their job due to extraneous factors, and this perception might skew the data. Although there are dissenting findings in the research regarding the degree of longevity and EI levels, the data suggest that a teacher's successful instructional longevity is an essential factor to consider.

Background on Military Service

A significant amount of research has conducted on EI in the workplace, but there much less research on the EI of military personnel (Valor-Segura et al., 2020). Some misperceptions of military members include their inability to express their emotions,

while individuals may assume the possibility that a member could be emotionally unstable (Stone et al., 2018). Another assumption is that once a service member separates from the military, they keep this emotional coldness (Shepherd et al., 2019), for in the military, emotions were seen as something that should be avoided altogether, especially in combat situations (Daffey-Moore, 2015). Leaders in the military are expected to do their jobs and support those in their unit, but that support may not extend to the emotional well-being of the unit's members (Aguilar & George, 2019). This perspective is changing, according to Hyllengren (2017), and military leaders have begun to identify certain traits that could prove to be beneficial when serving, especially when faced with ambiguous situations—one of these traits is EI.

Sewell (2009) maintained that in 2006, U.S. Army human factors personnel addressed the need for resiliency (a component of EI) in all its members, not just in its leaders. In a study on Spanish cadets, Valor-Segura et al. (2020) highlighted that although cognitive and personality competencies for cadets were often examined, EI was never explicitly identified, although many of these competencies could be classified under the concept of EI. Chiorcea and Cioranu (2021) shared that many military documents identify skills necessary to be an effective leader, but that the term *emotional intelligence* was not employed, although many of the skills listed were characteristic of EI. Over the past decade, the importance of EI has been identified (Daffey-Moore, 2015), and military training personnel have since implemented an emotional and social component into their training to increase EI and the desired component of resiliency (Sewell, 2009). For example, the Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences designed a

curriculum for their military medical students that includes an hour session on EI (True et al., 2020) that has received positive feedback from participants.

Military psychologists and educators are incorporating emotional and social component in their training; for example, the United States Military Academy emphasizes character in its program, including social intelligence, empathy, and teamwork (Callina et al., 2019). Placek et al. (2019) illustrated that many traits delineated in the U.S. Army Leadership Doctrine are very similar to traits of EI, although not explicitly referred to as EI. Another example of the importance of EI can be found within the U.S. Army leadership coursework. The Army has requirements for leaders that describe what an ideal leader should offer their subordinates. Many of these requirements overlap with EI, such as empathy and interpersonal skills (Uhl et al., 2021).

Emotional intelligence and resilience have long been shown to be associated (Cuartero & Tur, 2021; Delhom et al., 2020), and an emotionally intelligent soldier has the skills to make appropriate decisions and tolerate their stress (Sewell, 2009). Aguilar and George (2019) discussed the relationship between EI and conflict resolution and referred to a study that found officers in the Indian Armed Forces were more likely to possess high levels of EI than their subordinates.

In addition to managing stress and appropriate decision-making, successful military service personnel who desire to be promoted, whether enlisted or officer, must demonstrate exemplary leadership, according to Title 10 United States Code subsection 7223 (Requirement of Exemplary Conduct, 2021). Leaders who are unable to make decisions and are not considered to be accessible to those they are leading are likely to be

failed leaders (Daffey-Moore, 2015). Upon graduation from officer training, service personnel are expected to possess the skills to lead their subordinates. One of these critical skills is EI (Panait & Bucinschi, 2018) because a leader must have the capacity to make decisions during stressful situations and communicate with people from various backgrounds.

The success of a mission rests heavily on the ability of leaders to manage their own emotions as well as the emotions of those they are leading. Oden et al. (2015) asserted that such leaders should be provided with training to ensure that these skills are acquired or enhanced, and training personnel are turning their focus toward this; Koh and O'Higgins (2018) reported that the training received while becoming an officer should include scenarios in which candidates are encouraged to demonstrate that they are able to monitor their feelings. Instructors may also become aware that their students already possessed this ability before entering training. Leaders who acknowledge their feelings and can identify the emotions of others in the unit are more likely to be effective (Stuewe, 2018) and can run a cohesive unit.

Teamwork is essential in the military, and members with higher EI can enhance the cohesiveness of these teams (Krishnakumar et al., 2019). Each unit member has a responsibility, including identifying any weaknesses that might be present in themselves or in their cohorts (Evans et al., 2016). Those with EI are more likely to have the ability to identify these weaknesses and take corrective action. Members of the military must also work with people who are culturally different than themselves. Cultural competence is essential when working with other ethnic groups. Trejo et al. (2015) observed that

those who were better able to regulate their emotions were more likely to be successful in working with other ethnic groups. Cultural intelligence is highly related to EI (Piotrowski et al., 2020). Thus, it is vital that military members possess EI to be able to work effectively with personnel from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds.

Whether they have attended formal training for or have a natural or inherent ability regarding traits of EI, characteristics that former military personnel might possess could serve them well in the classroom. Members in the military are known for keeping order and adhering to protocol (Military.com, 2021), which would help them maintain a smooth-running classroom in which students are presented with clear expectations. Regardless of the level of education of the student, one aspiration a teacher has is to instill pride in their students and encourage them to achieve their goals. Former officers and others in leadership positions in the military are taught to motivate and encourage members of their unit to perform their best, and this ability could be an advantage to an instructor in the classroom. Teachers are considered to be responsible for the success of their students, just as a unit leader is responsible for their unit members (Hinton, 2020). High-performing students and high-performing instructors create an ideal work environment that could lead to higher levels of job satisfaction.

Background on Job Satisfaction

For an organization to be successful and retain its employees, it is essential that those employees are happy in their positions and are satisfied with their work product. People who are happier in their jobs are reported to be more satisfied in their position (Abbas et al., 2019), and intrinsically motivated people (driven by internal factors) are

more likely to have higher job satisfaction (Lee, 2018). One of the constructs measured to determine this level of happiness is job satisfaction, which is considered to be how much a person enjoys their work or the affective reactions to the job (Rich et al., 2010).

People's reasons for being happy in their position might differ from job to job, and the level of satisfaction may not be consistent over time. To understand precisely what is entailed in the idea of job satisfaction, it is important to operationally define what is meant by job satisfaction.

Many components go into an overall feeling of job satisfaction, and these components include: (a) the subscales of pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, and contingent rewards, (b) operating procedures; (c) coworkers; (d) the nature of the individual's work; (e) communication; and (f) total satisfaction (Spector, 1985). Other components of job satisfaction are the following: (a) feelings about supervisors and coworkers, (b) perceptions of the job itself, and (c) traits of the individual (Rich et al., 2010). Business researchers have suggested that job satisfaction consists of three parts: (a) the emotional response, (b) results achieved, and (c) attitudes toward the job (Gibson et al., 2012). Overall, a major contributor to job satisfaction levels is the workplace climate, including the employee's leadership abilities (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2015), and the individual's ability to contribute to decision-making in the workplace (Taylor et al., 2017). Although there are other measures of job satisfaction that may include some of these components, Spector's (1985) definition of job satisfaction, or the combination of all of these subsets, was employed for purposes of this dissertation study.

A company benefits from having employees who are satisfied with their job because their satisfaction is known to increase loyalty and performance, and to have a thriving academic environment, it is beneficial for collegiate institutions to help improve faculty performance (Vratskikh et al., 2016). Therefore, department heads within these educational institutes should attend to the job satisfaction of their instructors that in turn, improve the learning environment of their students (Stankovska et al., 2016). There is a relationship between an individual's thoughts and their behaviors, and Suleman et al. (2020) suggested that job satisfaction includes an emotional component as well as an intellectual and behavioral component. These factors include the person's perceptions of their employment and the considerations an employee has concerning their jobs (Suleman et al., 2020).

If job satisfaction has a positive effect on employees and increases their performance, it is essential to understand the influences on job satisfaction. A plethora of research suggests that EI influences job satisfaction (Arif et al., 2019; Ilyas & Abdullah, 2016; Rahman & Haleem, 2018). One of the reasons for this influence might be the trait of resilience because someone who possesses that trait is more to better cope with stressors that might arise in the workplace (Joshi et al., 2015). Another relationship between EI and job satisfaction is the concept of subjective well-being; those with higher levels of subjective well-being tend to perform better in their jobs and are also more likely to have higher levels of EI (Devonish, 2016). Research on the effect of the person's sex on job satisfaction has shown conflicting results. El Badawy and Magdy (2015) found that a person's sex did not make a difference in their job satisfaction. In comparison,

Pasha and Aftab (2020) reported on several studies that suggested men had higher levels of job satisfaction than women, but they stated that other studies showed no statistically significant difference between the sexes. The literature search provided no clear answer that leads to what helps predict a person's level of job satisfaction.

Relationships Between the Predictor Variables and the Outcome Variable

Emotional intelligence is reported to have a positive effect on job satisfaction in academia (Joshi et al., 2015; Miao et al., 2017b; Suleman et al., 2020). This relationship appears to be cross-cultural, as various studies have shown. EI is noted to be related to job satisfaction in Chinese soldiers (Shi et al., 2015), Pakistani school administrators (Suleman et al., 2020), teachers in Hong Kong (Li et al., 2018), Indonesian teachers (Sudibjo & Sutarji, 2020), and Iranian teachers (Tabatabaei & Farazmehr, 2015). EI is also related to empathy, communication skills, and commitment (Placek et al., 2019), all essential for interpersonal relationships. Those with higher levels of EI might be better equipped to work through inevitable workplace stress, which might lead to higher job satisfaction (Extremera et al., 2018). Job satisfaction is considered an essential factor in education, for it has the potential to improve learning and reduce turnover (Mehrad, 2020). Those who perform well in their jobs are more likely to be satisfied, although researchers have shown contradictory relationships between EI and job performance (Nguyen et al., 2019).

Not all employees of higher education are physically on-campus, for they may teach in a virtual setting, but regardless of their location, interpersonal skills and EI are still important. According to MacCann et al. (2016), emotions are expressed both

verbally and non-verbally, and this factor is important to consider when hiring instructors who are teaching asynchronously online. There is a positive relationship between EI and online teaching efficacy (Ali et al., 2017). Given this information, universities should hire instructors who already possess higher levels of EI, especially because these employees are better at controlling emotions and are more likely to follow through with work responsibilities (Samanvitha & Jawahar, 2012). Online teachers often must work more independently than on-campus teachers. Having an instructor who follows through on expectations is vital. Emotionally intelligent instructors are also more likely to have better job performance (Wu et al., 2019) that lead to their higher levels of job satisfaction (Miao et al., 2017a). Baba (2017) reported that constructs of EI are high predictors of job satisfaction. Satisfied instructors are more apt to stay in their positions and can develop relationships with students, even from afar in a virtual learning situation.

One of the arguments regarding the validity of measurements concerning the relationship between EI and job satisfaction is that EI measurements do not consider workplace factors (Krishnakumar et al., 2016). The data are more indicative of how a person manages emotions or recognizes the emotions of others rather than in what type of environment those emotions are managed. Some of these conflicts include discipline problems with students and stress, both of which instructors with high EI are capable of managing (Valente et al., 2018). Other workplace factors include psychological distress or bullying. Without considering these workplace factors, EI is shown to have a high correlation with job satisfaction (Li et al., 2018). While completing the literature review,

I found a significant amount of research that was focused on the effects of EI on job satisfaction in the classroom and in other service industries.

There is, however, another sector in which job satisfaction is quite important and has workplace factors that might affect job satisfaction. The research regarding military service and job satisfaction appears to be speculative, for while Tao and Campbell (2020) discussed several factors that could potentially help former servicemen and servicewomen find satisfaction in their civilian jobs, the researchers suggested that role clarity was essential for job satisfaction. There are significant differences between leadership styles in the military and in the civilian world. There is a strong sense of structure and organization in the military that might not be afforded in the civilian world (Tao & Campbell, 2020). A serviceman or servicewoman might excel within a carefully defined structure, but once they enter the civilian world, there may not be as clearly defined roles for a position as was found in the military. Adherence to protocol and the importance of completing tasks in a standardized way allows military personnel to work as a cohesive unit. Out of the military, a job might have a lack of clarity of roles or less defined roles because employees experience more freedom to manage their work. A structured military assignment does not include this level of freedom to its members, and as a result, those who have served in the military might experience lower levels of job satisfaction in the civilian world (Tao & Campbell, 2020).

Methodologies Used in Previous Research

While research conducted on EI has been both quantitative and qualitative, this dissertation study was based on quantitative methodology because the purpose of the

study was to investigate a variety of variables that could be associated with job satisfaction with prior military service as the primary selected variable. Researchers have employed surveys and self-reports to measure levels of EI or considered treatment interventions to raise EI levels. Surveys and self-reports were used in this dissertation study, but there were no interventions.

Conclusion

Many facets of EI, including sex and years of teaching experience, have been studied extensively through decades of research and various sectors, and the findings vary. Concerning research on EI and military personnel, the need to possess EI is evident in the training literature. Factors that lead to higher levels of job satisfaction, including EI, role clarity, and an ability to deal with stressors, have been well-documented in the research. However, there is a gap in the literature regarding the impact of prior military service on a higher education instructor's level of job satisfaction. A goal of this study was to: (a) address this gap, (b) address findings concerning EI and the individual's sex, and EI and (c) years teaching and EI. Data from the research may contribute to best hiring practices in colleges and universities. The methods used to address this gap are discussed in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative dissertation study was to determine if former military servicemen and servicewomen possess higher EI and, thus, experience higher levels of job satisfaction when compared to individuals who have never served in the military. A secondary purpose of this study was to determine if the number of years an instructor spends in the classroom influences their levels of job satisfaction, regardless of prior military experience. In Chapter 3, the specifics of the study are discussed, including the research design, rationale for the design, population and sampling of the population, instruments used, potential threats to validity, and potential ethical concerns.

Research Design and Rationale

Variables

The first predictor variable was the participant's sex; individuals in the study responded with either "Male" or "Female." The second predictor variable was the participant's level of EI, which was measured via self-report using the SSEIT (Schutte et al., 2009). The third predictor variable was the participant's military experience, and the response was either "Yes" or "No." The fourth predictor variable was years of teaching experience. The participant was asked to total the number of years spent teaching, whether online or in a physical classroom, even if there was a gap in their teaching years. The outcome in this study was job satisfaction, which was calculated by using the JSS (Spector, 1994a).

Research Design

The research design for this study was nonexperimental, correlational, and quantitative. A correlational design is structured to help determine the strength of relationships between predictor and outcome variables, although nonexperimental correlational designs do not prove causality between the variables (Bevins, 1999). In this study, the relationships between the variables were explored. A correlation is assumed if the research shows that these variables are associated with each other, and each predictor variable has occurred before the outcome variable occurred (Bevins, 1999). The nonexperimental quantitative design used in this dissertation was consistent with other research studies that examined participants' EI by employing surveys.

Methodology

Population

The target population for this study consisted of adjunct or full-time faculty who were currently teaching in higher education and had been teaching in that capacity for at least two years. The participants were men and women who were United States citizens over the age of 18, all of whom had either served in the military or had not served in the military. G*Power (Faul et al., 2009) analysis yielded that the sample size for this population should ideally be approximately 128 participants.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

Due to the nature of the COVID-19 pandemic, it was necessary to recruit participants via online methods, which resulted in a nonprobability purposive sample. The participants were selected from social media outlets I had used. Although a

nonprobability sample may raise concerns for potential bias (Groves et al., 2009), a socially distanced sampling method was necessary. These outlets have a worldwide population of instructors in higher education; however, only those in the United States were asked to participate for this study's purposes. The informed consent form, the demographics questionnaire, the SSEIT, and the JSS were combined into one link that was posted on Twitter, Facebook, and a Discord server for those interested in participating. Eligible participants were asked to click on a link that led them to the surveys; they were then asked to complete the surveys. At the end of the surveys, participants were encouraged to pass along the survey information to peers they thought might meet the criteria. Therefore, snowball sampling was also used to obtain participants. Inclusion criteria were as follows: (a) the participant was over the age of 18; (b) was a United States citizen; (c) was an instructor in higher education, either online or face-to-face for at least 2 years; (d) had a potential military service history; and (e) was fluent in reading and understanding English. Exclusion criteria were as follows: (a) non-citizens of the United States; (b) teaching in higher education, either online or face-to-face, for less than 2 years, (c) under the age of 18, and (d) demonstrated a lack of fluency in the English language.

When determining the sample size for a study, it is important to consider the effect size, the alpha level, and the statistical power level. For this multiple regression study, the typical alpha level of .05 and a power level of .80 (medium effect size) were used. Using G*Power 3.1.9.4 software (Faul et al., 2009), the variance explained was .0545 (as measured by R^2), and the residual variance was 0.87. With these variances, the

effect size was calculated as 0.062, a small effect; as a result, G*Power suggested a sample size of 128 participants.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Participants responded to invitation posts in social media profiles on Twitter, Facebook, and an academic Discord server. Walden University's Facebook page for Online Psychology Degree Programs was also used for recruitment. To ensure that not all participants were from the field of psychology, I tagged the academic pages on Twitter in the invitation post to increase exposure to the study in non-psychology fields. The Discord server also has a wide variety of viewers in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics fields and could provide a diverse selection of educators.

Educators who chose to participate in the study were asked to complete a demographic questionnaire that asked for their sex (male or female), how many years they had been teaching in higher education, and whether they had military experience. If they had military experience, they were asked what type of discharge they received. Participants were asked whether they were United States citizens, and the response was either "Yes" or "No."

Participants were asked to complete several questionnaires and surveys for this study; however, before they could begin the surveys, they were provided with an informed consent form describing the study as approved by Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). Once they read the form, they indicated whether they agreed or disagreed, and my contact information was provided if they had any questions. If they agreed, they were asked to proceed with the questionnaire and surveys. If they

disagreed, the survey site, SurveyMonkey, uses disqualification logic that allows participants to be routed based on how they answer the questions (SurveyMonkey, n.d.-a). They were taken to the disqualification page and were not allowed to continue. The same disqualification logic was used if the participants did not meet the inclusion criteria for participation in the study (e.g., under 18, not a United States citizen, not a higher education instructor). Once participants finished answering all the questions, they exited the survey. The questionnaires and surveys were entered into SurveyMonkey (SurveyMonkey, n.d.-b), an internet-based organization that allows for the direct export of data to a Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM SPSS v25, 2017). Once participants completed the demographic questionnaire, the SSEIT, and the JSS, the data were collected via SurveyMonkey and exported into SPSS for me to analyze.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

The SSEIT (Schutte et al., 1998) is an assessment that is modeled after the concepts created by Salovey and Mayer that was employed to measure the EI of participants in this study. To determine the reliability and validity of this assessment, Schutte et al., (2009) tested 346 participants, including college students and other individuals in a community. After Schutte et al. (2009) completed the design of the analysis, the SSEIT became a 33-item scale that provides four main subscales: (a) perception of emotion, (b) managing own emotions, (c) managing others emotion, and (d) utilization of emotion. Using Cronbach's alpha, internal consistency was reported to be .90, and test-retest reliability was .78 (Schutte et al., 1998). The developers also noted that scores on their scale were consistent with other measures related to EI. One of the

developers, John Malouff (2016), has indicated that this instrument can be used for research purposes if the researcher is using it for research and educational purposes only.

The Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1994a) was used to measure job satisfaction in this research study. It was appropriate for the study because it investigates 10 different subscales that examine how an employee feels about their job, including the following: (a) pay, (b) promotion, (c) supervision, (d) fringe benefits, (e) contingent rewards, (f) operating conditions, (g) coworkers, (h) nature of work, (i) communication, and (j) total satisfaction (Spector, 1994c). On the website for the JSS, Spector (n.d.) asserts the following.

You have my permission for free noncommercial research/teaching use of any of the assessments that are in the Our Assessments section of paulspector.com. This includes student theses and dissertations, as well as other student research projects. Copies of the scale can be reproduced in a thesis or dissertation as long as the copyright notice is included, as shown in the downloadable copy of each scale. (para. 2)

The survey was normed using human service personnel (such as mental health center workers, social service workers, nurses, and psychiatric hospital employees), Cronbach's alpha showed reliability is .91, and test-retest reliability is .71 (Spector, 1985).

Operational Definitions for this Study

Sex: The individuals answered that they were either biologically male or biologically female. This variable was measured based on self-report from participants.

Years of Teaching Experience: The total number of years spent teaching, whether in a physical classroom or online. This variable was measured based on self-report from participants.

Military Experience: Any time spent serving one or more of the four branches of the United States military (Army, Navy/Marine Corps, Air Force, and Space Force) or the U.S. Department of Homeland Security (Coast Guard), whether they had served on active duty, in the reserves, or in the guard. Veterans and retirees were both included. This variable was measured based on self-report from participants.

Emotional Intelligence (EI): A person's ability to understand how they feel, as well as perceiving how other people feel, and use this understanding to make judgments and work through problems (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). This was operationally defined as the total score on the SSEIT (Schutte et al., 2009). Each of the 33 statements was based on a 5-point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree." An example of one question was "I seek out activities that make me happy."

Job Satisfaction: Total score on the 36-item JSS (Spector, 1994a). Each of the 36 statements was based on a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Disagree very much" to "Agree very much." An example of one question is "I like the people I work with."

Data Analysis Plan

Data were imported into SPSS via an Excel spreadsheet provided by SurveyMonkey. After the data were imported, all were examined to determine if each participant answered all the questions. If less than 5% of the data were missing, suggested

by researchers as negligible (Madley-Dowd et al., 2019), no action was taken since the concern of bias was low. If more than 5% of a respondent's data were missing, the answers of that participant were excluded because the study was focused only on individuals who had completed all questions on the surveys (Madley-Dowd et al., 2019).

The overarching research question (RQ) for this study was whether military experience, EI, years of teaching experience, and sex influence job satisfaction in higher education. This RQ was addressed in the following manner:

RQ1: What is the relationship between military experience and job satisfaction among higher education instructors?

H₀₁: There is no significant predictive relationship between military experience and job satisfaction among higher education instructors.

H_{a1}: There is a significant predictive relationship between military experience and job satisfaction among higher education instructors.

RQ2: What is the relationship between EI and job satisfaction in higher education?

H₀₂: There is no significant predictive relationship between EI and job satisfaction in higher education.

H_{a2}: There is a significant predictive relationship between EI and job satisfaction in higher education.

RQ3: What is the relationship between years of teaching experience and job satisfaction in higher education?

H₀₃: There is no significant predictive relationship between years of teaching experience and job satisfaction in higher education.

H_{a3}: There is a significant predictive relationship between years of teaching experience and job satisfaction in higher education.

RQ4: What is the relationship between sex and job satisfaction in higher education?

H₀₄: There is no significant predictive relationship between sex and job satisfaction in higher education.

H_{a4}: There is a significant predictive relationship between sex and job satisfaction in higher education.

RQ5: What is the relationship between military experience, EI, years of teaching experience, and sex versus job satisfaction in higher education?

H₀₅: There are no significant predictive relationships between military experience, EI, years of teaching experience, and sex versus job satisfaction in higher education.

H_{a5}: There are significant predictive relationships between military experience, EI, years of teaching experience, and sex versus job satisfaction in higher education.

After the information was entered into SPSS, a stepwise, multiple linear regression was run to determine the relationship between the outcome and predictor variables. Like a correlational study in which a researcher attempts to find a relationship between two variables, in a regression study, the researchers seeks to use the score from a variable of an individual to predict the score on another variable (Warne, 2018). Each

predictor variable was examined with the outcome variable to see the strength of the relationships. Confidence intervals of 90% were used.

Threats to Validity

External Validity

In quantitative research, validity refers to whether a researcher can draw inferences from the score on the research instruments (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). There is external validity if the researcher can generalize the information to a given population. Hence, an external validity threat is one that inhibits a researcher's ability to generalize the findings to a more general population (Urban & van Eeden-Moorfield, 2018). One of the threats to external validity in this study was a lack of random sampling because this study employed purposive sampling. Because newer higher education instructors (i.e., teaching fewer than two years) were excluded, generalizability was more difficult (Murad et al., 2018). This exclusion was included to increase precision, so the threat could not be completely mitigated. The setting of the study, conducted in an online venue, might influence external validity because it narrowed the availability of participants to those who frequented different social media platforms. The threat of the setting was addressed by using several different media platforms that were both socially and academically based.

Kalaian and Kasim (2008) noted that the period of time when a study is conducted can be a threat to external validity. Many higher education instructors were working remotely during the COVID-19 pandemic, which could reduce their job satisfaction if they preferred to work in a classroom. Another threat to external validity was testing

reactivity. This refers to the impact that simply being in a study may have on a participant's response (Kalaian & Kasim, 2008). Participants might modify their responses to portray themselves as more satisfied or less satisfied than they were with their jobs or consider themselves to have higher EI.

Internal Validity

One aspect of internal validity is whether changes to the predictor variables correlate to changes in the outcome variable (Lavrakas, 2008b). After this correlation is determined, efforts can be made to determine proper cause and effect. Several threats to internal validity may exist, including selection, history, and instrumentation (Lavrakas, 2008b). Selection was a threat to this study's internal validity because anyone who wished to participate and met the criteria could complete the study. It is impossible to know if this self-selected sample represent the general population of higher education instructors.

History can also a threat to internal validity. Lavrakas (2008b) suggested that something other than the predictor variables might have occurred before the outcome variable was measured. In this study, a participant might have been quite satisfied with their job before the COVID-19 pandemic. Their satisfaction might be lower when they took the dissertation survey because they were required to teach in a modality (i.e., online-only, or a hybrid of online and in classroom) they did not prefer. A lack of face-to-face socialization might also have decreased their EI because it is more difficult to implement socialization via a computer.

Instrumentation refers to whether the survey measures what it intends to measure. All the measures selected were shown to have good reliability. The measures were also shown to have validity for measuring the purported constructs.

Construct Validity

Construct validity refers to how well the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure (Lavrakas, 2008a). Although the instruments selected for this study had good reliability and validity, there is still an argument by some researchers that EI is not a separate construct. For example, although previous research regarding EI tended to be older, more recently, Warne (2020) reported that there are no compelling studies that show that EI is an actual psychological trait. Instruments created to measure EI might then be measuring concepts other than EI. The SSEIT shows internal consistency is .90, and test-retest reliability is .78 (Schutte et al., 1998), suggesting that it is a valid measure of EI.

The use of regression in this study was appropriate to examine the relationships between the predictor variables. These variables were sex, years teaching, emotional intelligence level, and military service; the outcome variable was job satisfaction. A generally accepted power level of .80 is sufficient to determine if such a relationship exists.

Ethical Procedures

Informed consent is a requirement whenever a researcher relies on human participants for a study. Informed consent is employed to notify a potential participant the procedures, risks, and benefits of their participation in the study (Losch, 2008).

Participants must be told that they have the right to decline participation and can withdraw at any time (American Psychological Association, 2017). Confidentiality must be explained, and contact information must be provided if there are questions about the research study or rights (American Psychological Association, 2017).

Permission from Walden University's IRB was obtained before beginning this study, and there were no ethical concerns related to recruitment materials and data collection. The IRB approval number received was 06-30-22-0114360. This study was conducted using online methods that helped minimize risk. Participants remained anonymous, and their information was kept confidential. Participants were assigned numbers rather than having their names appear at any time. Participants were also informed that they could stop taking the surveys at any time. The first page of the survey included this informed consent form. Participants were required to select that they had read and agreed to participate, or if they did not agree, they were automatically exited from the surveys. There were no consequences if the participant did not wish to continue.

Data were downloaded onto a computer with a password that only I could access. All data were anonymous and were kept confidential during the study. Only the dissertation committee and I had access to this data. Once the research was complete, the raw data were erased.

A conflict of interest might occur if a researcher includes friends and family as participants for a research study. However, I had no way to determine who the population on social media were. Therefore, there was no conflict of interest caused by me, personally. Conflict of interest might also occur if participants were paid to participate in

the study. The argument has been made that providing financial compensation undermines the ethical principle of autonomy (Zutlevic, 2016), so to avoid any problems, no monetary compensation was provided to participants.

Summary

The purpose of this quantitative design was to determine if levels of EI and service in the military influence job satisfaction in higher education instructors (either online or face-to-face instruction). The conceptual framework for this study was based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) abilities theory of emotional intelligence. The predictor variables for this study were sex, years of teaching experience, level of emotional intelligence, and experience with military service. The outcome variable was job satisfaction.

A survey design was chosen for this study because pre-existing instruments that were used have been shown to possess good reliability and validity. Using online social media platforms allows for greater access to participants around the United States or citizens who do not currently reside in the United States. The population for this study included United States citizens who were at least 18 years old, had been teaching in higher education for a least 2 years, had the ability to read and communicate in the English language, and might have served in the United States military in some capacity.

To ensure proper ethics in this study, informed consent was required of the participants. Data were collected anonymously via SurveyMonkey. Participants were asked to provide demographic information, such as their sex, information about military service, how long they had been teaching, a self-report of emotional intelligence, and a

self-report of job satisfaction. SPSS was used to conduct a multiple linear regression analysis between the predictor variables and the outcome variable, and data were stored on a password-protected device.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

Chapter 4 presents the findings of this nonexperimental, correlational, and quantitative study that was undertaken to determine if former military servicemen and servicewomen possess higher EI and, thus, experience higher levels of job satisfaction than those who have never served in the military. A goal of this study was also to determine if the number of years an individual is in the classroom influences their levels of job satisfaction, regardless of prior military experience. This chapter includes a discussion of the research questions, the hypotheses, the descriptive statistics, and the results of the findings from this study. The chapter also presents related tables and figures to visually present the data.

Data Collection

Data collection for this study began after approval from Walden University's IRB, and the survey was launched on SurveyMonkey. To participate in the survey, individuals were required to be United States citizens over 18 years old with at least 2 years of experience teaching in higher education (synchronously or asynchronously). The survey included assessments for EI and job satisfaction. The link for the survey was shared on various social media pages such as Facebook, Twitter, and Discord. Invitations to participate were also shared via personal email and direct messages with people I knew who met the criteria. I also purchased promotional pages on social media platforms to increase interest in the study, and this allowed for more responses.

After I explored several other survey hosting sites, Zoho Survey became the ideal survey hosting platform for me to use, based on recommendations from fellow doctoral students on Twitter. A request was made to the IRB to amend the application to add Zoho Survey as an additional host. It was approved, and I began creating the survey on the hosting platform. Although there were 89 total responses via SurveyMonkey, only 73 were complete responses; so, the decision was made to purchase 50 targeted responses through Zoho Survey. Two more responses came through SurveyMonkey a little later, bringing the total up to 75 complete responses. After Zoho Survey was launched, there were 22 partial responses and two disqualifications, but 50 responses purchased were complete.

A purposive sample was used in this study, and the survey required that participants meet specific criteria. Participants were required to be United States citizens over the age of 18 who had been teaching in higher education for at least 2 years. This included teaching virtually during the COVID pandemic, as well as teaching face-to-face. The sample size was calculated using G*Power (Faul et al., 2009), and the minimum sample size was $N = 128$. Many of the responses on the survey were incomplete, so only completed responses were counted in the sample.

Description of the Sample

More women than men responded to this survey, as shown in Table 1. Of the 124 total responses, 55 were men, and 69 were women; this suggests the sample is consistent with the makeup of the United States population that is 49.2% men and 50.8% women as of 2021 (Kaiser Family Foundation, 2022). Approximately 23% of respondents reported

being members of the military, which is higher than the average 7% of veterans in the United States in 2018 (Vespa, 2020), which is also illustrated in Table 1. Of the total 124 participants, 94 had never served in the military, and 30 had been in some branch of the armed services. Of those in the military, seven had separated from service, and 16 had retired from service. Although the question was not directly asked, based on the responses, seven participants were assumed to be currently active service members.

Table 1

Respondent's Biological Sex and Military Status

	Male	Female	Military Service	No Service
Respondents	44.3% (55)	55.6% (69)	24.2% (30)	75.8% (94)
General Population	49.2%	50.8%	7%	93%

Participants could choose from four positions: adjunct instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, and full professor. Table 2 shows the distribution of positions.

Table 2

Respondents per Teaching Role

	Adjunct Instructor	Assistant Professor	Associate Professor	Full Professor
Number of Responses	50	21	8	45
Percentage of Sample	40.3%	16.9%	6.5%	36.2%

The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, 2022) reported that 44% of faculty were part-time and 56% were full-time. As shown in Table 2, the data suggests this dissertation sample had a slight overrepresentation of full-time instructors, and a slight underrepresentation of part-time instructors.

Table 3 shows the distribution of how long the respondents reported being in the classroom while teaching either synchronous or asynchronous classes.

Table 3

Duration in the Classroom

	2 years or less	3-4 years	6-10 years	10-15 years	16-20 years	Over 21 years
Number of Responses	9	26	29	25	13	22
Percentage of Sample	7.3%	21%	23.4%	20.1%	10.5%	17.7%

The descriptive statistics associated with the outcome variable of job satisfaction and the predictor variables of years teaching, military service, and emotional intelligence are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Mean, Standard Deviation, and N for Outcome and Select Predictor Variables

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Average Years Teaching	11.3	7.04	124
Emotional Intelligence	127.32	17.6	124
Job Satisfaction	136.26	24.29	124

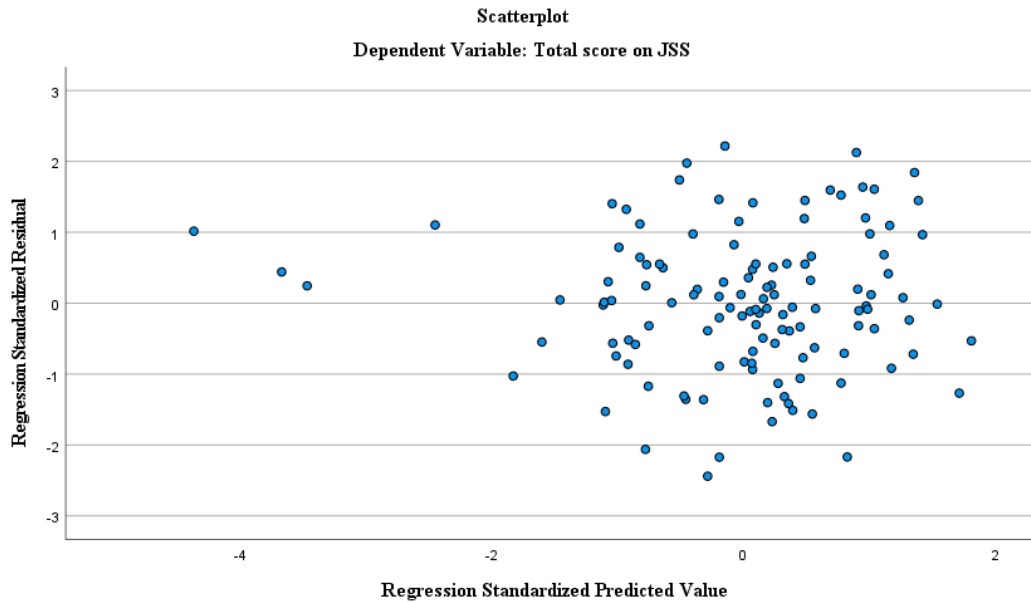
Biological sex and military service were not included because sex was a dichotomous variable, and military service was a yes/no question; as such, a mean and standard deviation would not be appropriate for these variables. As shown in Table 4, scores for the surveys ranged from 33 to 165 on the SSEIT and 36 to 216 on the JSS. Years of teaching were presented as an average, since the variable was a range.

Hypothesis Testing

Testing Assumptions

Before conducting the statistical analyses for this study, assumptions of multiple linear regression were tested through descriptive statistics, histograms, and standardized residuals. A continuous variable is one that has an infinite number of values between the two values (Kokoska, 2011). Each variable in this dissertation was coded to be a continuous variable, thus meeting the assumption. To complete a multiple regression study, there must be more than two independent variables, and this study had four; therefore, the assumption was met.

Homoscedasticity was tested with IBM SPSS, Version 28 scatterplot output. In Figure 1, the regression standardized predictor values are on the x-axis, and the standardized residual values are on the y-axis. Homoscedasticity occurs when the scatterplot bunches together around a similar value (Statistics Solutions, 2022b), which the plot shown in Figure 1 demonstrates.

Figure 1*Homoscedasticity Assumption Scatterplot*

When a sample is mostly homoscedastic, and the residuals are normally distributed, there is the assumption of linearity; therefore, there is no need to check for linearity (Statistics Solutions, 2022b). Multicollinearity occurs when the independent variables are not only related to the dependent variable, but they are also related to each other (Minitab Blog Editor, 2013). The multicollinearity assumption was tested by calculating the Pearson coefficient and calculating the tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) using IBM SPSS, Version 28. Pearson's r is used to measure relationships between variables that range from -1 to +1 (Jaisingh, 2000). Tolerance was set at $> .20$ (Allison, 1999), and VIF was set at < 5.0 (Minitab Blog Editor, 2013). Table 5 shows

tolerance results greater than .20 and VIF results at less than 5.0, which meets the multicollinearity assumption.

Table 5

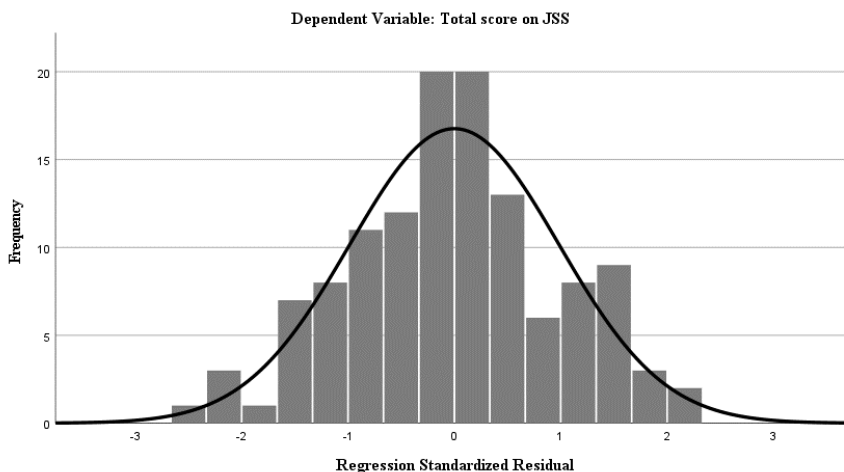
Tolerance and VIF for Multicollinearity Assumption

	β	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Emotional Intelligence	.330	3.6	<.001	.898	1.114
Sex	.070	.763	.447	.900	1.111
Years teaching	.071	8.13	.418	.983	1.017
Veteran Status	.064	6.95	.489	.898	1.114

Another assumption for multiple regression is the assumption of normal probability distribution. A frequency distribution was created using IBM SPSS, Version 28. The histogram is included for the dependent variable, job satisfaction, in Figure 2.

Figure 2

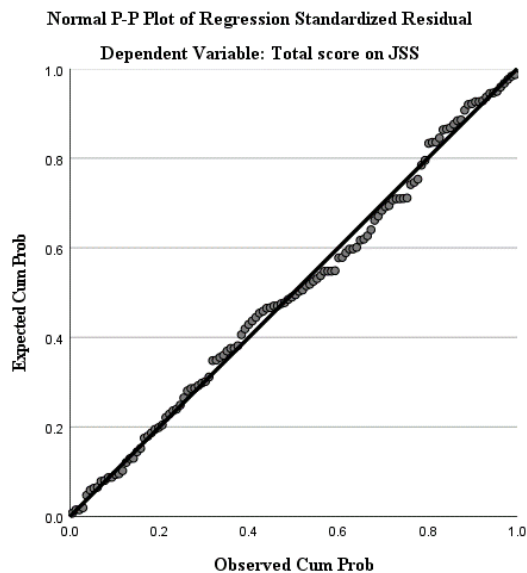
Normal Distribution Assumption—Job Satisfaction



The P-P Plot of Regression in Figure 3 shows no outliers, which suggests that the assumption of normal probability distribution was met.

Figure 3

Normal Distribution Assumption – P-P Plot of Regression



Hypotheses

A stepwise multiple linear regression was conducted to better understand the overarching research question. A stepwise linear regression is conducted when a researcher wants to know if a dependent variable can be predicted from several independent variables (Statistics Solutions, 2022a). Stepwise regression is a combination of forward selection and backward elimination. Predictor variables are entered, and those that are not significant are removed in a stepwise fashion. When a variable is removed, it leaves the variables that explain the relationship the best. If a variable does not contribute to a reduction in error or does not meet the value threshold, the variable is removed with the potential for re-entry (Foltz, 2021). Because the dependent variable and the

independent variables in this dissertation were continuous, and I was looking at best predictors for job satisfaction, a stepwise regression model was the most appropriate.

The results of the stepwise multiple regression (the results of the stepwise model) were the following: For Model 1, $R = .321$, and $R^2 = .103$, which is a small effect size; Adjusted $R^2 = .073$, and the standard error of estimate = 23.390. Therefore, one predictor variable accounted for 10.3% of the variance of job satisfaction. The predictors were the (Constant), EITotal, YearsTeaching, BioSex, and VetStatusCoded.

Table 6 shows the ANOVA test for the suitability of using the stepwise regression of job satisfaction. The overall regression was statistically significant, $F(4, 123) = 3.42$, $p < .05$. The null hypothesis that the slope of the regression line in this model is zero is rejected. This model, therefore, was the only appropriate model to test the impact of the one predictor variable to the outcome variable.

Table 6

ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Regression	7473.278	4	1868.319	3.415	.011 ^b
Residual	65103.843	119	547.091		
Total	72577.121	123			

Note: a. Dependent Variable: Total score on JSS

b. Predictors: (Constant), EITotal, YearsTeaching, BioSex, VetStatusCoded

Table 7 shows the stepwise multiple regression analysis coefficients and their corresponding statistical significance. The stepwise multiple regression analysis

determined that one variable, EI, with a standardized β coefficient of .330, was significantly predictive of job satisfaction, $t(123) = 3.60, p < .001$.

Table 7

Coefficients

	Unstandardized β	Coefficient Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients β	<i>T</i>	Sig.
Constant	72.769	17.847		4.077	<.001
Average number of years	.245	.302	.071	.813	.418
Biological sex	3.400	4.456	.070	.763	.447
Veteran status coded	3.597	5.177	.064	.695	.489
Total score on SSEIT	.455	.126	.330	3.600	<.001

Note: a. Dependent Variable: Total score on JSS

Table 8 shows a summary of the research questions in which the data could not reject the null hypothesis from the stepwise multiple regression results. RQ2 regarding the predictive relationship of EI with job satisfaction is the only question in which the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 8

Summary of Research Questions

Research Question	Null Hypothesis	Accept/ Reject Null
RQ1	There is no significant predictive relationship between military experience and job satisfaction among higher education instructors.	Accept
RQ2	There is no significant predictive relationship between EI and job satisfaction in higher education.	Reject
RQ3	There is no significant predictive relationship between years of teaching experience and job satisfaction in higher education.	Accept
RQ4	There is no significant predictive relationship between sex and job satisfaction in higher education.	Accept

RQ5 There are no significant predictive relationships between military experience, EI, years of teaching experience, and sex versus job satisfaction in higher education.

Accept

Post hoc analyses were conducted to determine if the data supported the assumptions about the population. Assumption one, that an ability-based model of emotional intelligence exists and can be accurately measured (Mayer, Roberts et al., 2008), and assumption five, that responses to the self-report surveys are considered accurate and honest, could not be tested, but the other three assumptions could be evaluated through statistics. According to assumption two, women scored higher on EI than men. Assumption three stated that members of the military had higher EI than non-members of the military. In assumption four, it was assumed that instructors in post-high school education had higher levels of EI than the general population.

To test assumption two, women score higher than men on EI, an independent-sample *t*-test was conducted for sex and the total score on the SSEIT. Levene's test showed that equal variances could be assumed ($F = .316, p = .575$), and the alternate *t*, which adjusts the degrees of freedom, was selected to report. The reported mean for men was $\bar{x} = 131.51$, with $SD = 16.579$ and $n = 55$. The reported mean for women was $\bar{x} = 123.99$, with $SD = 17.794$ and $n = 69$. The results of the *t*-test showed significant differences, with men having higher EI scores than women, $t(122) = 2.411, p = .009$. These findings show that the assumption that women had higher EI was not valid for this sample. In the independent samples test comparing means of SSEIT scores by sex, $F = .316$ and Sig. = $.575$; $t = 24.11$; $df = 122$. The significance of the one-sided $p = .009$. The significance of the two-sided $p = .017$.

To test assumption three (members of the military had higher EI than non-members of the military), an independent-sample *t*-test was conducted for sex and total score on the SSEIT. Levene's test showed that equal variances could not be assumed ($F = 16.844, p < .001$), and the alternate *t*, which adjusts the degrees of freedom was selected to report. These results are shown in Table 9.

Table 9

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances

	<i>F</i>	Sig.	<i>T</i>	<i>Df</i>	One-sided <i>p</i>	Two-sided <i>p</i>
Equal variances assumed	16.844	<.001	2.210	122	.014	.029
Equal variances not assumed			1.529	32.655	.068	.136

The reported mean for non-veterans was $\bar{x} = 129.27$, with $SD = 12.284$ and $n = 94$. The reported mean for veterans was $\bar{x} = 121.23$, with $SD = 27.919$ and $n = 30$. The results of the *t*-test showed a nonsignificant difference between non-veterans and veterans in EI scores, $t(32.655) = 1.529, p = .136$. The significance of the one-sided $p = .068$, and the significance of the two-sided $p = .136$. These findings show that the assumption that veterans having higher EI was not valid for this sample.

To test assumption four (instructors in post-secondary education had higher levels of emotional intelligence than the general population), a comparison between the mean and standard deviation on the sample score for the SSEIT and reported mean and standard deviation from Schutte et al. (2001) was made. The reported mean from the Schutte et al. (2001) study was 126.8 with a standard deviation of 12.18. This sample

used a wide variety of participants, including university students, teaching interns, university employees, residents of a retirement home, public school employees, and church attendees. The overall mean for all the samples was 127.32 with a standard deviation of 17.601. A one-sample t -test was used to compare the sample mean to the reported mean. Results of the one-sample t -test showed that $t(123) = .331, p = .741$. There was not enough evidence to suggest that this sample had a significantly different mean than the reported value. While the mean from this sample was slightly higher, there was not enough evidence to show that this was not the result of random chance.

Last, a post hoc t -test was conducted on the volunteer population and the paid volunteer population in this sample. The first 74 responses were recruited using posts I placed on social media, and the other 50 responses were recruited through a paid survey company. The results of this post hoc test are shown in Tables 10 and 11.

Table 10

Levene's Test of Equality of Variances

		<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	One-sided <i>p</i>
BioSex	Equal variances assumed	2.158	.144	1.1239	122	.109
	Equal variances not assumed.			1.234	106.065	.110
Years Teaching	Equal variances assumed	.361	.549	2.222	122	.014
	Equal variances not assumed.			2.205	104.721	.015
Vet Status	Equal variances assumed	1.914	.169	-.704	122	.241
	Equal variances not assumed			-.694	102.206	.245
EI Total	Equal variances assumed	.054	.817	-3.807	122	<.001
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.036	121.935	<.001
JSS Total	Equal variances assumed	2.406	.123	-2.369	122	.010
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.446	118.075	.008

Table 10 shows some statistical differences between these two subgroups, particularly in EI and job satisfaction. Table 11 shows that the paid volunteer group's means for EI and job satisfaction were higher.

Table 11

Group Statistics

		<i>N</i>	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
BioSex	Unpaid	74	.59	.494	.057
	Paid	50	.50	.505	.071
Years Teaching	Unpaid	74	12.642	6.8749	.7992
	Paid	50	9.420	6.9263	.9795
Vet Status	Unpaid	74	.22	.414	.048
	Paid	50	.28	.454	.064
EI Total	Unpaid	74	122.62	18.582	2.160
	Paid	50	134.28	13.438	1.900
JSS Total	Unpaid	74	132.07	25.307	2.942
	Paid	50	142.52	21.459	3.035

Summary

The outcomes of this research that examined the contributions of a person's biological sex, number of years teaching in the classroom, level of emotional intelligence, and military status as predictive to the level of job satisfaction suggests that emotional intelligence was the only significantly contributing variable. Although there were several assumptions made in the development of this research study, the demographic and professional profile anticipated was not as was expected. Nevertheless, EI was the single

most predictive variable to job satisfaction. Chapter 5 includes a discussion of profile differences between those participants who were recruited personally versus those recruited through a paid service, with the latter in post-hoc analyses demonstrating statistically higher EI and job satisfaction. The chapter includes a discussion of the results, limitations, and recommendations for personnel in higher education.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine if former military servicemen and servicewomen who may possess higher EI may also experience higher levels of job satisfaction in higher education than those who have never served in the military. The goal of this research was to determine whether those veterans who now teach on the college level are as satisfied, or even more satisfied, in their new career as those individuals who have been in academia for years. Merida-Lopez et al. (2020) suggested that between a quarter and almost half of educators consider quitting within the first 5 years, and I have noted high turnover rates at my places of employment as well. Biological sex and the number of years the instructor had been teaching in the classroom were examined to determine the impact of these factors on job satisfaction levels. Despite including all these variables, only emotional intelligence was found to have a significant impact in predicting job satisfaction.

Interpretation of the Findings

Five research questions were addressed in this study.

RQ1: What is the relationship between military experience and job satisfaction among higher education instructors?

RQ2: What is the relationship between EI and job satisfaction in higher education?

RQ3: What is the relationship between years of teaching experience and job satisfaction in higher education?

RQ4: What is the relationship between gender and job satisfaction in higher education?

RQ5: What is the relationship between military experience, EI, years of teaching experience, and gender versus job satisfaction in higher education?

The variables selected aligned with previous research, and these variables were assumed to be the best predictors in assessing the impact on job satisfaction. There has been little research on the EI of military service personnel. Valor-Segura et al. (2020) cited several studies on the importance of looking at other factors that may affect military performance, including EI. Daffey-Moore (2015) emphasized the importance of EI in the military, but in a search of literature on the subject, I found that there had not been thorough examination of the subject. It was assumed that leaders possess EI in order to be effective leaders. Despite this emphasis on the importance of EI for success in the military, the data in this study showed no significant difference in EI levels between military and non-military respondents.

There are several possible reasons why there was no significant difference between the military and non-military respondents. In the military, although not formally referred to as EI, there are a variety of personality characteristics that a service member must possess to perform their job well (Valor-Segura et al., 2020). Stuewe (2018) noted that EI might not be mentioned because of the perceived subjectivity of the concept. Using emotions to facilitate thought, understanding emotion, and managing emotions are integral in leadership, as demonstrated in Mayer and Saloveys (1997) discussion of the four branches of EI regarding how individuals perceive emotion. A leader must be self-

aware to be effective, and subordinates must perceive this effectiveness. A leader who understands the emotions of others is more likely to be seen as an effective leader, according to Mayer et al. (2002), as a positive relationship was found between the leader's EI and their subordinates' perceptions of effectiveness. For example, Panait and Bucinschi (2018) found that when colleagues in a military institution rated each other on leadership, those rated the highest also had high EI. If a subordinate perceives the leader positively, they are more likely to support and follow the leader's directions (Koh & O'Higgins). A leader who does not perform and has difficulties in their position are more likely be relieved of such duties; however, formally incorporating EI into training might reduce some of these career setbacks (Stuewe, 2018).

Some personality traits prepare a person better for unexpected situations, and EI is one of these traits (Hyllengren, 2017). A military leader must be able to deal with their immediate surroundings, and EI affords leaders this ability (Aguilar & George, 2019; Long et al., 2016). In difficult and unfamiliar situations that a military leader faces, EI can increase their resiliency, which is a component essential for carrying out missions (Sewell, 2009).

Resiliency is also shown to be associated with well-being and EI (Cuartero & Tur, 2021). A leader is responsible for everyone in their unit and must be able to identify the strengths and weaknesses of each member, as well as their own strengths and weaknesses; leaders who possess EI are more effective in these attributes (Evans et al., 2016). Being aware of the emotions of others also allows a unit leader to help their subordinates work through stressful situations (Sewell, 2009). As EI relates to leadership

(Dasbourough et al., 2021), leaders who possess EI are more likely to have subordinates who follow through on tasks (Miao et al., 2018). If a unit member does not follow the orders of the unit leader, their actions could be detrimental to everyone in the unit.

Although veterans in this study were not asked about their former rank, years of service, or what they did while on active duty, I questioned if there was something in the background of these veterans that enabled them to possess a level of EI equivalent to those individuals who have taught in academia for years. This was based on the assumption that their self-awareness, resiliency, perception by others as being effective, and their EI may have contributed to their success as leaders. If a former military service member has the appropriate educational qualifications, coupled with these traits that allowed them to be successful as leaders, they should be the ideal candidates for higher education positions.

Mattingly and Kraiger (2019) stated that EI can be improved through training and is often incorporated into educational programs, especially in those areas that are high-stress or emotionally based. EI helps a person cope with stressful situations. As the military is known for putting its members into highly stressful, emotional situations, it could be assumed that members of the military would receive such training. EI is not formally taught in the military; although many of the components of EI, such as interpersonal skills and resiliency, are present in that training (Sewell, 2009). It is unknown whether those individuals who become leaders in the military already possess these skills, or if they develop them during their years in service. Perhaps those who served as military leaders search for a second career in which they can use their

leadership skills, such as in front of a classroom. The training received while serving might help explain why there was no significant difference between the EI levels of the military and nonmilitary respondents.

EI was the only independent variable that significantly affected the dependent variable. These results echo the plethora of research on this relationship (e.g., Arif et al., 2019; Joshi et al., 2015; Rahman & Haleem, 2018; Suleman et al., 2020). An employee with EI is more likely to report higher levels of job satisfaction and commitment to the organization (Long et al., 2016). This is in line with researchers who have commented that instructors who have higher levels of EI are likely to have higher levels of self-efficacy (Farhan & Ali, 2016), and these attributes might increase job satisfaction.

During my search for appropriate literature as background for this study, I noted that research regarding the differences in EI between the two sexes varied depending on the population sampled. Some studies found that women had more characteristics of EI than men (El Badawy & Magdy, 2015; Valente et al., 2018), and that women scored higher on EI when their performance was measured (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). Other researchers investigated specific occupations in which men scored higher than women (Shirvani & Shirvani, 2021). Goleman (1998) reported no difference, and other researchers have echoed this belief (Kumar & Muniandy, 2012; Pardellar et al., 2017). In this dissertation, there was a significant difference between the sexes in levels of EI. Men scored an average of 131.52, and women scored an average of 123.99. These results coincide with data from other studies that men have higher EI, but overall, both sexes scored above average.

Regarding the variable of years spent teaching in the classroom, Amirian and Behshad (2016) discussed a positive relationship between the EI of teachers and the number of years spent in the classroom in their sample. Hafsa (2015) also found that older teachers tend to have higher levels of EI. Other studies found no consistent pattern within the relationship between age and EI (Cabello et al., 2016). Herbst and Maree (2008), as well as Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2010), reported that the more experience an instructor has, the higher their EI will be.

Context of the Theoretical Framework

The theoretical foundations for this study were Mayer and Salovey's (1997) theory of EI and Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy. A person who has higher levels of EI use their own emotions and the emotions of others in problem-solving skills and behavioral regulation (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The theory of self-efficacy is based on a person believing they can achieve the goals they wish to accomplish. Researchers have shown that EI and self-efficacy are closely related, especially among instructors in higher education (Farhan & Ali, 2016; Wu et al., 2019). Higher EI leads to higher self-esteem and higher self-efficacy (Sahin, 2017). The rejection of the null hypothesis in this dissertation data (that there was no significant predictive relationship between EI and job satisfaction in higher education) contributes to the theory of EI, since instructors who can manage themselves and their students or possess higher levels of EI may report higher job satisfaction. The results from the dissertation data showed an average number of years in the class of 11.3 years. This suggests that those with higher EI were more likely to be satisfied with their jobs, and the information contributes to the theory of self-

efficacy because instructors who feel competent are likely to remain in their positions for longer periods of time.

Limitations of the Study

There were many limitations to this study in terms of generalizability. Preliminary analysis was conducted on the non-paid participants, and many variables were significant. Once the paid participants submitted their responses and all the responses were analyzed, only one variable was significant. Post hoc tests showed that there were significant differences between the non-paid volunteers and the paid volunteers, and there could be several reasons for these differences. One difference might arise because the non-paid volunteers were connected to me in some manner, whether through social media or through snowball sampling. These volunteers may have been more honest in their answers because they had a more vested interest in helping me in my research. The paid volunteers did not know anything about the dissertation researcher and may have answered the questions carelessly to receive an incentive from the survey hosting platform.

There were noted differences for all the variables between the non-paid and the paid volunteers. Non-paid volunteers reported more time in the classroom (12.642 years versus 9.420 years). The number of participants who reported serving in the military was about the same. The average EI score for the non-paid volunteers was lower than for the paid volunteers (122.62 versus 134.28 respectively). The average job satisfaction score for the non-paid volunteers was lower than the paid volunteers (132.07 versus 142.52 respectively). In sum, the paid participants spent less time in the classroom, scored higher

in EI, and reported higher job satisfaction. These differences should be taken into consideration concerning generalizability and validity; moreover, there was a difference in actual volunteers versus paid volunteers by a survey service company. This finding is a study in itself on the use of paid survey services in psychological quantitative studies.

Using EI to measure job satisfaction is a limitation because although personality traits are an important part of a person's level of job satisfaction (Rich et al., 2010), EI does not take into consideration all the factors that add to job satisfaction (Krishnakumar et al., 2016). In Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey, subscales include pay, benefits, and contingent rewards. None of these subscales refer to elements of EI. Therefore, it is possible that people have higher levels of EI and are unhappy with their job due to monetary factors or frequency of reinforcement. This study did not parse the different subscales associated with levels of EI and was not designed for follow-up interviews with participants to gather more information about their satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Another limitation of this study could have been the participants' experiences during the time of the COVID-19 pandemic. All universities at that time had shifted solely to virtual classrooms for some duration, and my experience was that the older faculty members struggled with such technology. No longer was a course held in a classroom with a whiteboard or chalkboard and minimal technology. Programs such as Zoom, Skype, or Teams and their various add-ons were used to conduct class. If instructors were not as comfortable using technology, they might have become less satisfied with their job while their younger counterparts thrived. Other courses, such as physical science classes, did not have access to labs and hands-on instruction, which

might have been frustrating for some instructors, thereby decreasing their job satisfaction. Reports post-COVID have shown that about 33% of faculty considered changing jobs, leaving the field altogether, or retiring during the pandemic (Nietzel, 2021). If they were not of retirement age, people who were satisfied in their jobs did not generally wish to leave their field. Ali et al. (2017) discussed the relationship between EI and online teaching efficacy. If instructors did not possess the appropriate levels of EI, self-efficacy might have decreased, leaving them unhappy with their position. These variables were not examined in this study, so such considerations are entirely conjecture.

Recommendations

To determine whether military service has an impact on an instructor's job satisfaction, further research could be conducted at universities such as the United States Military Academy, Virginia Military Institute, The Citadel, the Air Force Academy, or the U.S. Naval Academy. Instructors in these service academies who serve (active-duty military), have served (veterans), and have not served (civilian teachers also work at these institutes) could be surveyed to see if there is a difference in EI and job satisfaction within these institutions and data could be gathered from a variety of experienced professors.

Future researchers should consider the emotional factors included in job satisfaction and look at the relationship between those factors and a person's level of EI. It is possible that people who are not emotionally intelligent have higher levels of job satisfaction due to other factors, such as salary and benefits.

There is no consensus in the research and in this study about which sex definitively has higher EI. This study assessed only instructors in higher education. Helping professions such as teaching require good interpersonal skills. It might be assumed that someone who goes into teaching has higher EI by virtue of the occupation, and further research should continue that examines different occupations to come closer to an answer. Although the military is not considered a helping profession, retired or separated service personnel may go into higher education. Further research is needed on the veterans' professional backgrounds to better understand how they developed their EI.

Implications

Although only one of the independent variables in this study was significant, the data from the study has the potential for positive social change. If an individual's level of EI is a driving factor for job satisfaction, organizations have several options. They can assess a candidate's EI level during the hiring process or during the onboarding process. If the level is high, the organization could assume that the candidate would be more satisfied in their job and potentially stay in their position longer. If their EI was not high, they might attend EI training, since emotional intelligence can be taught (Mattingly & Kraiger, 2019). Some researchers have suggested that training should be provided to instructors regardless of their EI level (Zurita-Ortega et al., 2020) because emotionally intelligent instructors are instructors who can develop relationships with students, a factor that is implicated in student retention (Dev et al., 2016; Ibad, 2018; Oznacar et al., 2017). Emotional intelligence does not guarantee that someone will be satisfied in their job, but

it may be reassuring to an individual that a trait they possess (Parrish, 2015) might aid in their job satisfaction.

Conclusions

Results from this dissertation study suggest that the independent variable of EI is a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction. Adding this information to the existing research may help others fill in research gaps. The data from this study could be used by personnel in higher education to aid in the hiring of candidates and in retaining students through graduation. Students often keep in contact with instructors who made positive impacts in their educational journey. Those students may want to become part of a faculty higher education, or they may seek out other occupations, but their emotional intelligence may help them be successful in whatever career they choose.

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