

**The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Turnover
Intention: The Mediating Effects of Effective Communication, Job
Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment
among Instructors in Public Universities in Ethiopia**

By

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**The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Turnover Intention:
The Mediating Effects of Effective Communication, Job Motivation, Job
Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment among Instructors in Public
Universities of Ethiopia**

**A Dissertation Submitted to the School of Psychology, College of Education
and Behavioral Studies, in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Social Psychology**

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July 2024

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Declaration

I, the undersigned, declare that this dissertation is my original work and has not been previously presented at this or any other university. I also affirm that I have fully acknowledged all the resources and materials utilized in this dissertation.

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Certificate

I, Professor Habtamu Wondimu, as the supervisor, hereby testify that this dissertation is the candidate's original work. It is submitted for final evaluation to the School of Psychology with my knowledge and approval.

Supervisor's Name: Professor Habtamu Wondimu

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Approval Sheet

Addis Ababa University

College of Education and Behavioral Studies

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This is to certify that the dissertation prepared by Bantigegn Tegegne Tebeje entitled "**The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Turnover Intention: The Mediating Effects of Effective Communication, Job Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment among Instructors in Public Universities of Ethiopia**" has been submitted to fulfil the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Social Psychology and complies with the regulation of the University and meets the accepted standards for originality and quality.

Signed by the Board of Examining Committee Members:

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External Examiner	Signature	Date
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Chairperson	Signature	Date

Dedication

In loving memory of my mother, Abeba Bogale, whose nurturing warmth and gentle guidance profoundly influenced my early years. Although she passed away when I was only seven, her unwavering love has always inspired me to strive for excellence in everything I do.

I also want to acknowledge my father, Tegegne Tebeje, whose unwavering support and boundless affection have shaped my academic journey. His memory serves as a guiding light, reminding me that every achievement I make is a tribute to the values he instilled in me. In the midst of grief, I found resilience, and in the echoes of their laughter, I discovered strength. This dissertation is a testament to the lasting legacy of my parents, who continue to be an integral part of my life journey, even in their physical absence.

As I explore the realms of knowledge and understanding, their spirits are forever intertwined with mine. This academic work is dedicated to the cherished memory of my mom and dad, whose love continues to shape my aspirations and mold my character.

May their souls rest in eternal peace, and may this humble offering serve as a tribute to the profound impact they had on shaping the person I have become.

With heartfelt love and gratitude,

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
EI	Emotional Intelligence
EC	Effective Communication
JM	Job Motivation
JS	Job Satisfaction
OC	Organizational Commitment
TI	Turnover Intention
MoSHE	Ministry of Science and Higher Education
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TEIQue-SF	Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-Short Form
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Science and Cultural Organization
VSO	Voluntary Services Overseas

Abstract

Retaining a talented workforce is crucial for any organization. This study examines the relationships between emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention among full-time instructors at Ethiopian public universities. The objectives were to assess the levels of these variables, explore their interrelationships, examine mediating effects, identify predictors of turnover intention, and determine the influence of background characteristics on turnover intention. A total of 619 randomly selected instructors participated by completing a validated survey questionnaire. Data were analyzed using t-tests, correlations, mediation analysis, hierarchical multiple regressions, and ANOVA. Findings indicated that emotional intelligence scores were significantly higher than the mean test value, whereas turnover intention scores were not. Job motivation and job satisfaction scores were significantly lower, while organizational commitment scores were not significantly lower compared to expected mean values. Emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment negatively correlated with turnover intention, while positively correlating with each other. Mediation analysis revealed a significant negative total effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention, with positive direct effects on effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Serial mediation highlighted negative indirect effects of emotional intelligence on turnover intention through job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job motivation, and effective communication. Regression analysis identified emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, and organizational commitment as significant predictors of turnover intention, explaining 30.1% of the variance. No significant gender differences were found in emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention, although female instructors showed significantly higher job motivation. Significant differences in turnover intention were observed across different age groups, marital statuses, educational levels, and work experience. In conclusion, this study provides valuable insights into the predictors and mediating factors influencing turnover intention among instructors. To mitigate turnover intention, organizations should consider implementing programs aimed at enhancing emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. However, the limited explanatory power of these predictors suggests the need for further research in this area.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, turnover intention, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, instructors, public universities in Ethiopia

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This study examines how emotional intelligence influences turnover intention among instructors in Ethiopian public universities. This topic is significant for the country's educational quality and development, and for academia and science, as it investigates how instructors' psychological, attitudinal, and social factors affect their retention and performance in higher education institutions. The study also expands the existing knowledge and offers a new insight into the mediating role of effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in this association.

1.1. Background of the Study

Education is widely recognized as a crucial factor in a nation's advancement, promoting human development, economic growth, and social cohesion (Dillon, 2018; King, 2011; World Economic Forum, 2016). It is considered a fundamental tool for development, with its importance acknowledged at both individual and global levels. Research shows that individuals who receive a quality education are less likely to experience poverty and have greater autonomy and decision-making abilities (Hannum & Buchmann, 2005; Wermke & Salokangas, 2015). Furthermore, education plays a vital role in fostering innovation, human and technological development, and higher economic growth on a global scale (Danquah & Amankwah-Amoah, 2017). Therefore, education is widely regarded as the foundation of a nation's progress, and its quality directly affects the pace of development in all areas. Additionally, education provides a wide range of individuals with opportunities for improved prospects (Johan & Harlan, 2014) and is particularly important in addressing various social challenges faced by countries. Without education, practical solutions become unattainable, leading many individuals to look for better educational opportunities. As a result, a high-quality educational system is often considered essential, especially in developing nations like Ethiopia.

Educational institutions, especially universities, are the main venues where policymakers and practitioners implement and evaluate educational policies and practices. They also provide data on the characteristics, resources, and outcomes of education systems in different countries and regions (OECD, 2022; Turkkahraman, 2015). Furthermore, universities contribute to the establishment of national identity and civil society by cultivating shared values and dedication to

common goals (Brint, 2016). Moreover, universities have been instrumental in developing human capital through innovative thinking and intellectual capabilities (Laura Mamuli, 2020; O'Neill & Bagchi-Sen, 2023). Their contributions extend to a country's social, economic, political, and cultural progress by producing highly skilled professionals (Sintayehu, 2018). To keep their relevance, these institutions must swiftly adapt to the dynamic educational landscape, proactively addressing any emerging challenges within the system (Id & Yan, 2021).

Higher education, as a driving force, plays a pivotal role in propelling economic and social advancement. Many nations have experienced tangible benefits across various domains, including economic prosperity, societal well-being, and the cultivation of a skilled workforce. To achieve these educational milestones, universities must have qualified instructors. Consequently, nations worldwide have shifted their focus towards enhancing the development of universities and instructors, recognizing their instrumental role in nurturing intellectual human capital (Laura Mamuli, 2020; O'Neill & Bagchi-Sen, 2023). The purposeful implementation of policies and initiatives aimed at improving the standards and competitiveness of universities has made this transformative journey possible (Geng et al., 2020). These achievements underscore the value of higher education and foster a lasting commitment to its ongoing enhancement.

Modern higher education in Ethiopia has a relatively brief history, appearing less than 80 years ago. It has its roots in ancient religious and monastic traditions (Molla, 2018). Since 1990, the government's University Capacity Building Program (UCBP) and the growing demand for higher education have led to a rapid expansion of universities in the country (Boateng, 2020). This expansion is part of a broader strategy to achieve developed nation status (Marimuthu et al., 2009). As a result, many universities have been established, each with its own vision and mission. Ethiopia has constructed over 45 public universities in the last two decades alone, aiming to provide higher education to many citizens and create research-focused institutions that can compete with other African universities.

Instructors play a vital role in the success of higher education institutions. They are the primary agents responsible for educating the next generation and hold significant importance in the education sector (Marginson & Marginson, 2017). Instructors have a unique opportunity to contribute actively to the growth and transformation of individuals, with the ultimate goal of equipping students with the necessary skills for long-term societal progress. Recognizing the

crucial role played by instructors is essential, as it complements the government's efforts to enhance higher education access in the country. Qualified instructors are the most valuable resource within educational institutions, and their presence under favorable conditions contributes to the overall effectiveness of these institutions.

However, one of the current challenges faced by universities in today's dynamic academic environment is the retention of qualified and experienced instructors. The turnover intention and actual turnover rate of academic staff in Ethiopian universities have been increasing over time, making it a significant issue in higher education institutions (Motuma, 2015). Additionally, there are concerns about motivation levels, working conditions, and high turnover rates among academic staff members (Kassaw & Golga, 2019). Without an efficient and committed academic staff, Ethiopian universities cannot achieve their vision and missions. Therefore, turnover intentions among instructors in higher education in Ethiopia have gained attention from the public, educators, researchers, and other stakeholders in the education system. According to a meta-analysis conducted by Griffeth et al. (2000), employees' intentions to leave higher education institutions are the most significant predictor of their actual turnover behaviors.

Recent studies have shown that high turnover intentions among university instructors stem from dissatisfaction with several factors, such as environmental conditions, social dynamics, economic aspects, salary levels, job insecurity, leadership issues, organizational injustice, and family matters (Nadaf, 2017; Rathakrishnan et al., 2016). Furthermore, instructors in higher educational institutions have expressed dissatisfaction with student behavioral issues, excessive workload, non-teaching tasks, administrative responsibilities, limited career development opportunities, lack of recognition, limited involvement in decision-making processes, inadequate compensation, unfavorable organizational climate, suboptimal work environment, and limited prospects for promotion (Howard, 2015). This dissatisfaction among staff members is associated with decreased commitment and increased turnover intentions, which ultimately affects the overall performance and effectiveness of educational institutions (Guixia & Abdullah, 2019).

Moreover, several factors within the work environment can influence instructors' dissatisfaction and turnover intention. Ibrahim et al. (2017) found that low salary was a primary factor contributing to high turnover intentions among higher education instructors in Ethiopia.

The study also revealed that dissatisfaction with the governance systems of universities played a role in staff members deciding to leave. Similarly, Alemayehu and Woldemariam (2020) conducted a study and found limited promotion opportunities, lack of participatory decision-making processes, and poor relationships among leaders as major determinants of instructors' turnover intentions. In another study by Gessesse and Premanandam (2024), focused on gender and age differences and found that female academic employees showed higher turnover intentions compared to male counterparts. The study also uncovered a negative association between turnover intentions and both age and marital status.

When instructors' turnover intention increases, their work performance decreases (Kamau et al., 2021). This decline in performance can have a detrimental impact on the overall quality of education (Rahman & Nas, 2013). Awang et al. (2015) noted that an increase in instructors' intention to leave is associated with a reduction in teaching quality and students' academic achievement. Consequently, the heightened intention of instructors to leave may undermine efforts to achieve institutional goals. This highlights the significance of turnover intention as one of the most costly and formidable workforce challenges confronting higher education institutions today. Employee intentions to leave can be extremely detrimental to any organization, institution, or company (Surji, 2013). Scholars like Delfanti et al. (2018) have also emphasized the challenging issue that employee turnover poses for the human resource management of higher educational institutions and the facilitation of the teaching-learning process.

Earlier research in Ethiopia has found several factors influencing instructors' intentions to leave higher educational institutions. These include job security, satisfaction, salary, leadership issues, and the institutional environment (Haileyesus, 2019; Motuma, 2015; Mulie & Sime, 2018). Other studies also show that low salary, limited promotion opportunities, and demographic variables like gender and age are primary contributors to high turnover intentions among instructors. Supporting these findings, many studies highlight the importance of these factors in affecting turnover intentions within the higher education sector. However, it is crucial to acknowledge that these are not the only determinants. A range of psychological, attitudinal, and social factors also play a critical role. These encompass the consequences of turnover intention, emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. The interplay of these factors significantly affects an instructor's

decision to stay or leave. Therefore, this study aims to comprehensively understand turnover intention by examining both commonly acknowledged factors and previously overlooked aspects, such as emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. It will also assess the impact of sociodemographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, educational status, and work experience on instructors' decisions to leave higher education institutions.

Instructors' turnover intention is defined as their complete willingness to leave their current organization or institution (Michaels & Spector, 1982). Such intentions reflect the likelihood of changing jobs within a certain period, predisposing the individual to actual turnover (Qin, 2021; Zhang et al., 2022). A high turnover intention among instructors can lead to cessation of work (Ertiirk, 2022). Consequently, turnover intention can indirectly affect the morale of remaining staff, increase job overload, and diminish social capital within and across organizations. Turnover intention serves as a critical indicator of an instructor's desire to leave from an organization and is influenced by several factors including emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. The existing literature has found significant relationships between these factors and turnover intention. This research aims to deepen our understanding by examining the direct and mediating effects of these variables on turnover intention, contributing to a more comprehensive understanding of the dynamics behind instructor turnover in Ethiopian higher education institutions.

Emotional intelligence involves perceiving, understanding, regulating, and expressing one's own emotions and the emotions of others (Mayer et al., 2016). Emotional intelligence encompasses various skills and competencies related to the identification, comprehension, communication, and management of emotions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Mayer et al., 2016). It is increasingly recognized as an essential trait for instructors in fostering positive relationships, easing effective communication, and creating supportive learning environments (Brackett et al., 2019). Emotional intelligence and effective communication are important for organizational commitment, which is loyalty and dedication to our work and organization (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2017). Thus, the idea of emotional intelligence has become an important element in educational settings, affecting how teachers teach, how students learn, and how the classroom

environment feels. Moreover, emotional intelligence has a positive effect on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job motivation, while having a negative impact on turnover intention (Anari, 2012; Çağlar Dogru, 2022). Higher levels of emotional intelligence are associated with lower turnover intention. People with higher emotional intelligence are better equipped to manage their own emotions, handle workplace stress, and navigate relationships with others. As a result, they experience greater job satisfaction and prove commitment to the organization (Alismail et al., 2022; Anari, 2012; Sacramento, 2023).

Effective communication is the ability to share information, ideas, feelings, and feedback in a clear, correct, and respectful way (Hargie, 2022). It refers to the clear, concise, and meaningful exchange of information between individuals or groups. It also has a positive effect on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job motivation, while negatively affecting turnover intention (Buenviaje et al., 2016; Musheke & Phiri, 2021). Effective communication plays a crucial role in reducing turnover intention. When communication is open and transparent, it fosters trust, minimizes misunderstandings, and enhances job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Manafzadeh et al., 2018). Consequently, the likelihood of turnover is decreased (Stanikzai, 2017).

Job satisfaction refers to the attitudes and emotions experienced by employees in relation to their jobs. Robbins and Judge (2013) described job satisfaction as an attitude marked by positive feelings toward one's job. Job satisfaction among academic staff is a key factor for educational institutions to analyze and evaluate the work environment and conditions of instructors within organizations. It has a positive relationship with organizational commitment and a negative relationship with turnover intention (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). The prevailing belief is that satisfied employees are less likely to leave their organizations (Hameed et al., 2018). Earlier studies consistently show a negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. Satisfied employees are more likely to stay in the organization and have lower intentions to leave (Wan Ahmad & Abdurahman, 2015).

Job motivation occurs when employees are excited about their work and willing to put in their efforts (Latham & Pinder, 2005). Job motivation represents the psychological drive that propels performance and the desire to engage in work-related activities and achieve goals. It has a positive relationship with job satisfaction and organizational commitment, while negatively

related with turnover intention (Hanaysha & Majid, 2018; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). Higher levels of job motivation are associated with lower turnover intention. When individuals are motivated and actively involved in their work, they are more likely to experience job satisfaction and demonstrate organizational commitment, thus reducing their intention to leave (Meyer et al., 2002).

Research in the field has extensively examined that Herzberg's two-factor theory and social exchange theory supported the relationships between job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment among instructors in higher education. These theories can be applied to various contexts, such as the workplace, education, and family, to explain how individuals evaluate their current and alternative situations, and how their satisfaction and commitment levels influence their decisions and behaviors. There's a visible scarcity of empirical data on how job motivation and job satisfaction impact organizational commitment, and that can affect the performance and retention of instructors in Ethiopian public universities, a sector that has undergone remarkable growth and transformation over the past two decades.

Organizational commitment is the degree to which employees attach, identify, and involve themselves with their organization, which influences their performance, satisfaction, retention, and loyalty (Abebe & Markos, 2016). For academic staff, organizational commitment can improve the quality of teaching, learning, and research and create a positive institutional culture and climate (Kassaw & Golga, 2019). Previous studies have shown that organizational commitment can boost employees' productivity, loyalty, retention, and citizenship behaviors, as well as reduce absenteeism, turnover, and burnout (Loan, 2020). How much employees enjoy their work and how eager they are to achieve their goals affect how committed they are to their organization. Higher levels of organizational commitment are associated with lower levels of turnover intention. Committed employees are more likely to remain in the organization and have lower intentions to leave (Meyer et al., 2002; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2016).

Previous studies have found a positive correlation between job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment among various occupational groups in different contexts (Hu et al., 2022). These variables are interrelated and significantly affect the retention of instructors in higher education. The Ethiopian higher education sector faces various challenges that affect the quality of education, staff retention, research output, and funding

(Yallew, 2020). These challenges also impact the organizational commitment and retention of academic staff, which is crucial for enhancing performance, satisfaction, loyalty, and academic staff culture (Kassaw & Golga, 2019). However, few studies have examined how emotional intelligence and effective communication influence organizational commitment among academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia. Thus, the organizational commitment of academic staff to higher education in Ethiopia has become a matter of concern for the public, educators, researchers, and other stakeholders who want to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of universities.

The current literature lacks sufficient research on the connection between emotional intelligence and turnover intention among instructors in public universities in Ethiopia. There is a dearth of empirical and theoretical evidence on how emotional intelligence directly or indirectly affects turnover intention through variables such as effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. To address this gap in research, this study proposes a comprehensive and integrated model. Additionally, this study has practical implications for both higher education institutions and policy makers in Ethiopia. It can aid in their understanding of the factors that influence the retention and performance of academic staff, as well as guide the design and implementation of effective interventions to enhance emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Higher education instructors are integral components of the global education system, holding significant responsibilities within the higher education framework. However, the issue of instructor turnover poses a challenge for education systems in both developed and developing countries. Extensive research has shown that the best predictor of actual turnover is the instructors' intention to leave their current institutions (Bothma & Roodt, 2013; Victor & Babatunde, 2014). This empirical evidence is supported by the theory of reasoned action or planned behavior. This theory assumes that human behavior is rational and planned, and that it is determined by the intention to perform the behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). In the United States, for example, approximately one out of every two teachers leave their institutions within five years of teaching (Cha, 2008). Similarly, Mathews (2018) note that universities and colleges in the United States have witnessed high levels of academic staff turnover intentions, with these

higher education institutions accepting turnover as a cultural norm (Figueroa, 2015). However, researchers such as Carrigan et al. (2017) and Mathews (2018) have highlighted the specific challenge of retaining female staff members, particularly in STEM fields. Thus, it is crucial not to underestimate the significance of staff retention, as academic staff plays a vital role in the overall functioning of universities.

According to Alemayehu and Woldemariam (2020), higher education institutions are expected to serve as repositories of specialized and skilled intellectuals and stores of knowledge for nurturing a nation's workforce needs. The success of these institutions is heavily dependent on the availability and retention of qualified academic staff. Existing literature suggests that the failure to retain staff incurs significant costs. Daly et al. (2017) argue that leaving academics often have high qualifications and are individuals that institutions would prefer to retain. Consequently, an institution's short- and long-term competitiveness and quality are put under pressure. Furthermore, when academic staff intend to leave, it leads to an increase in actual turnover, resulting in higher recruitment expenses, disruptions in course offerings, loss of thesis supervisors or advisors, and, in some cases, the closure of departments (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

Public universities in Ethiopia serve as a clear example of the issue at hand. Many of these universities struggle with a high turnover rate among their academic staff for several reasons, making it exceedingly difficult to retain talented individuals. For instance, a study conducted at Jimma University found that factors like a lack of involvement in decision-making, inadequate financial rewards, ineffective leadership, and a lack of recognition or appreciation contribute to staff frustration and their desire to leave the institution (Bayissa & Zewdie, 2011). As a result, the negative impact on academic institutions as a whole is evident. Academic positions have lost their appeal and prestige, with high turnover rates becoming the norm (Woldegiyorgis, 2013). To provide specific examples, Arba Minch University had 347 academic staff members resign within a five-year period (2009-2013) (Arba Minch University, 2014), while Jimma University saw 227 academics leave during the same time limit (Jimma University, 2014). Unfortunately, these universities are not alone in facing this situation, as other institutions throughout the country are dealing with similar circumstances.

Moreover, instructor turnover is widespread across many African countries. To illustrate, in Ghana alone, the Ghana National Association of Teachers and Teacher Educational Workers Union (2009) cited in Kosi et al. (2015) reports that over 10,000 instructors leave the Ghana Education Service annually due to several reasons. Consequently, African nations face high rates of turnover intentions among instructors, which aggravates the already insufficient number of educators within the education workforce. Staff turnover is an undeniable reality for many higher education institutions in Africa, as employees are not considered owned assets like other resources. Therefore, turnover intention has received extensive research attention in organizational behavior, given its potential risk that affects all organizations.

Higher education institutions are at risk of instructors and academicians intending to leave, which negatively affects both faculty and universities. The departure of academic staff leads to the loss of specialized skills crucial for academic activities within the university setting (Woltmann et al., 2008). Consequently, the increased turnover intention among academic staff not only disrupts the regular functioning of universities but also raises the costs of human resources development activities for these institutions (Mills et al., 2015). The implications of such a turnover extend beyond immediate personnel changes and adversely affect the overall effectiveness and efficiency of higher education institutions.

The turnover intentions of instructors pose a significant challenge to higher educational institutions in achieving their goals. When staff members consider leaving, they become less efficient in pursuing organizational objectives. This is also a problem in Ethiopian higher education institutions, so it is important to address employee turnover intention. The objective of this study is to investigate the correlation between emotional intelligence and turnover intentions among higher education instructors. The study also aims to explore the relationships between emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions.

Previous studies have examined potential factors contributing to the intention to leave among academic staff in Ethiopian higher education institutions. For example, Girma and Habtamu (2015) found significant associations with this intention including family situation, procedural justice, organizational commitment, transportation limitations, salary level, job

satisfaction, and training opportunities. Moreover, Hundera (2014) found that overall job satisfaction significantly affected employee commitment, and the relationship between role stress, job satisfaction, and intention to leave was notably stronger for females compared to males. Furthermore, Shimelis (2016) found that personal factors were not the main drivers for leaving, but rather external factors such as higher salaries elsewhere, financial benefits in other organizations, and promotional opportunities outside of higher education were the most significant causes for leaving an organization.

Mulie and Sime (2018) conducted similar research on the economic, socio-demographic, and work-related factors that influence the turnover intentions of instructors at several Ethiopian public universities. They found that about 36% of the staff members planned to leave their universities soon, while 64% of the remaining staff members wanted to stay at their institution because of their career choice. The results showed that a significant number of academic staff were dissatisfied with their career choice. Most of the academic staff in the sample universities had a Master's degree. Regarding gender, 75% of the academic staff were male and 25% were female. The female instructors in the sample universities were only one-fourth of their male colleagues. Furthermore, their findings showed that female academic staff were 1.492 times more likely to have a turnover tendency than male academic staff. Married academic staff were 2.088 times less likely to leave their university than unmarried academic staff. The result also revealed that academic staff who perceived their salary as low were 1.231 times more likely to intend to leave their universities. Although there are several studies that focus on identifying the significant factors that affect employee turnover, as described above, turnover can vary across different organizations.

A study conducted at Madda Walabu University examined the prevalence and causes of academic staff turnover intention. The findings revealed that a high percentage (75.6%) of academic staff intended to leave the university, with only a small percentage (24.4%) intending to stay (Ibrahim et al., 2017). The main reasons cited for leaving were the poor working environment and lack of necessary facilities, as reported by the majority (71.3%) of respondents. Additionally, issues such as poor management and leadership, inadequate salary, and job dissatisfaction were also mentioned by a significant number (63.4%) of respondents. The study highlighted that academic staff with five or more years of experience at the university were 4.5

times more likely to leave compared to those with less experience. Consequently, the study concluded that Madda Walabu University faced a significant challenge in retaining its academic staff. Another study conducted in Drie Dawa city administration by Selam and Belay (2018) focused on the impact of salary, work environment, and supervision on employee turnover intention. The findings of this study revealed a negative association between employee turnover intention and these three factors.

Belete (2018) investigated the influence of leadership, organizational commitment, justice, climate, culture, job stress, and demographic variables on turnover intention among academic staff at Wolyta Sodo University. The study primarily explored the determinants and conceptualizations of turnover intention and recommended further research on the direct and indirect effects of these contributing factors on turnover intention in various organizations. Similarly, Haileyesus (2019) conducted a study at Drie Dawa University to examine the effects of job satisfaction, security, salary, workload, and demographic variables on staff turnover intentions. The results demonstrated that various factors, such as job satisfaction, security, salary, allowance/incentives, career growth, training, employee relations, and department head relations significantly influenced staff turnover intention. In contrast, demographic variables such as sex, age, marital status, education, and work experience showed no significant association with turnover intention.

Motuma (2015) investigated the factors contributing to the high turnover rate of academic staff at Ambo University. These factors included inadequate salary and promotion opportunities, lack of social service and technological resources, inefficient administration, teaching-related issues, students' characteristics, environmental factors, and initial commitment. The findings revealed a steady increase in staff turnover over time. For instance, 216 instructors left the university in four consecutive years (2010/11-2013/14), averaging 54 instructors per year. Consequently, Ambo University had to hire 504 instructors in four years, or an average of 126 per year. The findings also indicated that the average turnover rate among employed instructors was 54 (42.9%) in the same four academic years. This rate increased from 38 (26.8%) in 2010/11 to 77 (57.5%) in 2013/14. The main factors influencing instructors' turnover at the university, in descending order of significance, were economic factors, social service, technological resources, managerial issues, students' characteristics, teaching-related factors, and environmental factors.

Among different groups, male, experienced, and elderly instructors were more dissatisfied and more likely to leave the university compared to their counterparts.

According to Semela (2004), several factors contribute to instructors' stress and their intention to leave the academic profession. These factors include unfavorable working conditions, job security concerns, lack of professional recognition, inadequate salary, and administrative challenges. Semela also identified additional factors that influence instructors' career decisions, such as instructors' commitment to their profession, perceived social status, supervision and professional support, lack of financial incentives, initial preferences for teaching, and gender. However, John and Birbirs (2014) emphasized the significance of specific factors in reducing instructors' intentions to leave higher education institutions, based on their research in public universities. These factors include involvement in decision-making processes, positive relationships with colleagues, improved working conditions, an attractive pay structure, better promotion opportunities, and creating a supportive environment for instructors within universities. In summary, this research highlights the significant impact of various factors on instructors' stress, turnover intentions, and career decisions in academic institutions. Understanding and addressing these factors can contribute to the retention and satisfaction of academic staff in higher education institutions.

Nuno Da Camara et al. (2015) conducted research to explore the correlation between perceptions of organizational emotional intelligence and turnover intention among employees of a UK charity organization. The study involved 173 participants and aimed to conceptualize emotional intelligence at both the team and group level. The researchers viewed emotional intelligence as a phenomenon related to the organizational climate and focused on its construct at the organizational level. They considered emotional intelligence to be associated with shared norms and practices within the organization. Building upon earlier findings, which showed that the relationship between organizational emotional intelligence and intention to leave was influenced by organizational emotional appeal and trust in senior management, the researchers sought to examine the mediating role of other employee attitudes such as job satisfaction and affective commitment. They proposed that an employee's perception of how an organization and its management behaviors influence their attitudes can ultimately impact their intention to leave. This concept is referred to as "organizational emotional intelligence".

Despite extensive scholarly investigations into turnover intentions of academic staff in various higher educational institutions in Ethiopia, none of these studies have examined the potential relationships between emotional intelligence and the intention to leave, mediated by effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. While some studies have explored the connection between turnover intention and organizational commitment Guzeller and Celiker (2020), the majority of research in Ethiopia has focused on identifying leadership problems and other environmental factors as the causes of turnover intention. Although some studies have explored the association between organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention in Ethiopia, research conducted in America, Europe, and Asian countries has primarily examined the relationships between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job motivation, with only a few attempts to link these relationships to turnover and turnover intention. However, none of these studies have comprehensively addressed all the variables proposed in the current study, particularly the examination of the relationships between emotional intelligence and turnover intention. Furthermore, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, no research articles on this topic have been published in Ethiopia's educational institutions. To ensure this, the researcher conducted an extensive search using multiple databases and search engines, such as Google, Google Scholar, APA Psyc INFO, Scopus, Mendeley, and manual library search engines. Therefore, based on the abovementioned gaps in the existing literature, the following research gaps have been identified for this study:

1. No research has been conducted on the relationship between emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention in higher education institutions in Ethiopia. This study aims to examine these six key variables in conjunction. In contrast to the existing studies that have explored the connection between emotional intelligence and effective communication, job motivation, and job satisfaction, this study aims to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence, organizational commitment, and turnover intention.
2. Moreover, no research has been conducted on the role of effective communication, job motivation, and job satisfaction as mediators in the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention.

3. Nor has any research been conducted on organizational commitment as a serial mediator variable in the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention.
4. Additionally, no research has been conducted on the relationships between socio-demographic factors and emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention.
5. Local studies have not provided validation for the data collection instruments, and most data analyses have relied on descriptive statistics rather than exploring mediation relationships or using advanced statistical methods.

Consequently, there are significant gaps in the literature concerning emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention in higher education institutions in Ethiopia. The purpose of this study is to fill these research gaps, making it highly relevant and timely. Higher education institutions in Ethiopia face various challenges, such as subpar education quality, high employee turnover, and inadequate academic performance. The performance and retention of academic staff is influenced by crucial factors like emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. Given the identified gaps in research within higher education institutions, conducting this study will prove immensely beneficial in addressing these issues. This study aims to contribute to the existing literature by providing new insights and evidence on the relationships and mechanisms among these six key variables. Additionally, it hopes to offer practical implications and recommendations for enhancing the performance and retention of academic staff in higher education institutions in Ethiopia.

1.3. Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to examine the following research questions, using existing literature as a foundation and identifying gaps in research:

1. What are the levels of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions among instructors in Ethiopian public universities?

2. What is the relationship between emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions among instructors in Ethiopian public universities?
3. Do emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, and job satisfaction have direct and significant effects on organizational commitment and turnover intentions?
4. Do effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment mediate the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intentions?
5. To what extent can emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment predict instructors' intention to turnover in Ethiopian public universities?
6. Do gender, age, marital status, academic status, or work experience have statistically significant impacts on the emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions of instructors?

This study aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of the factors influencing instructors' intentions to turnover within higher education institutions in Ethiopia by addressing the above questions.

1.4. Objectives of the Study

1.4.1. General Objective

The main purpose of this study is to examine the mediating effects of effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on the relationship between instructors' emotional intelligence and their intention to turnover in higher education institutions in Ethiopia.

1.4.2. Specific Objectives

This study aims to achieve the following specific objectives:

- i. To assess the levels of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention among instructors in Ethiopian higher education institutions;
- ii. To examine the association between instructors' emotional intelligence and their turnover intention;

- iii. To examine the association between instructors' emotional intelligence and their organizational commitment;
- iv. To explore the predictive power of instructors' emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on their intention to leave the organization;
- v. To investigate the mediating effects of effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention.
- vi. To compare instructors' emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention across socio-demographic variables (such as age, gender, marital status, educational status, and work experience);

1.5. Significance of the Study

This study aims to have a significant impact on the effectiveness of Ethiopian educational institutions by providing crucial information about instructors' emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention in Ethiopian universities. The Ethiopian government allocates a significant budget for all public universities to promote the country's overall development and achieve a high rate of investment return (Yallew, 2020). Therefore, it is crucial to understand and address the factors that influence instructor turnover and the quality of education in these institutions. However, previous studies on this topic have been limited and inconclusive.

This study aims to fill this research gap by exploring the impact of various factors, such as emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, on instructors' intentions to leave their workplaces and jobs. Additionally, it will examine how these factors vary across different demographic variables, including gender, age, marital status, educational status, and work experience. Furthermore, this study aims to test and develop a conceptual framework or model that explains the relationship between these factors and instructor turnover intention, based on existing theories and empirical evidence from the fields of psychology and organizational behavior.

The findings and recommendations of this study will benefit various stakeholders in the education sector and beyond. The Ministry of Education and government officials can utilize this information to allocate budgets more efficiently and effectively for public universities, as well as develop policies and strategies that support and retain high-quality instructors. Higher education leaders can use the findings and recommendations to improve their emotional intelligence and effective communication as leaders, fostering a positive work environment that enhances instructor motivation, satisfaction, and commitment. Instructors themselves can apply the study's findings and implications to enhance their own emotional intelligence and effective communication, thereby improving their well-being, performance, relationships, commitment, motivation, and job satisfaction.

Additionally, education policymakers and administrators will gain a better understanding of the issues related to instructor turnover and the quality of education in Ethiopian public universities. They can also utilize the study's findings and recommendations to design and implement effective interventions that address these issues. Students will benefit from a better quality education delivered by motivated, satisfied, and committed instructors who possess high emotional intelligence and communication skills. Ultimately, society will have more educated and skilled citizens who can contribute to the social and economic development of the country. Moreover, the findings of this research will enrich the existing literature on turnover intention, emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Furthermore, the study's findings may serve as a springboard for other researchers to identify gaps and conduct further research in this timely, critical, and interesting field of study.

1.6. Delimitation of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention among instructors in Ethiopian public universities. The study specifically focused on four public universities in Ethiopia: Hawasa University, Debrebirhan University, Welekete University, and Injibara University. Both male and female instructors were included in the target population. The study followed a quantitative approach, utilizing self-administered questionnaires to collect numerical data on the variables. Data

analysis was conducted using descriptive and inferential statistics within a specific timeframe, based on resource availability and feasibility. The study acknowledged some limitations, such as the restricted scope of four public universities, which may limit the generalizability of the findings to other contexts. Additionally, time and financial constraints may have impacted the sample size and data collection methods. These limitations were considered when interpreting the results. Despite these limitations, the study offers valuable insights and implications for similar educational settings, although its generalizability may be limited to Ethiopian public universities.

1.7. Conceptual and Operational Definition of Key Terms

This study examined the connections between emotional intelligence and turnover intentions among instructors in higher education institutions. To achieve this objective, the study provided clear definitions for the key terms or variables related to emotional intelligence, turnover intention, and other factors. The study also addressed the need for appropriate legislation regarding turnover intentions and the lack of clarity in the existing literature. By providing operational definitions for the relevant concepts, the study reduced uncertainty and ambiguity in the constructs, thereby enhancing the research's validity.

Emotional intelligence: Emotional intelligence is defined as the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). In this study, emotional intelligence is operationally defined as "the instructor's ability to be aware of one's own emotions and the feelings of others in any situation, and then his or her ability to control his or her own emotions so as to create suitable relationships with people in an organizational setting". It encompasses the capacity to recognize, express, comprehend, and manage emotions in a manner that is adaptive and beneficial. It involves an individual's awareness of their own emotional state, as well as the emotions of others, and how these emotions influence behavior. In instruction, emotional intelligence refers to an instructor's ability to perceive and understand emotions in any given situation, including their own and others'. Furthermore, it entails the instructor's ability to regulate their emotions to establish positive and effective relationships within an organizational setting. The measurement of emotional intelligence can be conducted through self-report assessments, such as the Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EIQue). This questionnaire

evaluates emotional intelligence through a series of Likert-scale items, which cover two fundamental aspects of the construct. The assessment employs a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from complete disagreement to complete agreement, to measure an individual's emotional intelligence (Petrides, 2009).

Effective communication: Effective communication is the ability to share information, ideas, feelings, and feedback in a clear, accurate, and respectful way (Hargie, 2022). In this study, effective communication is the process of exchanging information, ideas, thoughts, feelings, and emotions with another person or group in a clear, accurate, concise, and respectful manner. It involves using verbal and nonverbal signals that are consistent and appropriate for the context and purpose of the communication. This study examined effective communication as an open and honest exchange of views among academic staff at public universities. The construct was assessed using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagreeing to strongly agreeing (O'Reilly and Roberts, 1976).

Job motivation: Job motivation is defined as the compelling combination of internal and external factors that propel individuals to actively participate in their professional duties, invest their energy and dedication, and strive to attain their objectives within their chosen occupation or career path (Rietveld et al., 2022; Stankovska et al., 2017). In this study, job motivation refers to the driving force that compels instructors within academic institutions to engage in their roles with enthusiasm, dedication, and a sense of purpose. In other words, it is the mechanism that inspires, directs, preserves, and holds the capital on the right path. Several factors can influence job motivation, such as salary, promotion opportunities, career development, work nature, work environment, rewards and recognition, feedback and support, and personal values and needs. Surveys or self-report measures were used to measure job motivation in this study, with a 4-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagreeing to strongly agreeing (Munyengabe et al., 2017).

Job satisfaction: Robbins and Judge (2013) defined job satisfaction as an attitude characterized by positive feelings toward one's work. Spector (1985) also identified job satisfaction as encompassing various factors, including promotion opportunities, compensation, supervision, incentives, fringe benefits, colleagues, work procedures, job nature, and communication. In this study, job satisfaction refers to the extent to which an employee feels satisfied, engaged, and

productive in their work and work environment. In this study, job satisfaction was measured using a 4-point Likert scale, from strongly disagree to strongly agree (Munyengabe et al., 2017).

Organizational Commitment: Organizational commitment is the degree of attachment and loyalty that individuals have towards their organizations, and their willingness to contribute to its goals and values (Meyer et al., 2002). In this study, organizational commitment is the extent to which an employee is committed, engaged, and aligned with their organization and its goals. Several factors can affect organizational commitment; such as personal values, motivation, satisfaction, communication, organizational culture, work environment, rewards and recognition, feedback and support, and career opportunities. The construct was assessed using a 5-point Likert scale, from strongly disagree to strongly agree (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Turnover Intentions: Turnover intentions are the psychological state of individuals who are considering leaving their organizations voluntarily (Meyer & Tett, 1993). In this study, turnover intention, on the other hand, is the degree to which an employee intends to leave their current organization voluntarily within a specific timeframe. Various factors can impact turnover intention, such as emotional intelligence, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work environment, career opportunities, personal reasons, and external opportunities. To measure turnover intention, a survey or self-report method can be used, employing a 5-point Likert scale that ranges from never to always (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008).

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This section reviews theoretical and empirical literature related to the research variables of the study. The literature review covers seven topics that inform the proposed study: emotional intelligence, turnover intention, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and the relationships between these variables. The section also presents the definitions and overviews of the constructs used in the study, the prevalence of turnover intention in the world and Africa, and the specific context of Ethiopia. The findings and ideas of various prior studies and scholars are critically analyzed, summarized, organized, and discussed in this section.

Moreover, this section also integrates the existing literature on instructors' turnover intention and its associated factors, such as emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and instructors' background characteristics. The objectives of this research are to examine the relationships between instructors' emotional intelligence and turnover intention and to explore the mediating effects of effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, as well as the impacts of instructors' socio-demographic factors on their turnover intentions in higher institutions.

The literature review involved searching databases, gray literature, personal communications, and relevant journals in the related field. Multiple databases and search engines were used, including Google, Google Scholar, APA PsycINFO, Scopus, and Mendeley. The gray literature, which include theses and dissertations searched from library catalogs, Google Scholar, or by hand, were also used. To search the relevant literature, the researcher employed source names, search terms, and synonyms of keywords. Only the most significant contributions to the research area were filtered and cited in the literature review. Additionally, all the searched articles, theses, and dissertations were exported to Mendeley software to simplify citation information and aid with reference management. Finally, based on the discussions of the reviewed literature, a conceptual model illustrating the relationships between the variables examined in the study is proposed.

2.1. Historical Development of Ethiopian Universities

Modern higher education in Ethiopia began less than 80 years ago, based on ancient religious and monastic traditions (Molla, 2018). Since 1990, the government's University Capacity Building Program (UCBP) and the growing demand for higher education services have led to the rapid growth of universities in Ethiopia (Boateng, 2020). Ethiopia has over 45 public universities that belong to four generations, based on their age and other criteria. The first generation of universities were opened before 2005, the second generation from 2007 to 2010, the third generation from 2011 to 2016, and the fourth generation from 2016 until now (2024). The development of Ethiopian higher education can be divided into four broad stages: the genesis of modern higher education (1950–1961); the consolidation of the national university (1961–1974); incremental progress under a state of hardship (1974–end of the 1990s); and extensive expansion and restructuring (late 1990s–2010) (Molla, 2018). The current number of universities indicates that Ethiopia has embarked on a bold plan to increase access to higher education, which is expected to help achieve the national vision of becoming a middle-income country by 2025. The Ministry of Education also believes that these universities contribute significantly to realizing the fifth education sector development program (ESDP) and the second growth and transformational plan (Chala Wata and Shashi Kant, 2022).

2.2. Turnover Intention

2.2.1. Concepts and Overview of Turnover Intention

Turnover intention has been defined in various ways by scholars and researchers over the years. However, conceptually, it denotes the tendency of the employee's likelihood of leaving their organization or institution within a short period of time. Similarly, it refers to an individual's estimated probability that he or she will depart the organization at some point in the near future, and it is also assessed as the employee's intention to leave the organization (Lazzari et al., 2022). According to Akala (2012), Lazzari et al. (2022), and Mulie and Sime (2018) turnover intention, popularly known as quitting, refers to the conscious and deliberate willingness of the employees to depart their organizations. Similarly, Lazzari et al. (2022) and Meyer and Tett (1993) defined it as a conscious and deliberate willingness to leave the institution. Researchers such as Glissmeyer et al. (2007) and Li and Sawhney (2019) also indicated that it can be characterized as the mediating factor between attitudes that influence the

intent to leave. Thus, it reflects the instructors' deliberate propensity to look for alternative job opportunities in other organizations, which can result from various determining factors that facilitate their tendency to depart their institutions.

Besides, Megfira Adem (2019) described turnover intention as the cognitive and behavioral choices of instructors who choose either to remain or leave their institutions. Moreover, many scholars clearly describe it as the willingness or tendency to leave a role within institutions or across organizations (Megfira Adem, 2019). Furthermore, an employee's turnover intention has been classified into three specific cognitive components: thinking of leaving the job, searching for another job, and leaving the institution or the organization (Thirapatsakun et al., 2014). Similarly, Jacobs and Roodt (2007) and Lazzari et al. (2022) explain that it is a mental decision prevailing between an individual's approach with reference to a job, continuing or leaving the job, or planning to quit the organization that he/she is working for. Thus, employees' turnover intentions have direct connections to their turnover behavior (Lyons & Bandura, 2021).

Furthermore, instructors' intention to turnover is defined as the intention to leave their organization or institution with their complete willingness and it exactly means quitting from their job or institution (Michaels & Spector, 1982). Therefore, the instructors' intentions to leave their organizations also reflect the likelihood that the individual has changed his/her job or institution within a certain period, and he/she is immediately predisposed to actual turnover (Qin, 2021; Zhang et al., 2022). The high intent of the instructor to leave the organization will cause him/her to stop their work (Ertiirk, 2022). Thus, the objective of the intended turnover of the instructors can have indirect costs or effects, including reducing the morale of the remaining academic staff, causing job overload, and losing social capital among staff members and across organizations.

Historically, researchers in both academic and management fields have shown significant interest in the theory of employee turnover since the beginning of the 20th century, and more than a thousand empirical findings have been published in both quantitative and qualitative studies (Gupta et al., 2022). The study of instructors' quitting has also continued to draw considerable interest from academics in the 21st-century academic and management arenas (Li & Sawhney, 2019). The reasons why scholars are interested in conducting scientific research in this area is that employee turnover has negative effects on organizational

performance, such as increased financial cost Allen et al. (2010), disrupted operations and functions (Zeynep Ton, 2008), increased accident rates (Shaw et al., 2005), and decreased customer service and quality (Hancock et al., 2013). Similarly, the negative costs of instructors' quitting will include costs for recruiting other substitutes, constrained integration within academic departments, difficulties with course allocations or course offerings, and lower morale among the remaining instructors in higher education institutions (Michaels & Spector, 1982). Several scholars and researchers have claimed that organizations focus minimal attention on this serious behavior, so they have to deal with the actual quitting that is a logical consequence of the intention to leave. Thus, the instructor's cognitive and behavioral decision to leave has several undesirable consequences, both for the organization and for the instructor, who functions along many dimensions.

2.2.2. Types and Components of Turnover and Turnover Intention

Employee turnover refers to the termination of an official and psychological contract between an individual and his or her organization or institution (Mumtaz et al., 2022). Employee turnover can be either voluntary or involuntary, depending on who initiates the decision to leave. Voluntary turnover is when the employee decides to quit for various reasons, such as dissatisfaction, stress, or career change. Involuntary turnover is when the organization or employer dismisses the employee due to poor performance, misconduct, or downsizing (Preenen et al., 2011). Voluntary turnover can have different impacts on organizational performance, depending on the quality and availability of the employees who leave. Sun and Wang (2016) classified voluntary turnover into functional and dysfunctional turnover. Functional turnover is when substandard performers resign, which can benefit the organization by reducing costs and improving productivity. Dysfunctional turnover is when effective performers exit, which can harm the organization by increasing costs and reducing quality. Dysfunctional turnover can be further divided into avoidable and unavoidable turnovers. Avoidable turnover is caused by factors that the organization can control or influence, such as compensation, working conditions, or leadership. Unavoidable turnover is caused by factors that the organization has little or no control over, such as family moves, serious illness, or death.

Employee turnover is often associated with various variables, such as job satisfaction, commitment, motivation, emotion, and relationships among the organizations and the employees

(Lazzari et al., 2022). Therefore, it is important to distinguish between voluntary and involuntary turnover; otherwise, the estimation of such a relationship in terms of all employees' intention to leave will be inaccurate (Scott et al., 2020). Employee turnover intention is defined as an employee's willingness or attempts to leave the current workplace voluntarily (Takase, 2010). Turnover intention is a multi-stage process that involves three components: psychological, cognitive, and behavioral. The psychological component refers to the emotional attachment or detachment of the employee to the organization. The cognitive component refers to the evaluation of the costs and benefits of staying or leaving. The behavioral component refers to the actual search for alternative employment opportunities or resignation (Takase, 2010). For the purpose of this study, the researcher focused on the voluntary turnover intentions of instructors in higher education institutions in Ethiopia.

2.2.3. How Psychological and Social Factors Affect Turnover Intentions

A meta-analysis conducted by Lazzari et al. (2022) and Rubenstein et al. (2018) indicated that the employees' intentions to leave are the primary predictor of their actual turnover behaviors. Over the past 100 years, scholars have published more than 2000 articles and research materials on the voluntary turnover behaviors of employees (Lee, Hom, Eberly, Li, & Mitchell, 2016). Lee et al. (2016) elucidated that James March and Herbert Simon were the first scholars who placed voluntary turnover intent on the map in their 1958 publications. Other researchers have also investigated voluntary turnover, which occurs when employees want to leave the institution where they have been employed (Mathews, 2018).

Similarly, the voluntary intention of employees to turnover confirmed the person's plans to quit or leave their present role or organization (Lazzari et al., 2022). According to Mobley (1977), the intention of employees to turnover is described as the final phase of the cognitive process of withdrawal from an organization by an employee before the employee actively chooses to leave and begins to pursue other employment. Organizational participation affects organizational practices, including the purpose of voluntary turnover. Organizations have been exploring ways to slow voluntary attrition and attract workers for decades (Faloye, 2014). As a result, the intention of instructors to turnover has received greater attention from organizations around the world since many countries have faced this severe and difficult social phenomenon at some point in their development (Kosi et al., 2015; Zahra et al., 2013). The desire of workers to

leave their organizations has been recognized as the strongest indicator of their actual behavior in terms of turnover. According to several research findings, employees' turnover intentions and actual turnover behavior are consistently correlated with their job satisfaction, age, tenure, and organisational engagement (Ahmad Saufi et al., 2023; Lazzari et al., 2022).

Based on the previously reviewed literature, academic staff turnover intentions are usually influenced by several reasons, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, leadership, job performance, work-family conflict, pay, promotion, workload, and absenteeism (Kebede & Fikire, 2022; Serin et al., 2022). However, it is impossible to identify and study every factor of turnover intentions; therefore, the researcher has selected some of the psychological and social factors through the standards of popularity, independence, measurability, significance, and practicability. Accordingly, emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitments are selected as predictive factors for university instructors' turnover intentions. Moreover, different factors have shown a correlation with the subjects of turnover intention studies. For example, the most common antecedents of actual turnover activity have been divided into three categories in a meta-analysis conducted on the predictors of turnover for human service employees: demographic variables, professional expectations, and organizational circumstances (Megfira Adem, 2019; Ramli et al., 2014). These categories will be used to list some of the most common turnover factors.

Many workers quit their jobs and organizations for various internal and external reasons. For instance, Delfanti et al. (2018) report that workers tend to leave their jobs and institutions due to their managers' lack of confidence, ineffective communication skills, low intimacy, unfair treatment, low pay, and stressful work environment. This leads to organizations losing their clients and consumers receiving poor service or low quality products from them. However, Griffeth et al. (2000) found no clear-cut reason for people's decision to quit an organization in their meta-analysis of over 800 studies. The researcher of this literature review aims to examine the predictive role of emotional intelligence, communication effectiveness, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on the turnover intentions of instructors.

2.2.4. The Relationship between Demographic Variables and Turnover Intention

Turnover intention, or the intention to leave one's job or organization, is influenced by various demographic factors, such as age, work experience, education, gender, marital status, and children. This section will review the existing literature on how these factors affect turnover intention, especially among teachers.

Previous research has consistently shown that younger workers are more likely to leave than their older counterparts. For example, Billingsley (2004) and Conley & You (2017) found that the age of teachers was associated with their predicted turnover and actual turnover. Conley and You (2017) also reported that teachers under the age of 35 showed higher attrition rates than teachers between the ages of 35 and 60. Similarly, Singer (1992) suggested that teachers under the age of 30 were twice as likely to abandon their jobs and their institutions as their older ones. These findings indicate that age is a significant predictor of turnover intention among teachers.

Another demographic factor that affects turnover intention is work experience. Generally, workers with more work experience are less likely to leave their organizations, as they have often invested more in the organization and developed stronger ties with their colleagues. This is also true for teachers, as Miller et al. (1999) demonstrated that teachers with more years of teaching experience had lower levels of turnover intention than those with less experience. Moreover, work experience can also affect the level of satisfaction and commitment that teachers have to their jobs and organizations, which in turn can influence their turnover intention.

Education is another factor that can impact turnover intentions among teachers. Specifically, the certification status of teachers can affect their intention to leave or stay in their jobs. Miller et al. (1999) found that uncertified special education teachers had a higher level of turnover intention than their certified counterparts. This may be because uncertified teachers face more challenges and difficulties in their work environment, such as a lack of support, training, and resources. Furthermore, certified teachers may have more opportunities and incentives to stay in their jobs, such as higher salaries, recognition, and career advancement.

Gender is a demographic factor that has been widely studied in relation to turnover intention and behavior. However, the results of previous studies have been inconsistent and

contradictory. Some studies have found that female workers are more likely to leave than male workers Gilman et al. (1995), while others have found no significant difference between genders (Billingsley, 2004). The effect of gender on turnover intention may depend on various contextual factors, such as the type of job, the organizational culture, and the personal characteristics of the workers.

The last demographic factors that will be discussed in this section are marital status and children. These factors can affect turnover intention by influencing the work-life balance and the family responsibilities of the workers. According to Mobley et al. (1978), married workers tend to be more satisfied than unmarried workers, as they receive more support and feel less stress from their spouses. However, having children at home can increase the turnover intention and behavior of workers, especially for women, as they have to balance their work and family roles. This may lead to role conflict, overload, and strain, which can reduce the satisfaction and commitment of workers to their jobs and organizations.

2.2.5. Turnover Intentions in Higher Education

One of the key issues facing the global educational system in recent years is the turnover intention and behavior of higher education academic staff. Turnover intention refers to the intention to leave one's job or organization, while turnover behavior refers to the actual act of leaving. This issue has been a critical concern for scholars, institutions, and managers for several decades (Allen et al., 2010). In this section, I will review the literature on the causes and consequences of turnover intention and behavior among higher education academic staff.

2.2.6. Factors Influencing Academic Staff Turnover Intention

The turnover intention and behavior of the academic staff are influenced by various factors, which can be classified into three categories: individual, organizational, and environmental. Individual factors are related to the personal and professional reasons why instructors may choose to stay or leave their higher education institutions. These include motivation, satisfaction, commitment, emotional intelligence, and effective communication. Previous research has shown that these factors are critical determinants of instructors' intention to leave (Zhang et al., 2022). However, there is a lack of research on the simultaneous effects of these factors on instructor retention.

Organizational factors are related to the characteristics and conditions of the organization where the academic staff work. These include salary, recognition, career advancement, support, training, resources, culture, climate, leadership, and management. Previous research has shown that these factors have significant effects on turnover intention and behavior among academic staff (Lin & Huang, 2020; Yimer et al., 2017). For example, factors such as low salaries, lack of recognition, limited career opportunities, insufficient support, training, and resources, negative culture and climate, and poor leadership and management are all associated with higher turnover intention and behavior among academic staff (Delfanti et al., 2018; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011).

Environmental factors are related to the external factors that affect the organization where the academic staff work. These include economic conditions, political situations, social trends, technological changes, legal regulations, and competitive pressures. Previous research has shown that these factors can also affect turnover intention and behavior among academic staff (Hong, 2010). For example, factors such as economic downturns, political instability, social unrest, technological innovations, legal reforms, and competitive challenges can all create uncertainty, stress, and dissatisfaction among academic staff, which can lead them to seek alternative employment opportunities elsewhere (Al-Suraihi et al., 2021). In addition to understanding the factors influencing turnover intention and behavior among academic staff, it is also important to analyze the relationships between these factors and the dependent variable. According to Podolsky et al. (2019), many governments are striving to adopt policies to retain their educators. This study aims to investigate the impact of individual, organizational, and environmental factors on the intention to leave higher education institutions in Ethiopia.

2.2.7. Consequences of Turnover Intention and Behavior

Turnover intention and behavior among academic staff have serious negative impacts on both individuals and organizations. Individuals may suffer from reduced well-being, hindered professional development, and limited career prospects. Organizations may experience impaired performance, quality, reputation, and sustainability. Previous research has shown that turnover intention and behavior among academic staff can lead to various negative outcomes, such as: loss of human capital, knowledge, skills, and expertise; decrease in productivity, efficiency, and innovation; increase in costs, waste, and errors; reduction in quality, standards, and outcomes;

decline in reputation, prestige, and attractiveness; deterioration in morale, commitment, and loyalty; and disruption in continuity, stability, and harmony (Allen et al., 2010).

In addition to the direct and indirect effects of instructors' voluntary turnover on higher education institutions, turnover intention and behavior also have consequences for both individuals and organizations. Haileyesus (2019) explained that the direct effect of instructors' voluntary turnover is mainly the separation and replacement costs, which include the costs of employees' leaving, compensation, unemployment insurance, outplacement, advertising, training, interviewing, re-employment assessment, and reallocation. However, he also noted that the indirect effect is hard to quantify as it involves intangible variables such as the loss of organizational knowledge and skills, reduced growth, lower productivity, and a negative influence on the remaining employees.

Similarly, Lalitha and Singh (2014) revealed that employee turnover intention is one of the highest and most direct costs to organizations or institutions. For example, in the United States, employees' intention to turnover contributed 68 million dollars to direct workplace costs in 2008 (Figueroa, 2015). It also resulted in indirect costs, such as issues related to scheduling, morale, and recruitment. Li and Sawhney (2019) identified two negative effects of turnover on institutions. The first and largest detrimental consequence of workforce turnover is the high cost of replacing a departing staff member. Recruiting, training, and associated costs are very high on a continuous basis. Therefore, organizations aim to increase the involvement of qualified instructors and enhance their retention. The other significant negative consequence of instructor turnover is organizational task instability. This can result in decreased efficiency and unfulfilled daily functions (Li & Sawhney, 2019). Hence, this study focuses mainly on the relationships between the emotional intelligence of instructors, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. It also addresses the identified academic staff turnover problems of higher education institutions.

2.3. Emotional Intelligence

2.3.1. Concepts and Applications of Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI) is the ability to perceive, express, understand, and regulate one's own and others' emotions (Fiori & Vesely-maillefer, 2017; Mayer et al., 2016). EI has

become a focus area of educational research, as it is considered essential for the effectiveness and well-being of instructors in higher education. In this section, we will explore the characteristics, the role of emotional intelligence, instructor's emotional intelligence and their professional identity, and the relationship between EI socio-demographic variables, as well as its practical implications for instructors and institutions.

2.3.2. Characteristics of Emotional Intelligence

Salovey and Mayer (1990) described various EI skills, such as using feedback in social contexts, self-awareness, and self-regulation. An emotionally intelligent person is proficient in these skills. EI involves the interaction between social identity and feedback. We are identified with the groups we work with, which set certain criteria and expectations for our actions (Fisher & Chon, 2013). Society evaluates us based on our observable behavior and these norms and expectations. Individuals who are skilled in self-monitoring can use feedback to monitor and correct negative reactions to their behavior. For example, Graziano et al. (2007) discussed how embarrassment serves as emotional feedback that helps the person to track others' reactions, identify the embarrassing act, resolve it, and change future behaviors accordingly. These steps are taken to avoid risking further actions that could jeopardize the individual's social identity. This example suggests that emotionally intelligent individuals are aware of how their actions are received in social settings and are more capable of establishing, maintaining, or redefining their social identity.

EI also involves self-awareness, which is the understanding of one's own behavior and its impact on others. According to Averill (1983), self-awareness guides individuals to function within the standards appropriate for their specific roles in the community. Self-awareness allows employees to prioritize issues such that minor problems are set aside and more serious problems are solved promptly (Kreibich et al., 2022). This is relevant to the communication process of a group of individuals. Moreover, self-aware people might have the ability to adapt to other group or staff members' reactions to their actions. Thus, emotionally intelligent people can effectively manage relationships to achieve the desired goals (Burch et al., 2016). To tap into this ability, individuals must learn how to self-regulate their emotional reactions in a balanced way.

Emotional self-regulation is another aspect of EI that has practical implications for various institutions. For instance, Wang (2022) conducted empirical studies on EI and its effects

on individuals' performance, staff relationships, and institutional changes. According to Humphrey et al. (2007) and Wang (2022), general intelligence is not enough to succeed in life. Moreover, research findings show that EI is not measured by concrete expectations of how effective an instructor will be in work and life; rather, it suggests that it is a better predictor of an instructor's effectiveness.

2.3.3. Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence

Different models have been proposed to measure and conceptualize EI. One of the most influential models is the four-branch model by Mayer and Salovey (1997) which divides EI into four dimensions: perceiving emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions, and managing emotions. Perceiving emotions refers to the ability to recognize one's own and others' emotions through facial expressions, body language, tone of voice, etc. This dimension is essential for effective communication and empathy. Using emotions refers to the ability to harness one's own and others' emotions to facilitate cognitive processes such as thinking, problem-solving, creativity, etc. This dimension is important for enhancing motivation and performance. Understanding emotions refers to the ability to comprehend the causes and consequences of one's own and others' emotions, as well as the complex relationships among different emotions. This dimension is crucial for reasoning and decision-making. Managing emotions refers to the ability to regulate one's own and others' emotions in order to achieve personal and social goals. This dimension is vital for coping with stress and conflict.

Another popular model is the mixed model by Daniel Goleman (1995) which combines EI with personality traits and competencies. Goleman's model consists of five domains: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. Self-awareness refers to the ability to recognize one's own emotions, strengths, weaknesses, values, etc. This domain is essential for self-development and self-confidence. Self-regulation refers to the ability to control one's own impulses, emotions, moods, etc., as well as adapt to changing situations. This domain is important for integrity and flexibility. Motivation refers to the ability to pursue goals with enthusiasm, persistence, optimism, etc., despite obstacles and setbacks. This domain is important for achievement and initiative. Empathy refers to the ability to understand and share the feelings, needs, and perspectives of others, as well as respond appropriately. This domain is important for compassion and service. Social skills refer to the ability to interact effectively and harmoniously

with others, as well as influence, inspire, and lead them. This domain is important for communication and collaboration.

2.3.4. The Role of Emotional Intelligence in Education Quality and Development

Education quality and its development have long been pressing concerns. Experts in this field have long been interested in the development of educational programs and instructor competencies, especially their capacity to effectively organize the educational process. In the meantime, people frequently overlook emotional intelligence as a personal trait. It is not shocking, given how recently EI has been studied in psychology. Despite the novelty of this concept, professionals rapidly understood its importance Usue de la Barrera et al. (2019) Several different skills and aptitudes fall under the umbrella of emotional intelligence. They range from the ability to recognize, analyze, and categorize emotions to the ability to express, control, and manage them (Bonesso et al., 2020). Emotional intelligence traits can be seen in the perception of connecting groups of people to provide a specific service within their workplaces. They have been shown to enhance emotional well-being in individuals and boost their capacity to act in a way that benefits students, families, coworkers, and others (Schoeps et al., 2020).

Studying emotional intelligence as part of teachers' preparation is crucial since it directly affects school communities' overall relationships and success (Kotsou et al., 2019). Strong emotional intelligence is a requirement for those working in the social and educational sectors. According to Tuyakova et al. (2022), it is impossible to develop successful interpersonal communication without first understanding, sharing, and managing the emotions of others. It seems sensible to foster emotional intelligence inside educational institutions to build a peaceful, mindful society, but only an emotionally intelligent instructor can carry out this task (Brackett et al., 2019). According to several studies, having high emotional intelligence helps students maintain greater classroom discipline. Students will learn more effectively if an emotionally capable instructor is in charge of the classroom; they will be more motivated to learn, which will further the group's strong academic success (Petrides et al., 2018).

2.3.5. The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and the Professional Identity of Instructors

Many researchers have studied the importance of emotional intelligence, and numerous people seem to think that instructors' emotional intelligence is related to their ability to successfully manage the educational process (Petrides, 2016). Teachers' capacity to see the job as a combination of personal, social, cultural, ethnic, and environmental factors allows for productive interactions with their students. Instructors who have high emotional intelligence are more likely to enjoy and be satisfied with their work and at the same time it helps them to support their students to improve their self-awareness, emotion regulation, social relationships, and effective communication skills (Roorda et al., 2011).

In addition, the question of what factors influence a teacher's effectiveness in their profession has been a long-standing interest of education researchers, as it is vital for making the education system more responsive and humane (Muijs, 2015). However, instructors' emotions are not as important as instruction, and many academics agree that emotional intelligence in teachers is essential for learning and survival (Andy Hargreaves, 2005; Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006). It is crucial to teachers' development teacher education, and the evolution and change of teachers' identities or self-perceptions (Andy Hargreaves, 2005; Yin et al., 2013). Nevertheless, recent research from several scholars has emphasized the professional evaluation of instructors, and training development programs have tended to be mainly cognitive, ignoring the crucial role that social and emotional skills play in the effectiveness of instructors' work (Cefai et al., 2009).

2.3.6. The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Socio-Demographic Variables

One of the socio-demographic variables that affects emotional intelligence is age. Emotional intelligence (EI) is the ability to monitor and manage one's own and others' emotions, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions (Mayer et al., 2016). EI can influence one's personal and professional success, as well as one's work-life balance and social skills (Çaglar Dogru, 2022). However, the effects of age on EI are not consistent across different studies. For instance, some studies have found that EI increases with age, as older people tend to have more life experiences and emotional maturity (Fernández-Berrocal et al., 2012;

Ramchandran et al., 2020). In contrast, other studies have found no significant difference between age groups in EI (Harrod & Scheer, 2005).

Another variable that may influence EI is gender. Some studies have reported that women have higher levels of EI than men, as they tend to be more empathetic and expressive (Fernández-Berrocal et al., 2012; Hopkins et al., 2008; Harrod & Scheer, 2005). On the other hand, other studies have found no gender difference in EI (Fernández-Berrocal et al., 2012). The impact of educational status on EI is also unclear. Some studies have suggested that higher education can enhance one's EI, as it exposes one to diverse perspectives and challenges (Hopkins et al., 2008; Karakus et al., 2021; Sánchez-álvarez et al., 2020).

Work experience, on the other hand, seems to have a positive effect on EI, as it provides opportunities for learning and developing emotional skills in different situations (Fernández-Berrocal et al., 2012; Hopkins et al., 2008). Nevertheless, the type and quality of work experience may also matter, as some jobs may require more or less EI than others (Venmani et al., 2022). In conclusion, the relationship between EI and socio-demographic variables is complex and multifaceted. Different studies have yielded different results depending on the sample, the measurement, and the context. Therefore, more research is needed to understand how these variables interact with each other and with EI.

2.3.7. Applications of Emotional Intelligence in Higher Education

EI has been linked to various aspects of school life in the field of education, such as learning, academic achievement, effective teaching, and pro-social behavior among instructors and students (Jones et al., 2013). EI also contributes to personal and professional development and organizational success in workplace settings. Instructors who wish to improve their effectiveness can benefit from professional opportunities to enhance their EI, based on the emerging connections between EI and quality teaching (Rivers et al., 2012). Therefore, it is essential for instructors to develop their own and others' EI in order to maintain the performance of their higher educational institutions. EI can help instructors improve their teaching skills in various ways. For example, EI can help instructors: To plan and deliver engaging and meaningful lessons that cater to the diverse needs and interests of students, to create a positive and supportive learning environment that fosters trust, respect, and collaboration among students,

to provide constructive feedback and guidance that motivate and empower students to achieve their learning goals, to assess students' progress and achievements objectively and fairly, to reflect on their own teaching practices and seek feedback from peers and mentors to enhance their professional growth, manage their own emotions and stress levels effectively and cope with the challenges and demands of teaching, to communicate effectively and empathetically with students, colleagues, parents, and other stakeholders, to build strong relationships and networks with other instructors and professionals in their field, to lead and participate in curriculum development, innovation, and improvement initiatives, and to contribute to the vision, mission, and culture of their institutions.

2.4. Effective Communication

2.4.1. Effective Communication: Definition and Factors

Effective communication is a vital skill for any social interaction, especially in higher education institutions where instructors need to communicate effectively with various stakeholders, such as employers, colleagues, students, clients, suppliers, and customers. Effective communication can be defined as the transfer of information or messages from a sender to a receiver, followed by feedback that indicates an understanding of the message (Altinoz, 2009). However, effective communication is not just about exchanging words, letters, or symbols; it is also about accessing the mind or thoughts of another person (Ince & Gül, 2011). Effective communication encompasses the actions individuals take to influence others' perspectives, fostering connections between people and organizations. Moreover, Nasiru and Hammawa (2020) define it as a process involving communication, attentive listening, and mutual comprehension among institutional staff. In line with this, Winarso (2018) emphasizes communication's social dimensions, highlighting its role in promoting strong interpersonal and institutional relationships. Therefore, effective communication is a multifaceted phenomenon that means different things to different people and depends on various factors, such as the context, the purpose, the audience, and the medium of communication.

Effective communication can have various benefits for higher education institutions. It can enhance organizational outcomes, such as productivity, efficiency, quality, innovation, and customer satisfaction (Stanikzai, 2017). It can also improve instructors' comprehension, moods, communities, institutions, leadership, and even the humanities (Stanikzai, 2017). Furthermore, it

can foster interpersonal and professional relationships among instructors and other stakeholders through the use of profound, considerate, focused, dynamic, and appropriate gestures (Ramirez, 2012). Additionally, it can facilitate the creation and dissemination of institutional goals and values through effective communication and, it can enable instructors to demonstrate job habits that are acceptable and necessary for their profession.

However, effective communication also faces many challenges in higher education institutions. Some of these challenges are: cultural differences and language barriers (Dwyer, 2019), noise interference and lack of feedback (Altinoz, 2009), and miscommunication (Ince & Gül, 2011). To overcome these challenges and achieve effective communication goals, instructors need to adopt some strategies. Some of these strategies are: planning and preparing the message before delivering it; choosing the appropriate medium and channel for the message; adapting the message to the audience's needs and expectations; using clear and concise language that avoids ambiguity and jargon; providing relevant evidence and examples to support the message; asking for feedback and clarifying any doubts or misunderstandings; listening actively and empathetically to the receiver's response; and showing respect and appreciation for the receiver's perspective. By following these strategies, instructors can enhance their communication skills and reduce the communication barriers that hinder effective communication in higher education institutions (Mahmud et al., 2020).

2.4.2. Effective Communication in Higher Education

Effective communication is vital for achieving institutional goals and maintaining positive relationships among academic staff in higher education (Hoy & Miskel, 2017). It helps to enhance functionality, accomplish goals, and establish organizational relationships. Effective communication in higher education can be classified into four categories: professional, interpersonal, institutional, and administrative (Hoy & Miskel, 2017). As higher education institutions support a large number of individuals from diverse backgrounds and positions, they need to communicate in a way that not only conveys information but also considers its impact and effectiveness on the instructors. Moreover, higher education institutions must continually evaluate their communication practices to adapt to the changes in their structure and operation, especially in virtual and physical modes as well as demographic shifts (Sharma, 2015).

One of the key factors that influences the success of any organization or entity is effective communication (Worley & Doolen, 2006). Effective communication is essential for expressing feelings, emotions, expectations, and goals with staff members. It also facilitates the sharing of information, ideas, opinions, and suggestions among employees, which leads to increased participation and a sense of unity and belonging to the institution (Manafzadeh et al., 2018). On the contrary, the lack of communication or feedback can negatively affect employees' trust, morale, and motivation (Vakola & Bouradas, 2005). Effective communication thus connects the actions and activities that people and organizations do to attain their intended goals. Therefore, effective communication is crucial for instructors or employees in higher education because it enhances their emotions, motivation, satisfaction, and commitment while reducing their turnover intentions by promoting retention.

2.4.3. The Importance of Effective Organizational Communication in Higher Education

Effective organizational communication refers to the exchange of information and feedback that is clear, relevant, and constructive among the employees and the leaders of an organization. One of the main effects of effective communication is on the instructors' job satisfaction, which is the degree to which they enjoy and value their work. Several studies have found that effective communication increases job satisfaction by enhancing the instructors' emotions, motivation, happiness, commitment, and sense of purpose. For example, Pongton and Suntrayuth (2019) reported that effective communication, feedback reception, and constructive criticism had a direct positive impact on instructors' job satisfaction in Thailand. Similarly, John and Vaught (1997) found that effective communication was a major factor influencing job satisfaction among instructors in the US. However, some studies have not found a significant relationship between effective communication and organizational commitment, which is the degree to which the instructors identify with and support the goals of their organization. For instance, Trombetta and Rogers (1988) indicated that effective communication reduced work satisfaction but did not affect the organizational commitment of employees in a US university.

Another effect of effective communication is on the instructors' communication satisfaction, which is the emotional response to communication in the workplace or "a generalized feeling which an instructor has toward his total communication environment" (Down

& Hazen, 1990). Communication satisfaction depends not only on the clarity and relevance of the information provided, but also on the quality of the interactions with coworkers and superiors. Anderson and Martin (1995) argued that employees seek communication that satisfies their interpersonal needs for inclusion, such as being respected, valued, and supported by others. The level of communication satisfaction is also related to the instructor's role and position within the institution, as different roles may have different expectations and preferences for communication.

Communication satisfaction can have various consequences for the instructors' work performance and well-being. On the positive side, communication satisfaction can enhance organizational effectiveness, employee-employer relations, job performance and productivity, customer satisfaction, instructor performance, attitude, and morale. It can also foster morale, commitment, and motivation among employees to achieve organizational goals. Organizations and leaders that promote open and bi-directional communication have higher levels of employee satisfaction and well-being. On the negative side, ineffective communication can lead to stress, turnover intentions, absenteeism, low feedback, and burnout. In the context of Ethiopian higher education institutions, there is little evidence that links instructor satisfaction to work quality. However, based on the literature review, it can be inferred that effective communication has a positive association with work morale, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and staff retention. Effective communication can also have a beneficial impact on the psycho-social factors mentioned above.

2.4.4. The Relationship between Effective Communication and Socio-Demographic Variables

The relationship between effective communication and socio-demographic variables among instructors or teachers in higher education can vary based on individual and cultural factors. Age can influence communication styles and preferences (Hargie & Tourish, 2009). Older instructors may have more experience and potentially better communication skills, but they may also be less adaptable to new communication technologies and methods. Younger instructors might be more comfortable with technology but may lack experience (Hargie & Tourish, 2009). Effective communication may require a balance between traditional and modern communication methods. Gender can influence effective communication, as research indicates

that there are differences in communication styles between men and women. Women are often viewed as more empathetic and collaborative, whereas men may be seen as more direct and authoritative. To achieve effective communication, it is important to acknowledge and adapt to these gender-related differences while avoiding stereotypes. Marital status may influence the availability and work-life balance of instructors. Married instructors may have responsibilities outside of work, which can affect their availability and stress levels. Effective communication should consider the personal circumstances of instructors and offer flexibility when needed. Instructors with higher levels of education may have advanced communication skills and be better equipped to convey complex ideas. However, they should be mindful of not using jargon that their students cannot understand. Effective communication in education often involves simplifying complex concepts and adapting the level of language to the audience. Work experience is a valuable asset for instructors. Experienced instructors may have developed effective communication skills through years of teaching, but they should also be open to incorporating new teaching techniques and adapting to changing student demographics. Effective communication should be a combination of experience and adaptability.

It's important to note that these socio-demographic variables are not the sole determinants of effective communication. Effective communication in higher education often depends on the ability to understand and respond to the needs and expectations of students, which can vary widely. Additionally, the cultural context of the institution and the specific subject matter being taught can influence the communication dynamics. Instructors in higher education should continually assess and refine their communication strategies to ensure that they are effectively reaching their students and promoting a positive learning environment. This may involve a combination of face-to-face and digital communication, active listening, feedback mechanisms, and the ability to adjust to the changing dynamics of the student body.

2.5. Job Motivation

2.5.1. Concepts and Overview of Job Motivation

Job motivation is defined as the compelling combination of internal and external factors that propel individuals to actively participate in their professional duties, invest their energy and dedication, and strive to attain their objectives within their chosen occupation or career path (Rietveld et al., 2022; Stankovska et al., 2017). This intricate blend of incentives shapes a

person's passion, tenacity, and commitment in the execution of their work-related responsibilities. The word "motivation" can be described by the intrinsic and extrinsic drives or forces that determine the emphasis and the individual's direct action towards their particular goal or objective (Gulnaz et al., 2016). In other words, motivation is the mechanism that inspires, directs, preserves, and holds the capital on the right path. Intrinsic motivation refers to performing an activity only for innate satisfaction. It is driven by a genuine love for the task, a sense of curiosity, or a desire for mastery. Extrinsic motivation involves external factors that encourage and incentivize individuals to perform well in their roles. This can include financial rewards, promotions, recognition, or institutional support.

Many academics have made significant contributions to the idea that motivation is goal-focused behaviour that incorporates both internal and external personal powers, which helps to explain why people follow certain paths and maintain certain levels of strength while working (Chidi & Victor, 2017). In the context of higher education, job motivation refers to the driving force that compels educators, administrators, and staff within academic institutions to engage in their roles with enthusiasm, dedication, and a sense of purpose (Rietveld et al., 2022; Stankovska et al., 2017). This motivation is rooted in a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors that influence individuals working in educational settings (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Kim, 2020). Intrinsic motivators include the sense of accomplishment from positively impacting students' lives, the joy of intellectual growth, and the fulfillment of contributing to academic excellence (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Kim, 2020). Extrinsic motivators are often tied to performance evaluations and the attainment of specific career goals or outcomes (Rietveld et al., 2022; Stankovska et al., 2017). Job motivation in higher education encompasses the internal and external forces that drive individuals to excel in their roles, foster a positive learning environment, and contribute to the goals and mission of their educational institutions (Rietveld et al., 2022; Stankovska et al., 2017). It plays a pivotal role in the success of academic endeavors and the overall advancement of higher education (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Kim, 2020).

2.5.2. The Significance of Motivation in Higher Education

Education embodies the holistic development of individuals and transcends the confines of the lecture hall (Victor & Babatunde, 2014). In higher education, instructors assume the roles of facilitators and mentors, with their primary impetus closely tied to students' academic success

(Victor & Babatunde, 2014). Consequently, scholars and researchers have pinpointed various motivational challenges faced by instructors in higher education, which exert a substantial influence on enhancing job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and overall institutional progress (Malik et al., 2010). Research conducted in Nigeria revealed that academic staff in higher education institutions allocate 48% of their time to administrative tasks, while a mere 29% is dedicated to teaching activities (Ekundayo & Konwea, 2010). The amalgamation of their remuneration and purchasing power often encourages academic staff to limit their commitment to institutional duties, be it administration or teaching, as they prefer supplementary income-generating activities (Victor & Babatunde, 2014). However, it is worth noting that salary, although conspicuous, is not the sole driver of academic staff motivation; intangibles such as empowerment, recognition, and feedback stand as pivotal motivators for effective performance (Fuhrmann, 2006). Furthermore, scholars like Filak and Sheldon (2003) contend that work motivation plays a vital role in an institution's progressive success and the efficacy of educational endeavors.

Competent and experienced academic staff, coupled with professional development, familiarity, and financial resources, are considered fundamental pillars in the productivity of higher educational institutions. Nevertheless, the contributions of academic staff's work motivation and job satisfaction to institutional growth and advancement often remain underappreciated (Ololube, 2006). Job motivation, as elucidated by Li et al. (2014), pertains to the enthusiasm with which academic staff engage in their academic and research endeavors to attain institutional objectives. Ololube (2006) further clarifies that job satisfaction encompasses the capacity of one's job to fulfill individual needs and enhance job performance. Researchers like Nwakasi and Cummins (2019) and Ololube (2006) have explored the positive correlation between job motivation and job satisfaction, with highly motivated instructors exhibiting greater work efficacy (Bozpolat, 2016). It is also anticipated that motivated instructors are more inclined to go the extra mile to enhance student performance and validate academic progress. Conversely, the absence of instructor motivation can contribute to subpar learning outcomes, jeopardizing institutional success and progress.

Motivational factors such as employee well-being, competitive compensation, career advancement, positive intercollegiate relationships, and interactions with superiors can elevate

teacher effectiveness and productivity in the workplace. Positive peer relationships foster unity and a sense of belonging, thereby enhancing instructors' success and productivity levels. Certain interpersonal dynamics, both within and outside the workplace, appear to be more conducive to success. To foster cohesion among instructors, institutions should consider organizing social events. Additionally, Teresa (2012) underscores the paramount role of instructor motivation in promoting excellence in teaching and learning, asserting that motivated instructors are more likely to inspire students and enforce educational reforms. The quality of an educational system, therefore, hinges on the caliber of its educators. While instructor motivation is pivotal to the teaching and learning process, many educators in developed nations still grapple with low levels of motivation.

2.5.3. The Relationship between Job Motivation and Socio-Demographic Variables in Higher Education Instructors

Extensive research has examined the interaction between socio-demographic variables and job motivation in the context of higher education. This literature review provides an overview of the existing knowledge regarding this relationship, focusing on how various socio-demographic factors influence instructors' motivation.

Age plays a pivotal role in instructors' motivation. Studies have shown that younger instructors exhibit higher levels of intrinsic motivation due to their enthusiasm and adaptability to evolving teaching methods and technologies (Deci et al., 1991). In contrast, older instructors may shift their motivation towards extrinsic factors such as job security and retirement benefits. Ryan and Deci (2000), highlighting the complexity of motivation across different age groups. Gender-based differences in job motivation among higher education instructors have been extensively studied (Stolk et al., 2021). However, research findings regarding this topic are inconsistent. Some studies suggest that men are more motivated by financial incentives and promotions, while women prioritize intrinsic factors such as student success and the joy of teaching (Stolk et al., 2021). Marital status significantly impacts instructors' job motivation. Married instructors may have greater financial responsibilities, making monetary rewards a more significant motivator. Conversely, unmarried instructors might prioritize personal and professional growth (Meng & Yang, 2023; Stankovska et al., 2017). Understanding the influence

of marital status on motivation is crucial for designing effective motivational strategies (Denson & Szelényi, 2022). Educational attainment also shapes instructors' motivation.

Research indicates that instructors with advanced degrees often exhibit higher levels of intrinsic motivation driven by their passion for research and academic excellence (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Conversely, those with lower educational qualifications may place more emphasis on extrinsic rewards, such as salary, as motivating factors (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Work experience is another significant socio-demographic variable influencing job motivation in higher education. Novice instructors may experience higher motivation due to the novelty of the teaching experience and their desire to prove themselves (Stankovska et al., 2017). Experienced instructors, on the other hand, may find motivation in mentorship and facilitating the development of younger educators. Recognizing the varying needs of instructors at different career stages is vital. In conclusion, the relationship between job motivation and socio-demographic variables among higher education instructors is a multifaceted and evolving field of study. This literature review highlights the distinct roles played by age, gender, marital status, educational background, and work experience in shaping instructors' motivation. Understanding these dynamics is pivotal for creating effective motivational strategies tailored to the specific needs and aspirations of instructors in higher education.

2.6. Job Satisfaction

2.6.1. Conceptual Foundations and Significance of Job Satisfaction

In 1935, Hoppock introduced the term "job satisfaction," defining it as encompassing both the psychological and functional dimensions of employees' contentment with their job-related environmental aspects and their subjective reactions to their workplace. This foundational concept has since been further elucidated by scholars in the fields of psychology, sociology, and organizational behavior, as exemplified by Vroom (1964) cited in Lee et al. (2017). Additionally, researchers like Youssef and Luthans (2007) have characterized job satisfaction as a positive emotional state resulting from the evaluation of one's work or work experiences. They emphasized that job satisfaction hinges on how well an employee perceives their job meeting their significant needs. Furthermore, Robbins and Judge (2013) defined job satisfaction as an attitude characterized by positive sentiments toward one's work. Spector (1985) also identified job satisfaction as encompassing various factors, including promotion opportunities,

compensation, supervision, incentives, fringe benefits, colleagues, work procedures, job nature, and communication. Consequently, an individual's feelings about their employment within an organization contribute to their overall sense of job satisfaction.

During the 1970s, industrial psychologists concentrated on exploring the connection between job satisfaction and turnover intention. Researchers sought to investigate the links between turnover intentions and predictive factors. The importance of job satisfaction within the teaching profession cannot be understated, as an instructor's effectiveness significantly impacts students' performance (Parveen et al., 2020). Academics, akin to employees in the corporate sector, tend to resign if they experience job dissatisfaction, as job dissatisfaction and the intention to leave are closely linked (Abou Harash & Penderghast, 2010). Thus, job satisfaction has emerged as a prominent factor attracting the attention of experts in organizational behavior (Bahjat Abdallah et al., 2017).

Moreover, job satisfaction holds significance not only in organizational behavior but also in diverse fields such as organizational and industrial psychology and education. Within educational institutions, analyzing and assessing the working conditions and environment for academic staff is crucial. Job satisfaction plays a pivotal role in retaining active employees and ensuring organizational success (Bahjat Abdallah et al., 2017). Job satisfaction refers to the attitudes and emotions experienced by employees in relation to their jobs. This concept has long piqued the interest of social and educational scientists concerned with workplace issues in the educational system (Armstrong, 2009). Many scholars and researchers have been drawn to the topic of job satisfaction due to the belief that work should satisfy one's needs and uphold human dignity. Work lacking these attributes is viewed negatively (Abebe & Markos, 2016). To empirically explore the concept of job satisfaction, it is essential to explicitly define it. Job satisfaction represents individuals' overall orientation towards their job positions, distinct from the fulfillment of specific job aspects. While this conceptualization posits job satisfaction as a singular concept, it acknowledges that the factors influencing this attitude are multifaceted. Job satisfaction is based on emotional responses to the work situation but remains an abstract concept that can only be inferred.

Job satisfaction is closely tied to both actual rewards and expected rewards. A small or negligible disparity between the two engenders a positive attitude, while a substantial gap leads

to a negative attitude and decreased satisfaction. Furthermore, job satisfaction relates to job dimensions, encompassing job material, compensation, coworker relations, and advancement opportunities. Effective supervision is the final piece of the puzzle (Abebe & Markos, 2016). Satisfied instructors excel in their roles and exhibit commitment to both their work and the organization. Therefore, identifying factors influencing staff job satisfaction is crucial for employers, as it significantly impacts organizational performance and productivity (Awang, 2015).

2.6.2. Factors Influencing Job Satisfaction

Numerous researchers have extensively investigated the factors influencing instructors' job satisfaction. However, a divergence of opinions exists regarding whether job satisfaction is unidimensional or multidimensional. Some scholars, like Lawler and Porter (1967), contend that job satisfaction is unidimensional, suggesting that individuals are either satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs. In contrast, Ironson et al. (1989) argue that job satisfaction is multidimensional, with individuals varying in satisfaction across specific job dimensions such as compensation, workplace conditions, and supervision (Robbins and Judge, 2013). Robbins and Judge (2013) additionally identified salary, job nature, promotion opportunities, supervision, and colleague relationships as key job satisfaction elements, also adding "working conditions." In addition to the aforementioned factors, various other dimensions have been identified as influencing job satisfaction, including age, gender, qualifications, compensation and benefits, management policies, growth opportunities, respect, achievement, training, job autonomy, and organizational justice (Ellickson & Logsdon, 2002). Within the literature, the most consistently studied predictors of job satisfaction include pay, the nature of the work, promotion prospects, co-worker relationships, supervision, and working conditions, as demonstrated by (Abdullah & Hui, 2014; Che Nawi et al., 2016; Rehman et al., 2013).

2.6.3. Empirical Findings on Job Satisfaction in Educational Settings

Scholars and philosophers have long been fascinated by the complex relationship between people and their work. This topic is especially relevant for educators, who spend a large part of their lives in the classroom. Two studies examined the school climate and job satisfaction among secondary school teachers in India and Iran Hussain et al. (2022) and Mahmood et al. (2011). The studies used job satisfaction as the dependent variable and variables such as

teachers' value orientation, school climate, and other demographic and professional characteristics as independent ones. The results indicated that teachers in private schools had higher job satisfaction than those in government schools in both countries (Hussain et al., 2022; Reilly et al., 2013). The study also revealed the salient values for teachers, with Iranian teachers emphasizing knowledge, health, and family, while their Indian counterparts valued democracy, religion, and knowledge. Another investigation focused on job satisfaction and motivation among primary-level teachers in India. It found a strong correlation between the two factors. High motivation levels boosted organizational loyalty and increased tenure. The study also discovered that teachers with high emotional intelligence had greater job commitment, while those with low emotional intelligence experienced lower job satisfaction and less organizational commitment (Honingh & Oort, 2009). A replication of this study in India showed no significant correlation between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction or commitment among primary-level teachers (Wessel et al., 2008).

The prevailing belief is that satisfied employees are less likely to abandon their organizations (Hameed et al., 2018). A study involving Malaysian scholars indicated positive effects on career performance stemming from organizational support and person-to-job fit (Abu Said et al., 2015). A comprehensive literature review of 54 studies identified organizational factors such as environment, culture, and performance evaluation as significant influencers of teacher satisfaction and motivation (Viseu et al., 2016). Conversely, a study involving Chinese university teachers found that enhancing perceived organizational support contributed to increased job satisfaction among university educators (Pan et al., 2015). Transformative leadership styles have been identified as a factor impacting the job satisfaction of academic personnel in public tertiary institutions (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016; Bibi et al., 2018). Enhancing job satisfaction through improved working conditions has the potential to elevate organizational engagement among instructors (Malik et al., 2010). Empirical evidence drawn from private universities in Bangladesh asserts that working conditions significantly influence job satisfaction in academia (Masum et al., 2015). Pertaining to teacher job stressors, considerations should include the absence of office facilities, excessive bureaucratic paperwork (Sinniah et al., 2022), and limited opportunities for professional career development (Shah G. Syed et al., 2012). The value of human relationships in bolstering staff empowerment and

commitment cannot be overstated Bendermacher et al. (2019), thereby fostering teaching and learning communities within higher education institutions.

Within the personal context of teachers, a study involving 424 academic and administrative employees across 25 public and private universities in the Bikaner district of Rajasthan, India, has concluded that the balance between personal and professional life significantly impacts job satisfaction (Hameed et al., 2018). These findings align with those of Mudrak et al. (2018) in the case of Czech Republic teachers, emphasizing the need for policies promoting academic leadership quality and work-family equilibrium for their positive effects. An exploratory factor analysis by Hameed et al. (2018) underscores the necessity of enhancing faculty motivation in both public and private universities, favoring factors such as growth opportunities, interpersonal relationships, participative management, job security, monetary benefits, and research-based activities. Notably, Oshagbemi (1997) investigates the correlation between university instructor satisfaction and salary in the United Kingdom, revealing that over 50% of respondents were dissatisfied with their compensation. In contrast, Tentama et al. (2021) have reported that instructors at the Public Assam University in India are gratified with their "pay and allowance."

2.6.4. The Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Socio-Demographic Variables

The relationship between job satisfaction and socio-demographic variables has been explored by numerous studies. These variables can be categorized into three main groups: Several studies have examined the association between job satisfaction and gender. For example, Abbas and Parvin (2008) conducted a cross-cultural examination of school teachers' satisfaction in Iran and India concerning their value orientation and school organizational climate. Their research revealed that there was no visible disparity between male and female teachers. Similarly, Spector (1985) probed the link between gender and overall satisfaction of full-time business faculty within the Wisconsin Technical College System using the Job Satisfaction Survey. They also failed to establish a connection between gender and overall satisfaction, as corroborated by (Dey et al., 2016).

Moreover, many studies have examined the influence of age on job satisfaction. For example, Yu et al. (2002) conducted an extensive investigation into the factors affecting teacher satisfaction. They observed that the age level of teachers did not impact their satisfaction level. In contrast, some studies have posited that age is indeed a pivotal factor in shaping satisfaction. For instance, Warr's (1992) review of multiple studies on the relationship between age and job satisfaction suggested that older workers tend to be more satisfied than younger ones. However, more recent research has shown that this relationship is not so simple and is influenced by various factors, such as personality traits, occupational level, national culture, and type of job satisfaction. For example, Topino et al. (2021) found that conscientiousness moderated the effect of age on job satisfaction, such that it was positive for younger and average-age workers and less significant for older workers¹. Dorien et al. (2011) conducted a meta-analysis of 244 studies and found that age was positively related to job satisfaction, but this relationship was moderated by several factors, such as type of job satisfaction, occupational level, and national culture. Clark et al. (1996) examined the relationship between age and job satisfaction in a sample of British workers and found a U-shaped pattern, such that job satisfaction was lowest for workers in their 30s and 40s and highest for workers in their 20s and 50s. These findings indicate that age is not a simple predictor of job satisfaction and that other variables need to be considered when studying this topic.

Additionally, some studies have examined the effect of teaching experience or subject of teaching on job satisfaction. For example, (Hoque et al., 2023; Kadtong et al., 2017) reported that the experience of teachers and their subjects of specialization did not influence their satisfaction level. On the other hand, Abbas and Parvin (2008) found that none of the socio-demographic variables held a substantial influence over the satisfaction of educators in both countries. In conclusion, the relationship between job satisfaction and socio-demographic variables is complex and nuanced, and requires further research to obtain a comprehensive understanding of these dynamics.

2.7. Organizational Commitment

2.7.1. Concepts and Overview of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is a widely studied psychological construct in organizational studies for the last three or four decades. However, it does not have a universal definition and has

been conceptualized and measured in various ways. A common theme among these approaches is that organizational commitment refers to the bond or linkage between an individual and the organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Organizational commitment reflects the attitude of an individual towards the organization and its goals, values, and mission (Hussain et al., 2014; Qureshi et al., 2019; Romeo et al., 2020). It also implies the psychological liking and devotion of an individual to the organization (Hussain et al., 2014) and the feeling of responsibility towards its success (Qureshi et al., 2019). Organizational commitment can be divided into three main components: identification, involvement, and loyalty (Meyer & Allen., 1997). Identification refers to the strong belief and acceptance of the organization's goals and values. Involvement refers to the willingness to exert considerable effort for the benefit of the organization. Loyalty refers to the strong desire to remain with the organization. An instructor's sense of duty to stay in the organization is an example of organizational commitment. Organizational commitment is beneficial for both employees and organizations, as it enhances their performance, satisfaction, and retention (Kumari, 2011; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Organizational commitment is also a socio-psychological phenomenon that reflects the attraction and attachment of an individual to the work and the organization, as well as to their group or profession.

In their review of the literature on organizational commitment, many scholars identified three general themes in the definition of commitment (Bakhshi, 2011). These themes are: affective commitment, which is the emotional attachment to the organization; continuance commitment, which is the perceived cost of leaving the organization; and normative commitment, which is the obligation to remain in the organization. They defined commitment as a psychological state or mindset that increases the likelihood of an employee's membership in an organization. Moreover, they argued that the common thread among the three themes is that commitment is a psychological state that (1) characterizes the instructor's relationship with the organization and (2) influences the decision to stay or leave the organization. According to these themes, instructors can have different levels of each form of commitment.

Affective commitment is the emotional involvement and attachment of an employee to a specific organization. It reflects the long-term feelings of workers about their work and their alignment with the goals of the organization (Qureshi et al., 2019). Employees with high affective commitment stay with their organization because they want to stay in their

organizations (Khan et al., 2021). Continuance commitment is the perceived cost of leaving the organization. It means that employees who face higher costs of quitting are less loyal and more likely to leave their organization (Khan et al., 2021). One of the perceived costs is the loss of desirable benefits, such as high compensation or career opportunities. Employees who have a strong position in their organization do not want to risk losing these benefits, so they do not easily quit their organization. On the other hand, employees who have few alternative job options with better packages remain with their current organization because they have to. Normative commitment is the obligation to stay in a specific organization (Khan et al., 2021). Employees show this type of commitment to their organization because they feel they should, for moral or religious reasons, not because they want or need to (Khan et al., 2021). Moreover, Khan et al. (2021) and Meyer et al. (2002) found that committed employees are more likely to stay with the organization and work towards its purpose, objectives, and goals. In general, it can be said that employees with strong affective commitment stay with the organization because they want to; those with high continuance commitment stay because they need to; and those with high normative commitment stay because they ought to. Khan et al. (2021) argue that by considering all three forms of commitment together, one can gain a deeper understanding of the employee-organization relationship.

The literature provides ample evidence that organizational commitment has been the focus of various job practices, such as employee turnover, individual performance, and working conditions (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). Employees are more likely to stay in their organizations if they show loyalty to them and are expected to give their best and work hard for their success and prosperity. It is known that employees with high organizational commitment perform much better than those with low organizational commitment (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006). However, few researchers have studied organizational commitment among university teaching faculty. The relationship between organizational job satisfaction and organizational commitment of university teaching staff has been rarely explored by research scholars. Therefore, it is desirable to conduct a study that examines the perceived impact of organizational job satisfaction on the faculty of a university. Thus, it is predicted that organizational job satisfaction may play a significant role in influencing university employees' organizational commitment.

Research on employee engagement Brad Shuck et al. (2011) generalizes and concludes that high employee commitment is generated by the harmony of the organizational atmosphere

and personal factors. Most studies show that commitment is directly related to job satisfaction. However, it is noteworthy that only 9 percent of workers satisfied with their jobs are committed to the organization's objectives, while all people with high commitment are also highly satisfied with their jobs (Brad Shuck et al., 2011). Uncommitted workers discourage any self-expression. In sum, it would be a mistake to explain the presence or absence of organizational commitment only through the employees' characteristics and internal motivation. The highest influences on employees' commitment are meaningfulness of work, psychological security, work execution opportunities, and work environment, i.e., areas that are beyond the control of the employees themselves.

2.7.2. Organizational Commitment in Higher Education

The academic staff members of higher education perform a variety of essential tasks and are the main components of the higher education system. Their commitment and satisfaction with their organization or institution influence the success of universities (Tadesse, 2019). Organizational commitment is a key social factor that affects organizational effectiveness. Azlan et al. (2017) argued that highly committed academic staff members are necessary for achieving the success of universities. Administrators should consider the commitment of academic workers to their universities when pursuing fair compensation. Universities often attempt to increase the commitment of their academic staff members by encouraging them to be diligent, resourceful, and aligned with institutional objectives. Several factors indicate that institutions should maintain quality and reduce the turnover intentions of instructors (Timalsina et al., 2018). Moreover, staff members' commitment to their organizations, their teaching and research programs, and their supportive interactions with their colleagues positively influence the success of the academic institution (Timalsina et al., 2018). Therefore, universities aspire to retain committed staff members in their organizations internationally. Highly committed teachers have a beneficial impact on an organization; they tend to stay associated with the institute and have less desire for turnover. On the contrary, a lower level of engagement of instructors may increase withdrawal behaviors, less commitment, less involvement in group work, and other negative outcomes, thus increasing the costs of hiring new instructors (Armstrong, 2009). Similarly, a low level of organizational commitment by teachers reduces the quality and competitiveness of higher education institutions globally. Correspondingly, multiple research studies have shown that the organizational trust of workers decreases as organizational commitment decreases (Aydin et al.,

2011). Universities should therefore adopt proactive policies and strategies for staff recruitment and retention, which are likely to enhance the well-being and effective performance of the institution, to succeed in this increasingly unpredictable environment.

2.7.3. The Relationship between Organizational Commitment and Socio-demographic Variables

Demographic characteristics are widely studied determinants of organizational commitment. Research has consistently demonstrated significant associations between socio-demographic factors, such as age, gender, marital status, educational status, and work experience, and organizational commitment (Nazir Haider Shah, 2020). For instance, studies have found a significant connection between length of employment and organizational commitment (De los Santos & Norland, 1994). However, Agu (2016) reported that educational status and age do not serve as meaningful predictors of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Furthermore, marital status and family obligations, also known as kinship responsibilities, are also linked to organizational commitment (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999). In the context of marriage and increased family responsibilities, researchers suggest that instructors with greater family commitments, such as having more children, may show higher levels of affective and continuance commitment (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999). However, according to the work-family conflict literature by Esther et al. (2019), academics with heightened family obligations may choose family over work when facing conflicts, thereby establishing a negative relationship between family kinship responsibilities and commitment. Gender is another prominent socio-demographic variable in commitment research, but it has yielded conflicting outcomes in studies on organizational commitment. Some researchers argue that men show higher levels of organizational commitment than women, while others find no gender disparity in their organizational commitment investigations (Powell et al., 2004).

Additionally, other studies revealed that women show greater commitment to consistency compared to men, while Ngo and Tsang (1998) found no substantial relationship between gender and commitment. Furthermore, meta-analytic studies conducted by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) showed that women display higher commitment to the organization than men. Conversely, educational status has an inverse relationship with organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tansky & Cohen, 2001). Highly educated individuals expect more from the organization

than it can offer, reducing their affective involvement (Tansky & Cohen, 2001). Additionally, organizations may face challenges in providing adequate incentives for highly educated employees. Previous research showed a direct association between education and continuance commitment. However, individuals with lower educational levels have fewer transferable skills for alternative organizational contexts, which negatively affects their continuance commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Kacmar et al. (1999) investigated socio-demographic factors such as age, gender, and marital status as antecedents to instructors' organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and life satisfaction. These investigations have consistently revealed that organizational commitment positively correlates with age, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction, while negatively correlating with turnover intentions.

2.7.4. The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Turnover Intention

Emotional intelligence (EI) is the ability to understand and manage one's own emotions and the emotions of others. Turnover intention (TI) is the degree to which an employee plans to leave his or her current job or organization. The theory of EI posits that instructors' EI is crucial for their adaptation to the environment and their psychological wellbeing and personal growth, regardless of their cognitive abilities and/or academic performance (Mayer et al., 2016). However, the relationship between EI and TI in the context of higher education instructors is not very clear or consistent. Although EI has been widely researched, few studies have examined its relationship with the TI of instructors in academic institutions (Carmeli, 2003). Moreover, the existing studies have reported inconsistent results. Some studies have found that EI has a negative effect on TI, meaning that instructors with higher EI are more likely to stay in their jobs and institutions Gara Bach Ouerdian et al. (2021), while other studies have found that EI has a positive effect on TI, meaning that instructors with higher EI are more likely to leave their jobs (Waheed Akhtar et al., 2017). There are also some studies that have found no significant relationship between EI and TI (Kaur & Sharma, 2019). One possible explanation for these mixed findings is that there are other factors that mediate or moderate the relationship between EI and TI, such as job satisfaction, proactive personality, interpersonal conflict, leader-member exchange, organizational culture, organizational commitment, and organizational justice (Mohammad et al., 2014). These factors can influence how EI affects TI depending on their level

and quality. This study aims to fill the gap in the literature by empirically investigating how the EI of academic staff affects their TI in higher educational institutions. Using the model of EI, Brewster (2020) explores how EI influences university staff TI and how this link, in turn, impacts the actual turnover of instructors in higher education institutions. The study hypothesizes that instructors with high EI are more likely to have a positive outlook on their work environment, which may help to lower the high turnover rates. That is, they will be more capable of managing and controlling their emotions, and they will be less inclined to quit their jobs and organizations. According to Carmeli (2003), EI is negatively associated with TI.

2.8. The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Mediating Factors

2.8.1. The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Effective Communication

EI is the ability to perceive, understand, use and manage emotions in oneself and others (Mayer & Salovey, 2008). Effective communication is the process of exchanging information, ideas, feelings and feedback in a clear, respectful and constructive way. Effective communication plays a pivotal role in the success of higher education institutions, shaping interactions among faculty members, administrators, and students (Naib Singh, 2022). Emotional intelligence, a construct rooted in the ability to recognize, understand, manage, and utilize emotions effectively, has garnered attention as a key factor in enhancing communication within the higher education context (Brackett et al., 2011). This literature review delves into the existing body of research and theories surrounding the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective communication in higher education settings.

Mayer and Salovey's model of emotional intelligence outlines the core components of emotional intelligence, including the ability to perceive, understand, manage, and use emotions effectively (Salovey & Mayer, 2008). This model is foundational to understanding the link between emotional intelligence and effective communication. Effective communication often necessitates the recognition and management of one's own emotions as well as the comprehension and response to the emotions of others (Mayer et al., 2000). In higher education settings, where diverse emotions and expectations coalesce, the significance of this model becomes pronounced. Jorfi et al. (2011) conducted a study that illuminates the connection

between emotional intelligence and effective communication. Their research suggests a positive correlation between the emotional intelligence of staff and the quality and transparency of communication within a professional context. This finding underscores the potential benefits of fostering emotional intelligence skills among faculty and staff in higher education. Similarly, Moon and Hur (2011) have highlighted the value of emotional intelligence in the workplace, drawing attention to the reduced emotional fatigue experienced by individuals with high emotional intelligence. In the context of higher education, where educators often engage in emotionally charged interactions with students, colleagues, and administrators, the ability to manage emotions effectively can contribute significantly to maintaining a positive and productive communication environment.

In the higher education setting, faculty and staff often engage in emotional labor as they manage their emotions to communicate effectively (Teixeira et al., 2022). This aspect of emotional intelligence is critical when dealing with the diverse needs and expectations of students and colleagues. Faculty members must navigate situations requiring empathy, conflict resolution, and motivation while balancing their own emotional responses (Zhang & Zhu, 2008). Emotional intelligence aids educators in maintaining a harmonious learning environment and can contribute to a more effective and responsive communication approach (Zhang & Zhu, 2008). Interpersonal communication skills are at the heart of effective communication in higher education (Sá et al., 2021). Emotional intelligence, with its emphasis on understanding and managing emotions, enhances these skills (Bechter et al., 2023). Educators and administrators need to convey information clearly, provide support to students, and maintain positive relationships with colleagues (Moradi et al., 2018). The ability to recognize and respond to the emotional states of others, such as students in distress or colleagues facing challenges, can greatly influence the quality of communication and the overall learning experience in higher education (Gilar-Corbí et al., 2018).

2.8.2. The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Motivation

The relationship between emotional intelligence and job motivation in higher education instructors and in higher education settings in general is a topic that has been explored by various researchers. Emotional intelligence (EI) is the ability to perceive, understand, regulate, and express emotions in oneself and others. Job motivation is the degree to which an individual is

committed, engaged, and satisfied with their work. Many researchers have explored the positive relationship between instructors' EI and their work motivations, following the works of (Latif et al., 2017). They have also highlighted the role of EI in both the positive and negative aspects of working life, as motivation is a key factor in managing emotions. Some studies have found that EI has a positive impact on job motivation, as it helps instructors to cope with stress, manage conflicts, communicate effectively, and foster positive relationships with students, colleagues, and administrators (Halimi et al., 2020; Khassawneh et al., 2022). However, other studies have suggested that the relationship between EI and job motivation is not straightforward, and may depend on various factors, such as the type of EI measure used, the level of education, the cultural context, and the individual differences among instructors (Halimi et al., 2020; Khassawneh et al., 2022). For example, some researchers have argued that EI may not be equally relevant for all academic disciplines, and that some aspects of EI may be more important than others for different teaching domains (Khassawneh et al., 2022). Additionally, some studies have indicated that EI may have a moderating or mediating role in the relationship between other variables (such as personality traits, organizational climate, or leadership style) and job motivation (Halimi et al., 2020; Khassawneh et al., 2022). Therefore, the literature review suggested that emotionally intelligent employees are more capable of identifying, controlling, and using emotions to enhance their own and others' performance than those with lower EI levels. Consequently, employees with higher EI were able to view their tasks positively and increase their motivation. However, the relationship between EI and job motivation in higher education instructors and in higher education settings in general is a complex and dynamic one, which requires further investigation and exploration. It is likely that EI can enhance job motivation in many ways, but it may also interact with other factors that influence instructors' attitudes and behaviors at work.

2.8.3. The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction

The relationship between workers' emotional intelligence and job satisfaction has been explored by previous research findings. Several studies have reported a weak to moderate correlation between these two variables (Carmeli, 2003; Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008). Wong and Law (2002) found a positive association between emotional intelligence and the job satisfaction of both employees and their supervisors. Similarly, Stocks and April (2012) showed

that higher levels of emotional intelligence were linked to greater subjective well-being among leaders. Platsidou (2010) investigated the same relationship among special education teachers and found a positive result. Anari (2012) also revealed a positive and significant association between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among English language teachers. Akhyerkye Tabigat (2022) examined the role of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among 107 teachers and found a significant positive relationship. Kafetsios and Zampetakis (2008) identified emotional intelligence as an important personality-level predictor in teachers. Nadaf (2017) reported a positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. Çekmecelioğlu et al. (2012) also found a significant positive correlation between emotional intelligence and all dimensions of job satisfaction among physical education teachers in Iran. Güleriyüz et al. (2008) found that emotional intelligence was positively and significantly related to both job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Honingh and Oort (2009) suggested that staff with higher emotional intelligence were more committed to their jobs and organisations, while those with lower emotional intelligence were less satisfied with their jobs and had lower organisational commitment. Jordan and Troth (2011) found that individuals' ability to regulate their own and others' emotions was directly associated with their job satisfaction and turnover intentions, which was mediated by the quality of their relationships with others. Based on these empirical findings and theoretical suggestions, Herzberg's two-factor theory and the social exchange theory may be useful for understanding the job satisfaction level of instructors in higher educational institutions.

In this chapter, we will review the existing studies on the relationship between EI and JS in the context of higher education, and identify the main findings, gaps and implications for future research. A number of empirical studies have examined the relationship between EI and JS in higher education settings. Many studies have found a positive and significant correlation between EI and JS among higher education instructors or staff. For example, Abebe and Singh (2023) found that employees' EI was positively and significantly related to their JS and performance in public universities in Ethiopia. Kafetsios and Zampetakis (2008) found that EI was an important personality-level predictor of JS in teachers. Anari (2012); Çekmecelioğlu et al. (2012) and Shukla et al. (2018) also reported similar results in different contexts and samples. However, some studies have reported mixed or null results regarding the relationship between EI and JS in higher education settings. For example, Cobb-clark et al. (2019) found that EI had no

effect on the level of JS among Australian academics. Choi Sang et al. (2016) found that EI had a significant positive relationship with JS among primary school teachers, but not among secondary school teachers. These inconsistent findings may be attributed to several factors, such as the different conceptualizations and measurements of EI and JS, the different samples and contexts of the studies, the different control variables and moderators of the relationship, and the different statistical methods and analyses used. Therefore, more research is needed to clarify and compare the effects of these factors on the relationship between EI and JS in higher education settings.

2.8.4. The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Commitment

Previous research has examined the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and organizational commitment (OC) among academic staff in various sectors and regions, and found a significant and positive association between these variables (Alsughayir, 2021; Hameli & Ordun, 2022; Khalili, 2011; Ngirande, 2021). These studies suggest that individuals with high emotional intelligence tend to demonstrate greater levels of commitment, collaboration, and inspiration, which are crucial for organizational effectiveness (Wang, 2022). One reason for this positive relationship is that EI helps academic staff cope with the challenges and demands of their work environment, such as teaching, research, administration, and service. Building upon these empirical findings and theoretical frameworks, the social exchange theory can provide valuable insights into the organizational commitment of instructors in higher education institutions. Therefore, this study hypothesizes that instructors' OC is directly influenced by their EI.

However, the relationship between EI and turnover intention (TI) is not only direct but also mediated by other variables, such as OC, which refers to the degree of identification and attachment that employees have with their organizations (Gara Bach Ouerdian et al., 2021). Previous studies have shown that EI is negatively related to TI, as emotionally intelligent employees tend to experience more positive work outcomes, such as job satisfaction (JS), performance, and well-being (Joseph & Newman, 2010). Moreover, EI is positively related to OC, particularly affective commitment (AC), as emotionally intelligent employees tend to hold more positive attitudes and feelings toward their organizations (Carmeli, 2003; Wong & Law,

2002). Conversely, OC is negatively related to TI, as committed employees are less likely to quit their jobs (Meyer et al., 2002). Therefore, OC may act as a mediator that explains how EI influences TI. Several studies have tested these serial mediation models using different samples and methods in the context of higher education instructors and higher education settings in general. For example, Riaz et al. (2017) found that EI had a negative effect on TI, and OC partially mediated this effect among 300 faculty members from 10 public universities in Saudi Arabia. Another study by Halimi et al. (2020) found that EI had a negative impact on TI, and OC and JS sequentially mediated this impact among 250 academic staff from five public universities in Kuwait. A third study by Zeidan (2020) found that EI had a negative influence on TI, and OC and OCB serially mediated this influence among 287 faculty members from four public universities in Oman. These studies provide empirical evidence for the serial mediation of OC in the relationship between EI and TI in the context of higher education instructors and higher education settings in general.

2.9. The Relationship between Mediating Variables

2.9.1. The Relationship between Effective Communication and Organizational Commitment

Effective communication can enhance instructors' confidence, competence, and commitment. For example, Buenviaje et al. (2016) found that effective communication skill positively and significantly affected organizational commitment among faculty members in Egyptian public universities. Effective communication can also affect instructors' turnover intention, which is their intention to leave their current job or organization for another one. Turnover intention can harm both individuals and organizations, by reducing productivity, lowering morale, increasing costs, losing human capital, disrupting services, and more. Therefore, it is important to understand and reduce the factors that influence turnover intention. One of these factors is effective communication. Several studies have found that effective communication reduced turnover intention, meaning that the more effective the instructors communicated, the less likely they left their jobs or organizations.

However, they also found that this relationship was mediated by organizational commitment, meaning that communication had a stronger negative effect on turnover intention

when commitment was higher. In other words, effective communication can reduce turnover intention by increasing organizational commitment. For example, Awang et al. (2015) found that organizational commitment negatively and significantly affected turnover intention among academic staff in universities, and that this effect was stronger for those who had higher levels of effective communication. Previous research has shown that committed instructors tend to communicate more openly and persuasively, expressing their concerns and arguments with confidence and skill (Gorden & Infante, 1991). Moreover, Tucker (2009) argued that this communication and commitment were influenced by their knowledge and understanding of the strategic issues facing their institutions. Effective communication also fosters a sense of participation and belonging among instructors and other staff, as they align their actions and values with the organizational goals and rules. This leads to increased satisfaction and performance, which contribute to the organizational success.

2.9.2. The Relationship between Job Motivation and Organizational Commitment

Previous studies have shown that there is a positive relationship between job motivation and organizational commitment in higher education instructors and settings. For instance, Tentama & Pranungsari (2016) found that motivated staffs enjoy their work intrinsically, and this enjoyment can be seen in their behavior. They also found that motivated individuals strive to accomplish their tasks and meet the expectations of the organization, which enhances their organizational commitment. Similarly, Hanaysha and Majid (2018) found that employee motivation has a significant positive effect on employee productivity and organizational commitment, and that organizational commitment also has a significant positive effect on employee productivity. These results suggest that employee motivation can improve the performance and competitiveness of higher education institutions by increasing the employees' commitment to their organization. However, some studies also found that there are some challenges and barriers that may affect the relationship between job motivation and organizational commitment in higher education instructors and settings. For example, Ngirande (2021) found that occupational stress and uncertainty have a negative, significant relationship with organizational commitment, and that job satisfaction moderates the relationship between uncertainty and organizational commitment, but not between occupational stress and

organizational commitment. These results imply that occupational stress and uncertainty can reduce the employees' motivation and commitment to their organization, and that job satisfaction can buffer the negative effects of uncertainty on organizational commitment. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a complex and dynamic relationship between job motivation and organizational commitment in higher education instructors and settings, which can be influenced by various factors and have different outcomes for the employees and the organization.

2.9.3. The Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

The relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment among higher education faculty members has been extensively studied, with varying outcomes in prior research. A number of studies have found a significant positive correlation between these two variables and identified various factors that influence them. For instance, Miao et al. (2018) highlighted the role of salary, work-life balance, and support from colleagues and administrators in enhancing job satisfaction. Ramalho Luz et al. (2018) observed no significant association between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Moreover, some studies have suggested that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are not equivalent constructs, but rather reflect different aspects of employees' attitudes toward their work. Job satisfaction primarily captures immediate emotional responses to one's job, while commitment to the organization develops gradually as individuals acquire a deeper understanding of the organization's values, prospects, and their own future within it (Mannheim & Baruch, 1997). Therefore, job satisfaction is regarded as a contributing factor to organizational commitment, rather than a direct outcome of it. Furthermore, external factors, such as economic challenges and workload, can impact the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment over time. Additionally, some studies have revealed a direct impact of job satisfaction and organizational commitment on employees' turnover intentions. For example, Lambert and Hogan (2009) conducted a study on prison officials and found that lower levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment were associated with higher turnover intentions (Garland et al., 2009). These studies collectively indicate that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are complex and dynamic phenomena that are influenced by various internal and external factors in different settings.

2.9.4. The Relationship between Effective Communication and Turnover Intention

Effective communication is vital for conveying feelings, aspirations, and objectives to academic staff members. It also facilitates the sharing of information, ideas, opinions, and suggestions among employees, enhancing participation and creating a sense of unity within the organization (Manafzadeh et al., 2018). However, poor communication can reduce employee commitment, trust, morale, and motivation (Vakola & Bouradas, 2005). Moreover, effective communication enhances organizational performance by facilitating positive employee-employer interactions and improving job performance and productivity (Clampitt & Downs, 1993). On the other hand, ineffective communication can cause employee stress, increase turnover intentions, absenteeism, and burnout, and limit feedback (Stanikzai, 2017). Therefore, effective communication is essential for the successful functioning of organizations because it influences employee well-being and loyalty. Previous research has shown that effective communication can reduce turnover intention by increasing job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the academic sector (Daly et al., 2017). For example, Li et al. (2022) found that job satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between burnout and turnover intention among university faculty members in China. Additionally, they discovered that a proactive personality, which is the tendency to take initiative and act on opportunities, moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention, such that the inverse relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention was stronger for individuals with high proactive personality than for those with low proactive personality. Further evidence has suggested that effective communication may affect turnover intention via various mediators and moderators, such as organizational citizenship behavior, organizational identification, organizational commitment, and psychological empowerment (Daly et al., 2017). Hence, the present study proposes that effective communication is negatively associated with turnover intention. Effective communication may foster employee engagement, satisfaction, productivity, citizenship, identification, and commitment (Daly et al., 2017). In contrast, ineffective communication may elevate employee turnover intention due to burnout (Li et al., 2022).

2.9.5. The Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

Job satisfaction plays a pivotal role in shaping employee turnover intentions. As emphasized by Lee et al. (2017), the multifaceted causes influencing job satisfaction are intricately interconnected. The most frequently cited factors revolve around the work environment and interpersonal relationships. Shapira-Lishchinsky (2012) defines job satisfaction, particularly among lecturers and other employees, as the emotional attitudes and affective attachment resulting from an assessment of whether one's job aligns with the expected value. This alignment can encompass various aspects, such as the interpersonal environment, leadership style, or compensation.

Job satisfaction stands as a significant predictor of an individual's inclination to remain in or depart from their current employment, a notion supported by Rajkonwar and Rastogi (2018), who assert that it comprises diverse determinants influencing an employee's decision to stay or leave. These determinants encompass autonomy, denoting the degree of self-governance at work, and the level of freedom employees need to fulfill their assigned roles and responsibilities. Generally, autonomy positively influences job satisfaction, while its absence is linked to elevated turnover intentions, job nature, and supervision quality.

In essence, employee satisfaction holds paramount importance within every organization, with scholars like Sider (2014) emphasizing that higher job satisfaction corresponds to enhanced organizational commitment and reduced turnover rates, a sentiment supported by (De Simone et al., 2018; Wan Ahmad & Abdurahman, 2015). Multiple scholars concur on the positive association between job satisfaction and employee productivity, as indicated by De Simone et al. (2018), and the negative link between job satisfaction and employee turnover, evident in studies by (Burgueño et al., 2022; Zefeiti & Mohamad, 2017). Hence, fostering job satisfaction within an organization is bound to bolster employee retention, as suggested by (Marimuthu et al., 2009). Conversely, low levels of job satisfaction result in absenteeism, high turnover rates, and employee burnout, a consensus reached by (Mehrad & Fallahi, 2014). Empirical evidence substantiates the claim that heightened employee satisfaction leads to superior customer ratings, reduced turnover, and increased profitability.

2.9.6. The Relationship between Job Motivation and Turnover Intention

Research investigating the turnover and intent to leave among lecturers has uncovered various contributing factors. According to Kelly et al. (2019), intrinsic and extrinsic rewards represent the most extensively studied elements influencing turnover intention. Intrinsic motivation, in this context, entails engaging in activities for their inherent personal value, while extrinsic motivation pertains to actions driven by external rewards or the avoidance of punishment. One of the primary catalysts for lecturers' intent to leave or their actual departure is motivation, a construct more closely aligned with intrinsic rewards (Awang et al., 2015). Additionally, the lecturer's working environment exerts a direct impact on turnover and intent to leave. This environment can be influenced by class size, teaching workloads, and the availability of teaching resources (Guzeller & Celiker, 2020; Xia et al., 2022). Furthermore, the age of the lecturer is a pivotal factor in intent to leave, with younger faculty members, experiencing lower job satisfaction, displaying a greater likelihood of leaving or harboring such intentions (Obiechina, 2019; Wasti, 2003).

2.9.7. The Relationship between Organizational Commitment and Turnover Intention

Organizational commitment and turnover intention are two important variables that affect the performance, satisfaction, and retention of higher education instructors. Organizational commitment reflects the strength of relationships between instructors and their respective organizations, while turnover intention indicates the likelihood of leaving their jobs voluntarily (Guzeller & Celiker, 2020; Obiechina, 2019). Previous research has shown that these two variables are negatively related, meaning that higher commitment leads to lower turnover intention (Meyer et al., 2002; Ugboro, 2006). However, this relationship may be influenced by other factors, such as the psychological contract gap, which is the discrepancy between the expected and the actual outcomes of the employment relationship Xia et al. (2022), or the constituent attachment, which is the degree of emotional connection that instructors have with their colleagues or supervisors (Obiechina, 2019). Moreover, most of the studies on this topic have been conducted in North America, and there is a need for more research in other cultural contexts, such as the United Arab Emirates (Wasti, 2003; Xia et al., 2022). Therefore, this study

aims to explore and understand the complex and dynamic relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention among higher education instructors in different settings.

2.9.8. Summary and Implications of the Reviewed Literature

This section of the research reviewed the definitions, conceptualizations, and empirical studies of the concepts and variables related to turnover intention in higher education institutions across the world and in Ethiopia. Turnover intention among instructors in various organizations was a problem that attracted many researchers, including the current investigator of this research. The causes of turnover intention were numerous and varied, but this research focused on the influences of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on instructors' intention to leave their organizations. To examine the prediction and relationship of these variables with turnover intention, the researcher built a path model based on the previous theoretical and empirical literature. The conceptual model proposed that emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment have direct or indirect relationships with turnover intention. Moreover, emotional intelligence is also associated with effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, according to the theory of emotional-social intelligence (Mayer et al., 2012). Likewise, organizational commitment have a direct link with turnover intention. The gaps in the previous studies are that they do not include or treat these variables in the same way as this research. Most of them either focused on the level of turnover or the intention to leave, or they used correlational methods to examine the relationships between each dimension of these variables. Even when path models were used, only some of them are considered. However, this research aimed to investigate the relative effects of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on instructors' turnover intention in higher education institutions.

2.10. Theoretical Frameworks

We reviewed existing literature on business management, organizational research, and psychology-employee turnover to identify theoretical frameworks that explain instructors' turnover rates (Healy et al., 2009). Iverson and Roy (1994) propose three perspectives that underlie various turnover models: economic, psychological, and sociological. In this study, we define "theory" as a conceptual system that organizes the concepts, mechanisms, and processes

involved in a phenomenon, such as the factors influencing instructors' turnover intentions and actions. Instructors in educational institutions may face stressors originating from psychological, social, and environmental sources, which can amplify their desire to leave their organizations. Consequently, this section explores four theories: one pertaining to individuals' actions based on their beliefs and intentions, one focusing on the utilization of emotions and social skills, one centered on the exchange of resources and benefits, and one concerning motivation and satisfaction influenced by various factors. These theories encompass the theory of reasoned action/planned behavior, the emotional-social intelligence theory, the social exchange theory, and Herzberg's two-factor theory.

2.10.1. A Theory of Reasoned Action or Planned Behavior

Instructors' turnover intentions, or their decisions to stay or leave their jobs in higher education institutions, affect the quality and continuity of education. Thus, it is essential to understand the factors that influence these intentions and how they can be changed or enhanced. The theory of reasoned action and planned behavior, proposed by Mrtian Fishbein & Ajzen (1975) and Ajzen (1991), is one of the theoretical frameworks that can help to explain and predict instructors' turnover intentions and behaviors. This theory assumes that human behavior is rational and planned, and that it is determined by the intention to perform the behavior. The intention, in turn, is influenced by three main components: the attitude towards the behavior, the subjective norm, and the perceived behavioral control. The attitude towards the behavior is the individual's evaluation of the pros and cons of performing the behavior, based on their beliefs about the outcomes of the behavior. For instance, an instructor may have a positive attitude towards staying in their job if they believe that it will provide them with satisfaction, recognition, and security. The subjective norm is the individual's perception of the social pressure from significant others, such as peers, the media, or family, regarding whether or not they should perform the behavior, based on their normative beliefs about the expectations of these others. For instance, an instructor may feel a strong subjective norm to leave their job if they think that their colleagues, friends, or family want them to do so or would approve of their decision. The perceived behavioral control is the individual's perception of their ability to perform the behavior, based on their control beliefs about the availability, accessibility, or affordability of the resources or opportunities to perform the behavior. For instance, an instructor may have a high

perceived behavioral control to stay in their job if they believe that they have the skills, knowledge, and support to do their work effectively and efficiently. The theory of reasoned action and planned behavior can be applied to understand how instructors' turnover intentions and behaviors are related to their obligations, compensation fairness, job satisfaction, and other factors. Several empirical studies have used this theory to examine the effects of these factors on the beliefs, attitudes, norms, and control factors that affect instructors' decisions to stay or leave their jobs. For example, Munir and Rahman (2016) found that instructors' turnover intentions were negatively influenced by their job satisfaction and positively influenced by their subjective norm and perceived behavioral control. They also found that job satisfaction was positively influenced by the obligations of instructors and the fairness of compensation. The theory of reasoned action and planned behavior has some limitations and criticisms, such as the assumption of rationality and planning, the reliance on self-reported measures, the lack of specification of the interactions and influences of the model components, and the difficulty of measuring and operationalizing the behavior of interest. Therefore, it is important to acknowledge these issues and to use the theory with caution and rigor.

2.10.2. Theories of Emotional-Social Intelligence

This section discusses the most significant theories of emotional intelligence that have been developed over the past 100 years. One of these theories is the theory of intelligence proposed by the American psychologist Robert Sternberg in the 1980s. Sternberg expanded the concept of human intelligence beyond the traditional mental tests, which he considered to be unreliable and insufficient to measure the real performance or achievement of people. He observed that some people do well on tests but not in real-life situations, and vice versa. According to Sternberg, intelligence consists of three main parts: analytical intelligence, creative intelligence, and practical intelligence. Analytical intelligence refers to problem-solving skills; creative intelligence involves the ability to handle new situations using past experience and current skills; and practical intelligence means the ability to adapt to new situations and environments (Robert Sternberg, 1985).

Another influential theory is the theory of multiple intelligences, which was first introduced by the American psychologist Gardner in 1983. Gardner challenged the idea of intelligence as a single factor that can be measured by mental tests. He argued that there are

different kinds of intelligence, each of which is a component of an independent system in the brain. He suggested that people can excel and outperform in different ways, depending on their type of intelligence. The concept of emotional intelligence emerged from the idea of “social intelligence” by Thorndike (1920) and was later developed by Gardner (1983), who included it in his theory of multiple intelligences. Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as “the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one’s thinking and actions.” People who have developed their emotional intelligence can use their emotions to direct their thoughts and behaviors and to understand their own and others’ feelings accurately. Goleman popularized the concept of emotional intelligence in his book “Emotional Intelligence” (2001), where he presented it as a general social competence that is essential for the success of one’s life. Goleman (2001) also defined emotional intelligence as the ability to recognize our own feelings and those of others, to motivate ourselves, and to handle our emotions well for ourselves and for our relationships. He identified twenty-five elements of emotional intelligence, which he grouped into five clusters: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills (Goleman, 2001).

Bar-On was the first to develop the theory of emotional-social intelligence in the context of personal well-being. He coined and founded the term “Emotional Quotient” (EQ). According to Bar-On, emotional-social intelligence consists of emotional and social abilities, skills, and facilitators that are interrelated and work together. They are essential for how well we perceive ourselves and others, how effectively we express ourselves, and how well we cope with the demands of daily life (Bar-On, 2006). Bar-On (2000) also describes emotional intelligence as a collection of social and emotional competencies that influence our ability to deal with environmental challenges. His theory of emotional-social intelligence was influenced by the work of researchers such as Darwin, Thorndike, Wechsler, Sifneo, and Applebaum, who provided the basis for the definition and concepts of emotional-social intelligence (Bar-On, 2010). Bar-On divided the competencies of emotional intelligence into five domains, which he considers as the ability to be aware of, to understand, and to express oneself; the ability to be aware of, to understand, and to relate to others; the ability to deal with strong emotions and control one’s impulses; the ability to adapt to change and solve personal and social problems; and the ability to generate positive affect and be optimistic (Bar-On, 2006).

The theory of emotional-social intelligence suggests that there is a strong and positive relationship between emotional intelligence and effective communication among employees. It implies that employees who have high emotional intelligence are more likely to be effective communicators; they tend to experience more emotional exhaustion because they analyze the use of emotion in themselves and others more often than employees with low emotional intelligence. This theory is supported by the social exchange theory, which indicates that instructors in higher education institutions have social relationships with their colleagues, department heads, program chairs, students, and academic communities. Staff members contribute to teaching, research, and community service, for which they expect some kind of benefits and promotional opportunities (Blau, 1964). Moreover, studies indicate that emotional intelligence has a strong association with social relationships among people and leads to a more favorable judgment of people by others (Lopes et al., 2003). This is also true for relationships with coworkers, close friends, and family, as well as academic success in the workplace (Abdolrezapour, 2018). Furthermore, Elfenbein et al. (2007) found that emotional intelligence enhances interpersonal interactions during negotiations and increases psychological well-being (Gohm et al., 2005). Therefore, emotional-social intelligence is a combination of emotional and social competencies, skills, and facilitators that determine how well we understand and express ourselves, recognize others, and communicate with them while managing our interactions (Bar-On., 2006).

Mayer et al. (2016) proposed that emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive, use, understand, and manage emotions for the facilitation of thought. They divided this concept into four domains: First, perceiving emotions, which refers to developing the ability to identify one's own and others' feelings accurately; second, using emotions, which refers to the ability to generate, assimilate, and harness one's emotions according to those of others; third, understanding emotions, which means the ability to identify the reasons and sources of the emotions; and fourth, managing emotions, which means the ability to devise and implement effective strategies that help one to regulate emotions and achieve a goal. Moreover, the Mayer and Salovey Model of emotional intelligence introduced new dimensions in its assessment. It explains an array of skills and competencies that provide human resource (HR) personnel, executives, and managers with a comprehensive tool that clearly defines, measures, and develops emotional skills (George, 2000). It was also suggested that several tasks that are related to outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, behavioral

intentions, and performance components are strongly associated with emotional intelligence (Mayer et al., 2012). Furthermore, within the workplace, one's ability to regulate his/her own and others' emotions is directly related to their job satisfaction and turnover intentions, mediated by the quality of their relationship with the other person (Jordan & Troth, 2011).

2.10.3. Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory (SET) is a framework for understanding how individuals participate in social relationships based on reciprocity and resource exchange, aiming to maximize rewards and minimize costs in their interactions, thus forming and sustaining mutually beneficial relationships (Blau, 1964; Thibaut & Kelley, 2017). This theory can be applied to various contexts, such as the workplace, education, and family, to explain how individuals evaluate their current and alternative situations, and how their satisfaction and commitment levels influence their decisions and behaviors. In this research, we focus on how SET can help us comprehend the interplay of emotional intelligence, effective communication, and organizational commitment among instructors in higher education, and how these factors affect their turnover intentions. Emotional intelligence (EI) is the ability to be aware of and understand one's own emotions and the emotions of others, and to use this information to guide one's actions and interactions (Halimi et al., 2020). Effective communication is the skill of conveying and receiving messages clearly and accurately, and of establishing rapport and trust with others (Zhoc et al., 2020). Organizational commitment is the degree of attachment and loyalty that individuals have towards their organizations, and their willingness to contribute to its goals and values (Meyer et al., 2002). Turnover intentions are the psychological state of individuals who are considering leaving their organizations voluntarily (Meyer & Tett, 1993). Previous studies have shown that EI, effective communication, and organizational commitment are positively related to each other, and negatively related to turnover intentions, among employees in various settings (Halimi et al., 2020). Therefore, we can expect that these factors also play a role in enhancing the quality and value of the social exchanges among instructors in higher education, and in reducing their turnover intentions. By applying SET to our research, we can explore how EI and effective communication predict organizational commitment and turnover intentions among instructors in higher education, through reciprocal exchanges, mutual benefit, and the evaluation of rewards and costs within their social relationships. We can also examine how other

variables, such as work environment, job satisfaction, and career opportunities, may moderate or mediate these relationships. This can provide useful implications for retaining and motivating instructors in higher education, as well as improving their performance and well-being.

2.10.4. Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

Herzberg's two-factor theory distinguishes between two types of factors that influence job satisfaction: hygiene and motivator factors. Hygiene factors are extrinsic and include working conditions, compensation, satisfaction, and relationships with supervisors. Motivator factors are intrinsic and include career enhancement, recognition, and the opportunity for training and development. Herzberg's theory argues that internal values are more important than external values for job satisfaction (Ng'ethe et al., 2012). Hygiene factors do not guarantee job satisfaction as they do not provide a sense of growth and development among individuals (Kolarova, 2010). Low job satisfaction will increase the risk of high turnover intention among employees. Herzberg (1966) stated that employees have a higher turnover intention when either one of the two factors is insufficient.

Green (2000) reviewed three theoretical frameworks of job satisfaction: content or needs theories, process theories, and situational models of job satisfaction. Content or needs theories focus on identifying the specific needs or values that are most favourable to job satisfaction, such as food, shelter, air, rest, respect, recognition, and achievement (Herzberg, 1966). These theories emphasize the individual factors that initiate, guide, sustain, or stop the behaviour (Amos et al., 2008). Process theories explain the processes by which behaviour is initiated, directed, sustained, and stopped (Adams, 1965; Vroom, 1964). These theories stress the importance of thought processes in determining worker motivation and satisfaction (Ololube, 2006). They are concerned with the individuals' perceptions of their work environment and also with the way individuals interpret and understand events (Armstrong, 2009). Process theories attempt to identify the relationships among variables such as values, needs, and expectancies, which make up motivation and job satisfaction. Situational models of job satisfaction are the third theoretical framework. They believe that the interaction of factors such as job characteristics, organisational characteristics, and individual characteristics influences job satisfaction (Sweetland & Hoy, 2000). These theories may be more useful in understanding the job satisfaction level of instructors in Ethiopian public universities.

2.10.5. Convergence of Theories on Instructors Turnover Intentions

The convergence or integration of theories in the context of turnover intentions implies that multiple theoretical perspectives are brought together to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon. This approach acknowledges that turnover intentions can be influenced by a multitude of factors and that no single theory can fully explain it. The integration of theories such as the theory of reasoned action or planned behavior, emotional social intelligence theory, social exchange theory, and Herzberg's two-factor theory allows for a more nuanced understanding of turnover intentions. Each of these theories provides unique insights into the different aspects of turnover intentions:

These theories examine the relationships between various determinants and the intention to leave an organization. For instance, the theory of reasoned action or planned behavior suggests that the intention to perform a behavior, such as quitting a job, is influenced by the person's attitude towards the behavior, the subjective norms from significant others, and the perceived behavioral control. This theory also states that the main determinant of behavior is based on the person's intention to perform that behavior, and this intention is determined for different reasons. The reasons can be individuals' attitudes toward the behavior or attitudinal and psychological variables. This may be the result of comparing the benefits and drawbacks of engaging in the behavior or the risks and benefits of choosing to intend to engage in the behavior. Similarly, social norms like social pressure from significant others may be from colleagues or peers, family ties, social media, or the mainstream media. Moreover, this theory suggests a link between psychological or attitudinal variables, the intention to behave, and actual behavior (Martian Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Furthermore, according to this theory, reason-based motives mediate the relationship between attitude and intention to behave (Sheppard et al., 1998). In this study, it is hypothesized that psychological, attitudinal, and social variables, such as emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, are negatively related to the intention to leave.

Another theory that is relevant to the turnover intentions of employees is emotional social intelligence. This theory is based on the concept of multiple intelligences, which was developed by various scholars to measure human intelligence in different domains. For example, Robert Sternberg (1985) proposed a three-part theory of intelligence that consists of analytical, creative,

and practical intelligence. Similarly, Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to monitor, distinguish, and use one's own and others' emotions to guide one's thinking and actions. They argued that people with high emotional intelligence can use their emotions to enhance their cognitive abilities and interpersonal skills. Goleman (2001), who popularized the term emotional intelligence, described it as the ability to recognize, manage, and motivate oneself and others by using emotional information. He claimed that emotional intelligence is a key factor for personal and professional success. One of the dimensions of emotional intelligence is the ability to be aware of, to assess, and to articulate oneself. This dimension is also known as intrapersonal competence, which refers to the self-awareness and self-regulation of one's emotions (Bar-On, 2004). Intrapersonal competence is important for employees because it affects their job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. According to Mayer et al. (2012), emotional intelligence is positively related to various outcomes, such as task performance, leadership effectiveness, and team cohesion. Moreover, Jordan and Troth (2011) found that emotional intelligence is negatively related to turnover intentions, mediated by the quality of the relationship with the supervisor. These findings suggest that employees who have high emotional intelligence are more likely to be satisfied and committed to their organizations, and less likely to leave them.

The theory of emotional social intelligence is not only relevant to the turnover intentions of employees, but also to other theories that explain the factors that influence them. For example, effective communication, motivation, satisfaction, and commitment are all psychological, attitudinal, and social variables that are influenced by emotional intelligence. Employees who have high emotional intelligence are more likely to communicate effectively, be motivated, satisfied, and committed to their organizations, and experience less emotional exhaustion. Therefore, they are less likely to have the intention to leave their organizations. On the other hand, employees who have low emotional intelligence are more likely to have poor communication, low motivation, dissatisfaction, and low commitment, and experience more emotional exhaustion. Therefore, they are more likely to have the intention to leave their organizations and these relationships are also consistent with the social exchange theory. Social exchange theory helps us understand the dynamics of social relationships among instructors in public universities. It explains how emotional intelligence, effective communication, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment contribute to reciprocal exchanges and mutual

benefits within the workplace. According to SET, individuals strive to maximize rewards and minimize costs in their interactions, which can influence their turnover intentions. Positive exchanges, such as supportive work environments and recognition for achievements, can enhance organizational commitment and reduce turnover intentions among instructors.

Another theory that is relevant to the turnover intentions of employees is Herzberg's two-factor theory. Herzberg's theory distinguishes between hygiene factors (extrinsic) and motivator factors (intrinsic) that influence job motivation and job satisfaction. Hygiene factors, such as working conditions and compensation, may impact turnover intentions if they are perceived as inadequate. Motivator factors, such as recognition and opportunities for growth, contribute to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, thereby reducing turnover intentions. This theory underscores the importance of intrinsic motivators in retaining employees and mitigating turnover. According to Herzberg (1966), employees have a higher turnover intention when either one of the two factors is insufficient. Therefore, employees need both hygiene factors and motivators to be satisfied and committed to their organizations. This theory also shows the links between employees' turnover intention and their job motivation and satisfaction, which are influenced by emotional social intelligence. By integrating these theories, we can better understand how emotional intelligence influences turnover intention among instructors in public universities in Ethiopia, with effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment serving as mediating mechanisms in this relationship. This integrated theoretical approach can provide a more comprehensive framework for studying and addressing turnover intentions. It also highlights the importance of considering multiple factors and their interrelationships when developing strategies to reduce turnover intentions and improve employee retention.

2.11. Conceptual Framework

This section presents the conceptual framework and the proposed model of this study, which are based on Matier's model for turnover and Daly and Dee's models for intent to stay or leave. Matier (1990) proposed a model of turnover intention that considered both internal and external environmental factors that influence an employee's decision to leave. He examined how tangible, intangible, and non-work-related benefits affected the turnover decisions of 239 staff members at two universities. He suggested that research on staff turnover should include four

aspects: (1) the multiplicity of factors that affect the stay or leave decisions, (2) the focus on variables that directly impact the internal micro-work environment, (3) the role of both internal and external factors in the perceived desirability of moving, and (4) the consideration of both ease of movement and perceived attractiveness of movement. The ease of movement refers to the visibility of the staff and the availability of alternative job options. While the perceived attractiveness of movement includes academic freedom, satisfaction, and salary (Matier (1990). This study mainly focuses on the internal factors that determine the turnover intentions of academic staff. According to Matier's framework, academic staff who perceive low internal and external incentives may decide to leave the institution (Ambrose et al., 2005).

Matier's framework has been used by other turnover studies (Alemu & Pykhtina, 2020; Ambrose et al., 2005) For example, Ambrose et al. (2005) identified the internal and external variables that can increase staff retention rates, while Alemu and Pykhtina (2020) found that academic staff who were satisfied did not intend to leave their current institution, but those who were dissatisfied sought other opportunities. Similarly, Daly and Dee (2006) used structural, psychological, and environmental variables to examine the intentions to stay or leave of faculty members at public universities. Their model incorporated several variables from Price's conceptual framework and extended the turnover models of higher education research by investigating several institutional variables such as effective communication and intervening variables such as organizational commitment (James Price, 1977). They measured workplace conditions such as autonomy, communication, distributive justice, role conflict, and workload as structural variables.

Employee commitment and job satisfaction are psychological attitudinal variables, while environmental characteristics such as perceived career potential and kinship-related responsibilities are environmental factors (Daly & Dee, 2006). Previous studies on turnover intention have used two basic techniques. The first technique examines the relationships between psychological and institutional variables without considering environmental factors (Campbell & Im, 2016; Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008). For example, Moynihan and Landuyt (2008) focused on individual traits and attitudes as workplace attributes, ignoring organizational factors. The second technique acknowledges that turnover is determined by multiple factors, including human, organizational, and environmental variables (Daly & Dee, 2006). They studied how the

employee's perceived organizational structure affects their psychological attitudes towards the workplace. Daly and Dee (2006) also suggest that labor market dynamics or family responsibilities may influence intentions to leave, regardless of structure and psychological disposition. In other words, instructors may stay at their current institution even if they are dissatisfied with their work and organization if there are few alternative job opportunities or family responsibilities limit mobility. On the other hand, academic staff may leave, even though they are satisfied and highly committed, if they have good job prospects. This implies that both "internal" and "external" factors play a role in the decision to leave.

This research aims to examine the relationships between emotional intelligence and turnover intention, as well as the mediating effects of effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, based on the integrated theories and existing literature. The conceptual framework posits that emotional intelligence influences effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment among instructors. Effective communication, job motivation, and job satisfaction positively impact organizational commitment, which, in turn, negatively affect turnover intention. Additionally, emotional intelligence indirectly affects turnover intention through mediating pathways involving effective communication, job motivation, and job satisfaction, which are serially mediated by organizational commitment. These relationships are guided by research questions concerning the directional influences and mediation effects among the constructs, providing a structured foundation for investigating the complex dynamics underlying turnover intentions among instructors in Ethiopian public universities.

The conceptual model of this study draws on Matier (1990) model for turnover and Daly and Dee (2006) models for intent to stay or leave to propose the conceptual model for this research study. The proposed conceptual model serves as a guide for this study and helps to develop the objectives, research questions, methods, literature review, and analysis techniques. Moreover, the results and discussion of this study will be integrated with this proposed conceptual model. In the proposed conceptual model, the instructors' intention to turnover is directly or indirectly related to their emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment within higher educational institutions. However, it is important to note that the variables examined in this study are not the

only factors affecting instructors' turnover intention, but rather there are several other factors that influence instructors' decisions to stay or leave their institutions.

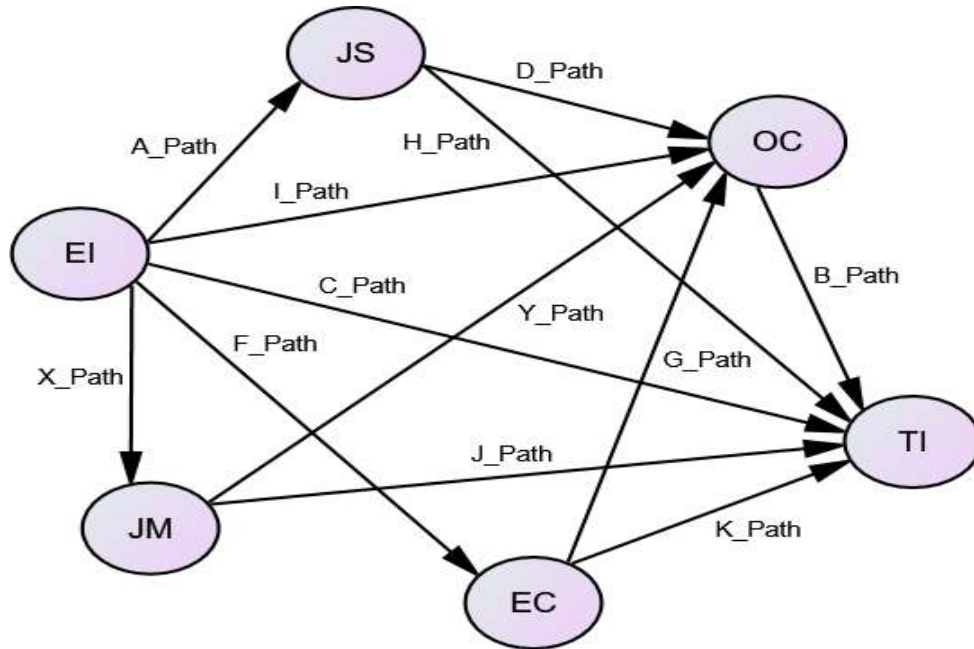


Figure 1: Conceptual Model

Note: EI-Emotional Intelligence
EC-Effective Communication
JM-Job Motivation
JS-Job Satisfaction
OC-Organizational Commitmen
TI-Turnover Intentio

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research methodology, design, and data sources of this quantitative study. It also explains the study population, sample size, and sampling methods, as well as the data collection tools and procedures, including the pre-pilot and pilot tests. Furthermore, it discusses the reliability and validity of the data collection tools, the data analysis techniques, and the ethical considerations of the study. The sample selection and data collection methods were determined by the focus of the study.

3.1. Philosophical Assumptions of the Research Paradigm

This section of the study outlines the method employed to select the optimal strategy for addressing the research questions. The primary objective of this study was to investigate how instructors' emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment influence their intention to leave. The study's structure was shaped by the philosophical presumptions of positivism, as the researcher aimed to align with its foundational principles. It is widely acknowledged that positivism and quantitative methods are complementary, with positivist tenets serving as the basis for subsequent techniques. The positivist approach indeed stresses the importance of quantifiable data and the use of rigorous methods to ensure the accuracy of research findings. Quantification offers several advantages, including providing a comprehensive understanding of cases, identifying patterns across multiple instances, demonstrating the numerical significance of a problem, and furnishing readily available and unambiguous information. However, it has limitations in its ability to examine individual cases in depth and often relies on a highly structured framework, inhibiting the exploration of unexpected outcomes or unanticipated information. Quantitative research exhibits positivist characteristics when it aims to establish connections between variables, test theories or research questions, make predictions, and establish and define categories prior to commencing the research, subsequently examining the relationships between them. Positivist researchers contend that their research methods and data accurately reflect reality. In contrast, post-positivists seek to disrupt the predictability that may arise in traditional interviews, striving to objectively uncover the truth hidden within the subject's mind. While positivism and post-positivism share conceptual similarities, the assumption of positivism underscores the principle

that researchers must maintain objectivity in the data collection process. As a result, researchers adopt an impartial stance to ensure the absence of bias during data collection.

3.2. Research Design

This research study aimed to investigate the relationships between emotional intelligence and turnover intention among instructors in higher education institutions in Ethiopia. Additionally, it sought to explore how effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment mediate these relationships. The study utilized a quantitative cross-sectional approach, with the sample selection and data collection tools following this approach. The method employed a combination of descriptive survey and correlation study designs (Creswell, 2012; Louis Cohen, 2007). The cross-sectional descriptive survey design was used to examine the characteristics, beliefs, opinions and the current status of respondents regarding the consistent display of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention behaviors among university instructors. This design covered a wide population, while the correlation study designs explored the relationship between two variables. The correlational research design was suitable for this study as it allowed the researcher to evaluate the relationships among variables (Mackey & Gass, 2016). The correlation design was recommended by Barker and Pistrang (2015) for analyzing the relationship between two or more variables and making assumptions about their strength or weakness. It was particularly effective when comparing differences among people and providing insights for improvement (Barker & Pistrang, 2015). Correlational models can be either cross-sectional or longitudinal, depending on the frequency of contact with the phenomenon (Barker & Pistrang, 2015). The quantitative analysis established the relationships between the independent, mediating, and dependent variables. Moreover, Babey (2019) demonstrated that quantitative research collected data to examine the correlation of one category of facts with another, using techniques that produced quantifiable and often generalizable results. Therefore, the quantitative approach was well-suited to answer the research questions and obtain accurate data about the socio-demographic status of instructors and their perceptions of the independent, mediating, and dependent variables. The study collected quantitative data using standardized scales based on this design and analyzed them using both descriptive and inferential

statistical instruments. The following sections will present details on the research population, survey and sampling methods, procedures for data collection, and techniques for data analysis.

3.3. Population of the Study

The population of a study is the group of individuals that the researcher wants to generalize the findings to. However, researchers usually cannot study the entire population due to practical constraints. Therefore, the researcher selects a sample of participants from the target population and collects data from them. The sample should be representative of the target population in terms of demographic, academic, and professional characteristics and variables. In this study, the target population consisted of all full-time instructors in higher educational institutions in Ethiopia. The population source was the Ministry of Science and Higher Education (MoSHE, 2020), which reported 39,798 university instructors in Ethiopia, of whom 33,091 were male and 6,707 were female. Based on this source, the sample consisted of graduate assistants, lecturers, assistant professors (PhD), associate professors, and professors in Ethiopian public universities.

3.4. Sample and Sampling Techniques of the Study

This study used a probability sampling technique, which ensures that all members of the target population have an equal chance of being included or selected in a sample. Probability sampling is more representative than other methods because it avoids sample selection bias (Nkpa, 1997; Rubin & Babbie, 2013). The key inclusion criterion for selecting participants was their full-time involvement in their current university roles. However, expatriate instructors, those on study leave, and non-academic administrative staff were excluded from the sample. The study also employed a multi-stage stratified random sampling technique. The strata were based on the generations of the sample universities. The first stage involved selecting four universities from four generations out of 45 public universities in Ethiopia using a simple random sampling method. The selected universities were Hawass University (first generation), Deberbirhan University (second generation), Welkite University (third generation), and Injibara University (fourth generation). The second stage involved selecting the appropriate stratified sample size for each generation of universities using the proportional stratified simple random sampling process. The main purpose of proportional stratification was to obtain a more representative population sample (McMillan & Schumacher, 1997). The third stage involves selecting instructors from

various colleges and departments using a simple random sampling method. This approach ensures a representative sample of the academic environment, mitigates sampling bias, and respects the unique composition of each university. The use of random sampling provides every instructor an equal chance of being included, enhancing the validity of the research findings. This method is scientifically justified as it improves the representativeness, variability, and feasibility of the research, and strengthens its applicability to the academic community. The final analysis of this dissertation research was based on the responses of 660 sample instructors.

3.5. Sampling for the Pilot Study

This pilot study examined male and female instructors aged 20–65 years old who worked as instructors, researchers, and community service providers at Dilla University (DU). The researcher selected DU because of his affiliation with the university. The study selected 10 colleges, institutes, and schools from DU, each with 5–10 departments. The researcher randomly selected instructors from each unit and asked them to complete a questionnaire. The sample consisted of instructors from all units, with different academic ranks. The researcher excluded expatriate instructors, instructors on study leave, and non-academic administrative staff from the sample. A total of 327 instructors (269 males and 58 females) completed the questionnaire correctly.

3.6. Sample Size Determination and Sampling Technique

The sample size is a crucial factor in structural equation modeling (SEM) when considering the number of observed variables. Jackson (2003) suggested that researchers using Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation should aim for a minimum sample size based on the ratio of cases (N) to model parameters that require statistical estimates (q). According to Jackson, an appropriate sample size-to-parameter ratio is 20:1. Nunnally (1967) proposed another criterion for determining a sufficient sample size, which is having 10 cases per indicator or observed variable. This guideline is widely used in SEM studies. The researcher adhered to Nunnally's (1967) suggestion and selected 10 cases per indicator for the main study. This resulted in a minimum sample size of 600 since there were 60 observed variables or indicators in the main study. However, to account for a 10% non-response rate, the researcher chose a sample of 660 instructors from the study population. The selected sample included instructors from various

groups who served as teachers, researchers, or community service providers in their respective institutions.

Ethiopia has four generations of universities, which are distributed across the country. The researcher used a simple random sampling technique to select one university from each generation as a sample. This was because one of the major responsibilities of universities under proclamation 650/2009 was to provide community services for the surrounding community. Therefore, it was reasonable to select representative samples from each generation to check whether university instructors were effectively performing their duties. The selected universities were Hawasa, Debrebirhan, Welkite, and Injibara, which were chosen by lottery method from each generation. These universities consisted of various colleges, institutes, schools, and departments, but the naming and organization of these units varied widely across the universities. Some colleges were more comprehensive and had a large number of departments, while others were more specialized and had fewer departments. Some colleges that were separate units in one university were merged into one college with a slight name change in another university. This created some inconsistency and difficulty in selecting common sample colleges and departments from each university. Despite this challenge, the researcher randomly chose colleges and departments from each of the four sampled universities to serve as a sample for the main study. However, if there was a lack of willingness from the research participants from the randomly chosen colleges or departments, the researcher might change them depending on the conditions that were found in the study settings.

To determine the appropriate sample size for the study, Nunnally (1967) and Kothari (2004) sample size determination formulas were used. Nunnally (1967) recommended a minimum sample size of 10 cases per indicator or observed variable for structural equation modeling (SEM) studies. Given that there were 60 observed variables or indicators in this study, the minimum sample size required was 600. However, to account for a 10% response error, the sample size was increased to 660 ($600 + 60 = 660$). Kothari (2004) provided a proportional stratified sample size formula for distributing the sample size to different strata or groups. The formula used was:

$$ni = \frac{n \times Ni}{\sum Ni}$$

Where:

n_i = sample size for the corresponding university

n = total sample size

N_i = total population of the corresponding university

$\sum N_i$ = sum of the populations of all universities

Using this formula, the sample size was proportionally distributed to the four universities. The values of the variables and the resulting sample sizes were as follows:

$\sum N_i = 4,024$ (HU, DBU, WKU, INU)

$n = 660$ (total sample size)

n_i for Hawasa University = 274 out of a total population of 1,670

n_i for Debrebirhan University = 227 out of a total population of 1,379

n_i for Welkite University = 125 out of a total population of 759

n_i for Injibara University = 34 out of a total population of 198

3.7. Instruments of Data Collection

This study collected relevant data from primary sources using survey questionnaires. The survey questionnaire was a suitable method for this research, as it allowed for direct and immediate data collection from the target population in a cost-effective way. Additionally, a fixed-alternative survey questionnaire facilitated quick and easy responses from the participants. Thus, the main data collection instrument was a structured questionnaire. The researcher designed the questionnaire items based on the literature and adapted them from various sources. The questionnaire comprised two sections. The first section inquired about the instructors' socio-demographic information, while the second section assessed the independent, mediating, and dependent variables. To ensure the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, my supervisor and other scholars reviewed it, and the researcher conducted a pilot test at Dilla University, which was not part of the sample universities for the main study and supported data collection for the pilot study.

3.8. Questionnaires

Questionnaires are research tools that consist of questions on various study variables, such as psychological, social, and academic factors (Koul, 2016). The present study used questionnaires to collect sufficient data from a large number of respondents in a relatively short

time. The questions were closed-ended with Likert scale type items ranging from four to seven points. The study subjects provided written responses to the items based on questions and statements. The questionnaire had two components. The first component addressed the instructors' socio-demographic variables, such as age, gender, education status, and marital status, and work experience. The second component measured the instructors' emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions in higher education institutions. This section describes these research tools and their rationale, along with the total number of items.

3.8.1. Socio-Demographic Variables

This research used five socio-demographic variables to analyze the data: age, gender, education status, marital status, and work experience. These variables were labeled and coded for the study. For instance, gender was coded as female = 1 and male = 2. The age and work experience of instructors were measured in years. The educational and marital status were quantified by using at least three labels each (education status = assistant lecturer, lecturer, assistant professor/Ph.D, associate professor and professor; marriage = married, unmarried, and divorced or widowed). Moreover, the study assessed the emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment of the instructors to explore their direct and indirect relationships with their turnover intentions across various multiple items.

3.8.2. The Emotional Intelligence Scale

We considered emotional intelligence as a multidimensional construct with two underlying dimensions: emotional self-awareness and emotional self-regulation. Emotional self-awareness is the ability to recognize and understand one's emotions and their behavioral effects. It is a competency of emotional intelligence, along with managing emotions, others, and relationships. We measured emotional self-awareness by the participants' ability to recognize, express, and use their emotions in various situations. We measured emotional self-regulation by the participants' ability to control, direct, and cope with their emotions, such as self-regulation, motivation, and adaptation. Petrides (2009) developed and validated a scale to measure emotional intelligence on male and female employees in the United Kingdom. Petrides et al. (2007) defined emotional intelligence as how people see themselves and their emotions. The

scale was a self-reported questionnaire based on the emotional intelligence sampling domain (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). The original scale consisted of 30 standard items that assessed the global emotional intelligence behaviors of employees in the United Kingdom. For example, items such as “I’m generally aware of my emotions as I experience them; I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions.” The questionnaire used a Likert scale from 1 (indicating complete disagreement) to 7 (indicating complete agreement). These scores reflected the extent to which university instructors demonstrated their emotional intelligence and behavioral skills in their workplaces. We reported the reliability separately for males and females to evaluate the scale’s consistency and potential gender differences in the responses. The original scale was reliable for both males and females, as shown by the high values of α (.89 and .88). This enhanced the understanding of the scale’s psychometric properties and contributed to the discussion of gender differences in emotional intelligence. This information was useful for researchers and practitioners interested in the scale’s performance in diverse populations. We aimed to validate this scale to examine the instructors’ emotional intelligence.

3.8.3. The Effective Communication Scale

This section presents a scale that assesses the effectiveness of communication among university staff members. The scale, developed by O’Reilly and Roberts (1976), comprises five items with 5-point scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). These items evaluate the extent to which organizational members feel comfortable exchanging ideas with one another. The scale demonstrates high internal consistency, as indicated by a Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.85. Previous research has highlighted the significance of effective communication in integrating staff members within university environments (Austin, 2002). It facilitates a collegial and supportive atmosphere that encourages scholars to interact and collaborate. Conversely, limited communication can result in the isolation and alienation of faculty members (Al-Omari et al., 2002). O’Reilly and Roberts (1976) also discovered positive correlations between scores on the effective communication scale and self-reported frequencies of interpersonal communication with co-workers. Drawing from these findings, the researcher adapted the five-item scale to measure instructors’ effective communication with academic staff members in their respective institutions.

3.8.4. The Job Motivation Scale

The motivation of university lecturers plays a crucial role in determining the overall achievements of the university. According to Griffin (2012), motivation is a process that involves changing and directing human actions towards desired work patterns. A study conducted by Munyengabe et al. (2017) focused on measuring lecturers' motivation in China and found that incentives and promotions had a significant impact on their motivation levels in the university setting. In the previous study, the motivational level of instructors was assessed using various factors, including job satisfaction, income, rewards, social factors, code of behavior, and classroom environment. The measurement scale employed in that study consisted of 39 items. For the current study, these items were validated and used to suit the Ethiopian cultural context. In this study, a motivation scale was utilized, employing four rating scales: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, and 4 = strongly agree. The Content Validity Index (CVI) value of the measurement scale was found to be 0.975, indicating excellent validity. These measurement tools were adapted by the researcher to suit the context of higher education in Ethiopia.

3.8.5. The Job Satisfaction Scale

Lecturers' satisfaction is vital for the overall achievements of the university. Munyengabe et al. (2017) developed a measurement scale to assess lecturers' satisfaction in China, considering different factors such as financial rewards, supervisor relationships, co-worker respect, advancement opportunities, workload, and stress levels, and working conditions. Financial rewards emerged as the primary determinant in the Chinese context. The measurement scale consisted of 40 items and demonstrated excellent content validity index (CVI), with a score of 0.95, indicating that the measurement scale covered the relevant aspects of lecturers' satisfaction. For the current study, this scale was adapted and applied in the Ethiopian cultural context. The scale used four rating categories- 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, and 4 = strongly agree.

3.8.6. The Organizational Commitment Scale

The researcher used an 18-item scale developed by (Allen & Meyer, 1990) to assess the organizational commitment of instructors. Organizational commitment refers to their level of attachment to the university and their intention to remain associated with it. The scale, known as the Organizational Commitment Scale, consists of three subscales, each comprising six items.

Participants rated their responses on a five-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)). Bohórquez (2014) and other researchers have previously employed this questionnaire in their studies on organizational commitment, which indicates its widespread use and acceptance. The scale demonstrates high internal consistency, as indicated by a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.934. To ensure the suitability of the questionnaire for the specific context of instructors and their respective universities, the researcher made necessary adaptations.

3.8.7. The Turnover Intention Scale

To measure the intention of turnover, we used a nine-item scale adapted from Jacobs and Roodt (2008). The scale consists of two types of questions: one that asks how often the instructors think about leaving their current job or university, and another that asks how much they are satisfied or dissatisfied with various aspects of their work, such as salary, workload, and recognition. The responses are given on a five-point Likert scale, indicating the frequency or degree of agreement. The scale has been validated by previous studies and has a high internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = 0.913). The results of the scale show that the intention of turnover is influenced by both personal and organizational factors, and that it varies across different types of academic institutions.

3.9. Validation and Translation of Research Instruments in Cross-Cultural Settings

This section discusses the validation and translation process of a questionnaire used in a research project. The data collection instruments underwent various strategies to improve their psychometric properties. The process consisted of three main stages: content validity assessment, translation, and pre-pilot testing.

In the first stage, the content validity of the items was evaluated by social and developmental psychologists, as well as language experts, to determine if they accurately measured the variables/domains of interest. The researcher utilized Lawshe's content validity evaluation method Lawshe (1975), which involved calculating the content validity index (CVI) for each item based on ratings from a panel of experts. The panel comprised eight specialists with masters and PhD degrees in psychology and language. They possessed extensive experience in teaching, research, and instrument development. The researcher invited them to participate in

the content validity assessment, providing them with the survey that included task instructions, demographic details, construct definitions and explanations, scale/subscale descriptions, and an overall goal of validating and/or adapting multiple instruments. Each panelist independently evaluated the content and rated each item on a three-point scale: 1 = not necessary, 2 = useful but not essential, and 3 = essential. The researcher calculated the content validity ratio (CVR) for each item based on the quantitative data collected from the panel. Items with CVR/I-CVI values of 0.75 and higher were retained, while three items with CVR values lower than 0.75 were eliminated. Additionally, the panel provided qualitative comments on the items.

In the second stage, the items were translated from English to Amharic, the official language of Ethiopia. The translation process followed a rigorous procedure to ensure the quality and equivalence of the two versions. Psychologists and language professionals translated the items into Amharic, taking into consideration the implied meaning, setting, and technical aspects. The Amharic version was then back-translated into English and compared to the original for consistency. Afterward, the forward and backward translations were reconciled and integrated into a single version. The supervisor reviewed the final version, checking for any contradictions and discussing necessary corrections with the translators.

In the third stage, the translated instruments were refined based on feedback from the forward and backward translation processes. The feedback focused on ensuring conceptual equivalence, simplifying translations, avoiding long phrases, and using language understood by the common audience. The questionnaire was also tested in a pre-pilot study and revised based on the results to address confusing terms and statements. The researcher made changes to the items in the questionnaire to fit this research project, including altering, rewording, paraphrasing, and canceling some items.

3.10. Pilot Test of the Study

The researcher administered the data gathering tools to 327 randomly selected instructors from Dilla University for a pilot test. Out of the participants, 269 (82.3%) were male and 58 (17.7%) were female. This pilot test aimed to check the validity and reliability of the tools and identify any errors in the survey questions before distributing them to the main study participants. The instructors who participated in the pilot test were excluded from the main study. After collecting the data, the researcher assessed the scale's reliability and verified the

assumptions for factor analysis. Items with total item correlations below 0.3 were removed. Next, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to determine the factor structures of latent variables.

3.11. Factor Analysis

3.12. Assumptions of Exploratory Factor Analysis

To evaluate the adequacy of the measurement instrument and the assumptions of exploratory factor analysis (EFA), several tests were conducted. These tests included Cronbach's alpha coefficient, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy, Bartlett's test of sphericity, tests for multicollinearity, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated for each construct to assess internal consistency (Churchill, 1979). The KMO measure was used to examine the extent to which correlations are a function of shared variance across all variables (Kaiser, 1974). KMO values above 0.70 were considered acceptable (Hoelzle & Meyer, 2013; Lloret et al., 2017). Bartlett's test of sphericity was performed to assess the significance of item correlations (Hair et al., 2012). The results indicated satisfactory internal consistency, as all constructs achieved alpha values above 0.7. The KMO values for each construct exceeded 0.75, indicating suitability for factor analysis. Bartlett's test of sphericity showed significant results, supporting the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis. A summary of the data preparation and EFA results can be found in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary of the data preparation and EFA results

Construct	Number of Items	Alpha	KMO	Bartlett's Test (χ^2, p-value)
Emotional Intelligence	30	0.823	0.819	1021, < 0.001
Effective Communication	5	0.844	0.811	211, < 0.001
Job Motivation	37	0.90	0.871	11543, < 0.001
Job Satisfaction	39	0.95	0.921	1678, < 0.001
Organizational Commitment	18	0.92	0.898	1234, < 0.001
Turnover Intention	9	0.753	0.782	543, < 0.001

To evaluate multicollinearity, we examined zero-order correlations (Pearson's r) between variables. None of the correlations exceeded 0.7, suggesting that strong linear relationships were not present. We also assessed correlations among predictor variables to identify potential

multicollinearity issues (Hernandez, 2021). None of the correlations among the predictor variables exceeded 0.80, confirming the absence of multicollinearity. Therefore, the assumption of multicollinearity was met for conducting factor analysis. We further evaluated multicollinearity using tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF). Tolerance values below 0.10 or VIF values above 10 indicate the presence of multicollinearity (Pallant, 2010). Our analysis revealed tolerance values ranging from 0.424 to 0.862 and VIF values ranging from 1.159 to 2.357 for each variable. These values indicated no evidence of multicollinearity, as all tolerance values were above 0.10 and all VIF values were below 10. Moreover, scholars such as (Hair et al. (2012) and Ringle et al. (2014) have suggested a VIF below 5 as acceptable.

For the normality test, we examined skewness and kurtosis values for each variable (Rex Kline, 2016). All variables fell within the normal range of ± 2 for skewness and ± 7 for kurtosis. We also assessed the Z-values, which should fall within the range of ± 1.96 to indicate normality. To ensure normality, we employed data transformation methods such as square root and reciprocal transformations for specific constructs. The normality test for each construct met the criteria for skewness, kurtosis, and Z-values. Refer to Table 2 for the skewness, kurtosis, and Z-values of each construct. To assess linearity, we examined scatterplots between each pair of variables and found no evidence of nonlinear relationships. The scatterplots displayed a linear pattern, indicating that the assumption of linearity was met. Lastly, we evaluated homoscedasticity using scatterplots and residual plots. The scatterplots did not exhibit funnel-shaped patterns or clear deviations, suggesting that the assumption of homoscedasticity was met. The residual plots showed random distribution around zero, indicating the absence of heteroscedasticity.

In conclusion, the preliminary tests conducted to evaluate the adequacy of the survey data and the assumptions of EFA provided satisfactory results. The measurement instrument demonstrated good internal consistency, as indicated by Cronbach's alpha coefficients. The data were suitable for factor analysis, supported by high KMO values and significant Bartlett's test of sphericity results. Tests for multicollinearity, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity revealed no violations of the assumptions required for EFA.

Table 2. Test of Normality

Variables	Skewness values	S.E	Z_values	Kurtosis values	S.E	Z_values	Shapiro-wilk Sig.
EI	-.244	.135	-1.81	-.123	.269	-.46	.129
EC	.060	.135	.44	-.061	.269	-.23	.144
JM	-.020	.135	-.15	.303	.269	1.13	.118
JS	-.016	.135	-.12	-.299	.269	-1.11	.401
OC	.079	.135	.59	-.070	.269	-.26	.854
TI	.036	.135	.27	-.356	.269	-1.32	.107

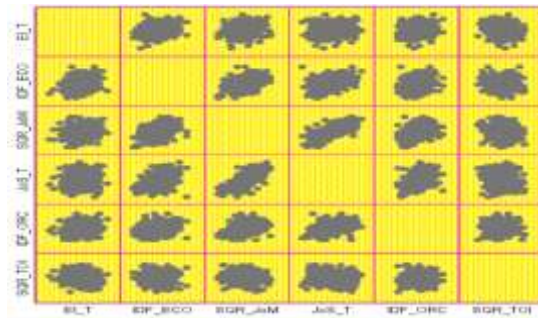


Figure 2. Scatter Plot

3.13. Exploratory Factor Analysis

An exploratory factor analysis was performed to examine the factors or dimensions of each construct or latent variable within the Ethiopian cultural context. The analysis utilized maximum likelihood estimation and varimax rotation, with a maximum factor loading criterion of 0.50, which exceeded the absolute value of the default standardized factor loading of 0.30. The goal of the exploratory factor analysis was to generate a highly correlated rotated matrix, where various measures such as the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) index, Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity, factor loadings, and factor correlation matrix reached statistically significant levels. The data were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25, Jamovi version 2.3.2, and Amos version 23. A maximum likelihood analysis was employed to identify factors with high correlations among their reflective items. This method explicitly specifies the expected relationships between items and consolidates related items into one dimension or

factor. Varimax rotation, a statistical technique in factor analysis, was utilized to clarify item relationships, simplify item loadings by eliminating intermediate values, and specifically identify the factor on which factor loading depends.

During the initial exploratory factor analysis, the researcher assessed the communalities of the observed variables to gauge the amount of variance explained by each dimension. According to Child (2006), items with communalities below 0.20 should be excluded from further analysis, along with items having total item correlations below 0.30 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Following these criteria, the items were refined to ensure the content validity of the scale, and the final exploratory factor analysis results were reported in the study's results section. Based on the criteria of communalities below 0.20 and total item correlations below 0.30, eight emotional intelligence items were excluded. Similarly, for the job motivation scale, three items were excluded. In total, 23 items out of the initial 37 were excluded, leaving 14 items for subsequent confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). For the job satisfaction scale, 15 items did not load on any factors or components, resulting in their exclusion. Consequently, only 19 items were retained for CFA analysis, as they loaded on their originally assigned factor structure.

Regarding the organizational commitment scale, three items were excluded due to low communality (below 0.20) and low total item correlation (below 0.30). However, all six normative commitment items loaded on the first factor, the affective commitment factor, and were excluded from the final exploratory factor analysis for CFA. Two items did not load on any factors or on affective commitment, leading to their exclusion. Six items remained for further CFA analysis. The turnover intention scale underwent a final exploratory factor analysis with an eigenvalue greater than 1, resulting in a single factor structure. However, three items did not load on any factor structures and were excluded from the final analysis. Four items were retained for CFA analysis. In summary, the exploratory factor analysis was conducted to investigate the factors or dimensions of the latent variables within the Ethiopian cultural context. The analysis involved rigorous criteria for selecting items, resulting in the exclusion of various items across different scales. The remaining items were deemed suitable for subsequent confirmatory factor analysis.

3.14. Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Emotional intelligence: Two factors were identified from the rotated factor matrix in maximum likelihood analysis with an Eigenvalue >1 and the scree plot results. These factors were interpretable and confirmed by the confirmatory factor analysis with items having factor loadings from 0.517 to 0.805. The two factors accounted for 38% of the total variance in the emotional intelligence scale.

Effective Communication: Based on the Eigenvalue >1 criterion, the scree plot, and the parallel analysis, the effective communication scale had a single-factor structure. The factor loadings of the items were high, ranging from 0.609 to 0.804. This factor accounted for 52.8% of the total variance in the scale.

Job Motivation: Using the Eigenvalue >1 criterion and the scree plot, we obtained a three-factor solution from the rotated factor structures. The three factors were interpretable and reduced the original six-factor model of the motivational scale. The factor loadings of the three factors were high, ranging from 0.538 to 0.874. These factors explained 58.20% of the total variance in the scale, with very high factor scores.

Job Satisfaction: We applied the Eigenvalue >1 criterion and the scree plot analysis to the rotated factor structures and obtained a three-factor solution. The three factors were interpretable and had high factor loadings, ranging from 0.550 to 0.878. These factors accounted for 64.3% of the total variance in the job satisfaction scale.

Organizational Commitment: We performed an exploratory factor analysis and obtained a single-factor solution. The items in the scale had high factor loadings, ranging from 0.633 to 0.879. This factor accounted for 63.4% of the total variance in the scale.

Turnover Intention: We conducted an exploratory factor analysis and obtained a single-factor solution. The items in the scale had high factor loadings, ranging from 0.626 to 0.800. This factor accounted for 50% of the total variance in the scale.

3.15. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To validate the findings from the EFA and ensure that the measured variables accurately represented the latent variables, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted. The CFA

examined the pattern of loadings for each new factor. Loadings represent the correlations between the indicators and the factors, with factors being the underlying latent variables. Within the CFA, a measurement model linked the indicators to the constructs they were hypothesized to measure Byrne (2016), while a structural model depicted the relationships between the latent variables (Steinmayr et al., 2016). In short, a structural equation model (SEM) consisted of both a measurement model and a structural model.

For the CFA, AMOS 23 software was used with maximum likelihood estimation on the sample. This analysis tested the structure of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. To establish the models for each construct, the researcher employed model identification and specification methods. To evaluate the fit of the model to the data, more than five model fit statistics were used. Worthington and Whittaker (2006) recommended four broad categories of model fit indices, including overall model fit (chi-square test), incremental fit (NFI, CFI, and TLI), and absolute fit (RMSEA and GFI). Byrne (2010) and Alrousan and Ahmad (2015) suggested five model fit indices: CMIN, AGFI, GFI, CFI, and RMSEA. The selected fit indices, as suggested by Byrne (2010), were assessed to determine the fit of the CFA models for each construct. Specifically, the criteria for the model fit indices were as follows: CMIN/DF < 5, GFI, AGFI, and CFI > .9, and RMSEA < .08. Hair et al. (2012) indicated that if 3 to 4 of the fit indices met the specified thresholds, the model fit would be considered acceptable. However, McNeish et al. (2017) cautioned against blindly applying cut-off values, stating that no single cut-off value for any specific fit index can be widely applied across latent variable models.

3.16. Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Emotional Intelligence: The results of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) revealed two distinct factor structures in the study: emotional self-awareness (ESA) and emotional self-regulation (ESR). These factors were further confirmed through first- and second-order confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) using the emotional intelligence scale. The CFA for the first-order factor model of emotional self-awareness yielded the following fit indices: $\chi^2 = 10.806$, DF = 5, p-value = .055, CMIN/DF = 2.161, NFI = .994, TLI = .989, CFI = .996, RMSEA = .043, GFI = .994, and AGFI = .976. The CFA for the first-order factor model of emotional self-awareness showed good fit with the data, with all fit indices falling within acceptable ranges. The CFA for the first-order

second factor, emotional self-regulation, also demonstrated an excellent model fit. The results of this analysis indicated the following fit indices: $\chi^2 = 3.648$, $DF = 6$, $p\text{-value} = .724$, $CMIN/DF = .608$, $NFI = .997$, $TLI = 1.00$, $CFI = 1.00$, $RMSEA = .000$, $GFI = .998$, and $AGFI = .993$. Again, all fit indices fell within the recommended range for model fit. Furthermore, a CFA was conducted to assess the first-order two-factor model as a whole. The results demonstrated a satisfactory fit, with the following fit indices: $\chi^2 = 191.970$, $DF = 46$, $p\text{-value} = .000$, $CMIN/DF = 4.173$, $NFI = .940$, $TLI = .933$, $CFI = .953$, $RMSEA = .072$, $GFI = .953$, and $AGFI = .920$. All of these fit indices met the acceptable criteria for model fit. The second-order CFA model was also examined, and the results were consistent with the first-order two-factor models. The fit indices for the second-order model were as follows: $\chi^2 = 191.970$, $DF = 46$, $p\text{-value} = .000$, $CMIN/DF = 4.173$, $NFI = .940$, $TLI = .933$, $CFI = .953$, $RMSEA = .072$, $GFI = .953$, and $AGFI = .920$. These fit indices indicated a good fit with the data, and no further modifications were necessary. Overall, the study's findings provide strong evidence for the first-order two-factor CFA model of emotional intelligence, specifically emotional self-awareness and emotional self-regulation.

Effective Communication: The results of the CFA analysis indicated that the overall model fit indices, incremental fit indices, absolute fit indices, and goodness-of-fit indices were as follows: $\chi^2 = 4.210$, $DF = 3$, $p\text{-value} = .240$, $CMIN/DF = 1.403$, $NFI = .995$, $TLI = .995$, $CFI = .998$, $RMSEA = .026$, $GFI = .997$, and $AGFI = .987$. These findings suggest that the final model effectively captured the data, and all fit indices fell within acceptable ranges.

Job Motivation: The results of the EFA revealed three factor structures that can be interpreted. These factors were confirmed by both first and second-order CFA models. Specifically, the final first-order CFA model for salary (SAL) had the following fit statistics: $\chi^2 = 60.878$, $DF = 7$, $p\text{-value} = .201$, $CMIN/DF = 8.697$, $NFI = .970$, $TLI = .942$, $CFI = .973$, $RMSEA = .112$, $GFI = .967$, and $AGFI = .901$. With the exception of RMSEA, all the fit indices indicated a good match between the model and the data. To confirm its fit with the data, the first-order CFA model for promotion (PRO) was subsequently tested. The CFA results demonstrated a perfect fit: $\chi^2 = .454$, $DF = 1$, $p\text{-value} = .500$, $CMIN/DF = .454$, $NFI = 1.00$, $TLI = 1.00$, $CFI = 1.00$, $RMSEA = .000$, $GFI = 1.00$, and $AGFI = .996$. All the fit indices fell within the recommended range for model fit criteria. Similarly, the first-order CFA model for cheer love and career development

(CLCD) was estimated to verify its fit with the data. The CFA output indicated a good fit: $\chi^2 = 3.345$, $DF = 1$, $p\text{-value} = .067$, $CMIN/DF = 3.345$, $NFI = .997$, $TLI = .987$, $CFI = .998$, $RMSEA = .062$, $GFI = .997$, and $AGFI = .973$. All the fit indices met or exceeded the recommended thresholds for model fit. Furthermore, a CFA was conducted to assess the first-order three-factor model simultaneously. The CFA model for SAL, PRO, and CLCD consisted of 14 items. The results demonstrated that $\chi^2 = 251.094$, $DF = 69$, $p\text{-value} = .000$, $CMIN/DF = 3.639$, $NFI = .944$, $TLI = .945$, $CFI = .958$, $RMSEA = .065$, $GFI = .944$, and $AGFI = .915$. Finally, a second-order CFA was performed to confirm the validity of the second-order factor model using the three first-order factors. The results of the second-order CFA model showed that $\chi^2 = 251.094$, $DF = 69$, $p\text{-value} = .000$, $CMIN/DF = 3.639$, $NFI = .944$, $TLI = .945$, $CFI = .958$, $RMSEA = .065$, $GFI = .944$, and $AGFI = .915$. All the model fit indices indicated a good match and were within the acceptable range of the fit indices

Job Satisfaction: The EFA results revealed three interpretable factors on the Job Satisfaction scale. These factors were confirmed by both first and second-order CFA models. The first-order CFA model associated with the first factor, financial rewards (FR), showed a good fit with the data: $\chi^2 = 46.248$, $DF = 11$, $p < .001$, $CMIN/DF = 4.204$, $NFI = .985$, $TLI = .979$, $CFI = .989$, $RMSEA = .072$, $GFI = .979$, $AGFI = .949$. Similarly, the first-order CFA model related to the second factor, relationship with co-workers (RCW), also showed a good fit with the data: $\chi^2 = 23.088$, $DF = 6$, $p = .001$, $CMIN/DF = 3.848$, $NFI = .991$, $TLI = .983$, $CFI = .993$, $RMSEA = .068$, $GFI = .988$, $AGFI = .958$. All the fit indices were within the recommended range, and no further model modification was needed. The first-order CFA model associated with the third factor, relationship with supervisors (RWS), also showed a good fit with the data: $\chi^2 = 23.821$, $DF = 8$, $p = .002$, $CMIN/DF = 2.978$, $NFI = .989$, $TLI = .987$, $CFI = .993$, $RMSEA = .057$, $GFI = .988$, $AGFI = .967$. The fit indices for all three factors were within the recommended range, requiring no further modifications. The three-factor CFA model demonstrated strong interrelationships between the factors and a good fit: $\chi^2 = 401.840$, $DF = 142$, $p < .001$, $CMIN/DF = 2.830$, $NFI = .952$, $TLI = .962$, $CFI = .968$, $RMSEA = .054$, $GFI = .937$, $AGFI = .916$. Similarly, the second-order factor CFA model provided the same fit indices as the three-factor model, meeting all the required fit criteria without further modifications.

Organizational Commitment: The exploratory factor analysis (EFA) yielded a single interpretable factor, which was subsequently confirmed in the model using the available data. The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results for the final organizational commitment model indicated $\chi^2 = 26.801$, $DF = 7$, $p\text{-value} = .000$, $CMIN/DF = 3.829$, $NFI = .985$, $TLI = .976$, $CFI = .989$, $RMSEA = .068$, $GFI = .986$, and $AGFI = .959$. Overall, these findings demonstrate that the measurement model fits the data well and meets the required fit indices for an acceptable model fit.

Turnover Intention: Exploratory factor analysis revealed one interpretable factor, which was further confirmed by confirmatory factor analysis. The CFA results showed that the hypothesized model fit the data very well, as indicated by the following fit indices: $\chi^2 = 3.946$, $DF = 2$, $CMIN/DF = 1.973$, $p\text{-value} = .139$, $NFI = .993$, $TLI = .990$, $CFI = .997$, $RMSEA = .040$, $GFI = .997$, and $AGFI = .984$. Therefore, the first-order model was acceptable and did not require any modification.

3.17. Structural Equation Measurement Modeling

Item Parceling: Item parceling is a common technique in structural equation modeling (SEM) that involves summing or averaging item scores from two or more items and using these parcel scores instead of the item scores in a SEM analysis. Bandalos and Finney (2001) examined SEM studies in seven journals from 1989 to the present and found that 19.6% of 317 applied SEM or confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) studies used some type of parceling procedure, mostly (82.3%) for CFA applications. Parceling enhances model parsimony, which means using the fewest number of parameters to explain the data, but it reduces the falsifiability of the tested model, which means the ability to reject a false model. In other words, parceling may over-stabilize a misspecified model and make it fit the data well. One way to create parcels is to assign items to parcels based on their factor loadings, from highest to lowest in an inverted order. Mario and Rogers (2004) gave an example of this approach for 12 indicators assigned to three parcels: parcel #1 had indicators ranked 1, 6, 7, and 12, parcel #2 had indicators ranked 2, 5, 8, and 11, and parcel #3 had indicators ranked 3, 4, 9, and 10. The researcher applied this approach to parcel out emotional intelligence - 12 items, job motivation - 14 items, job satisfaction - 19 items, organizational commitment - 6 items, effective communication - 5 items, turnover intention - 4 items, and ran a SEM measurement model.

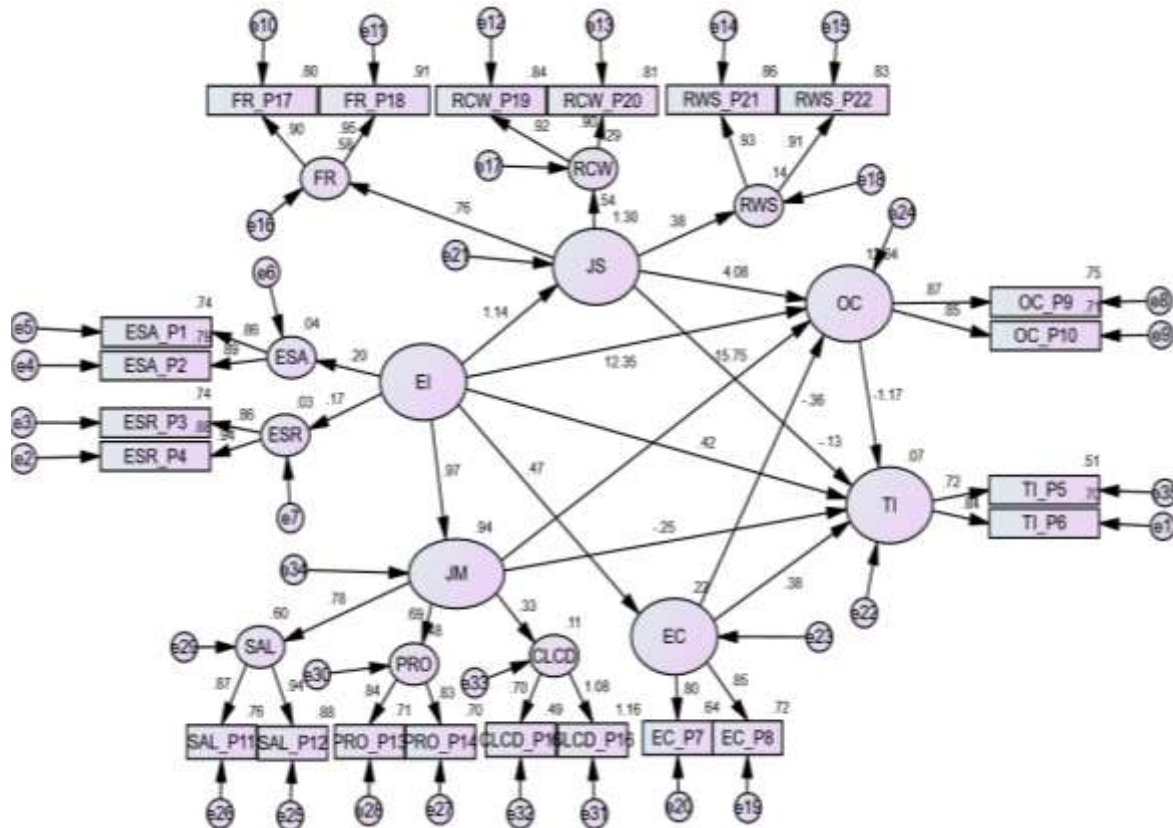


Figure 3. *Structural Equation Model.*

The researcher interpreted the SEM measurement models based on their model fit indices. Then, the researcher conducted structural measurement models by connecting all constructs based on the first and second order CFA measurement models. To check the fitness of the model, the researcher ran the structural measurement model by parcelling items. The initial SEM measurement model yielded $\chi^2 = 801.799$, $DF = 190$, $p\text{-value} = .000$, $CMIN/DF = 4.220$, $NFI = .905$, $IFI = .926$, $TLI = .909$, $CFI = .926$, $RMSEA = .072$, $GFI = .890$, and $AGFI = .854$. Among the fit indices, $CMIN/DF$, NFI , IFI , TLI , CFI , and $RMSEA$ indicated a good fit to the data, while GFI and $AGFI$ were close to the recommended criteria. Therefore, the SEM measurement model fit the data well except for GFI and $AGFI$, which were slightly below the acceptable threshold. The final SEM model also fit the data and met the required fit indices.

3.18. Multivariate Normality Assumption of SEM Model

Table 3. Multivariate Normality Assumption (Assessments of Normality).

Variables	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
EI	8.667	28.000	-.009	-.092	-.617	-3.132
JM	6.000	23.667	.356	3.618	.207	1.051
JS	6.000	24.000	.151	1.537	.101	.514
EC	2.000	10.000	-.013	-.132	-.529	-2.684
OC	2.000	10.000	-.163	-1.653	-.666	-3.381
TI	2.000	10.000	.120	1.219	-.668	-3.395
Multivariate					2.913	3.698

As shown in Table 3, the univariate and multivariate normality assumptions were tested for each construct. The univariate skewness and kurtosis of the constructs were within the recommended ranges, i.e., skewness was between ± 2 and kurtosis was between ± 7 . The multivariate normality test also met its minimum standards of kurtosis and critical ratio (C.R.). Yuan and Bentler (2006) suggested that the kurtosis and the C.R. of SEM results should be less than 5 to indicate multivariate normality. Based on this criterion, the multivariate normality analysis of emotional intelligence (EI) showed a kurtosis of $-.617$ and a C.R. of -3.132 . For effective communication (EC), the multivariate kurtosis was -0.529 and the C.R. was -2.684 . For job motivation (JOM), the multivariate kurtosis was $.207$ and the C.R. was 1.051 . For job satisfaction (JOS), the kurtosis was $.101$ and the C.R. was $.514$. For organizational commitment (OC), the kurtosis was $-.666$ and the C.R. was -3.381 . For turnover intention (TI), the kurtosis was $-.668$ and the C.R. was -3.395 . Thus, all the variables exhibited multivariate normal data distributions in SEM analysis. The researcher used bootstrapping methods to maintain the multivariate normality of the constructs. Byrne (2010) stated that the bootstrapping technique is superior to the multivariate normality technique for overcoming multivariate non-normal data distributions. Therefore, bootstrapping with a sample of 5,000 was performed to obtain more accurate estimates.

3.19. Reliability of Scales and Subscales

To evaluate the reliability of each scale and its subscales, we utilized Cronbach's alpha (α) and composite reliability (CR) analysis. Cronbach's alpha measures the internal consistency and reliability of survey responses (Cohen, 2007; Maulod et al., 2017). Composite reliability examines how well a set of items or indicators measures a latent construct or factor that is not directly observable, such as attitude, motivation, or satisfaction. Higher composite reliability indicates that the items are more consistent in measuring the same construct. While Cronbach's alpha is often considered a lower bound estimate of reliability, composite reliability is more precise and realistic (Raykov, 1997). In this study, the scales and subscales exhibited high internal consistency and composite reliability, surpassing the recommended standard values of $\alpha = 0.7$ and $CR = 0.7$.

Table 4 presents the reliability and internal consistency of each scale and subscale in both the pilot study and the main study. In the main study, we calculated composite reliability (CR) for each scale and subscale using the factor loadings. The internal consistency of the items in the emotional intelligence scale and its subscales improved in the main study. The emotional intelligence scale had an alpha value of 0.83 and a composite reliability of 0.91, indicating a high level of internal consistency and composite reliability. However, the internal consistency (alpha) of the effective communication scale slightly decreased from the pilot study. The alpha coefficient for the five items in the effective communication scale decreased negligibly from $\alpha = 0.84$ in the pilot study to $\alpha = 0.81$ in the main study, and its composite reliability (CR) value was 0.81 in the main study.

The internal consistency or alpha values of the job motivation scale and its sub-scales showed no significant differences between the pilot and main study. However, there was a slight improvement in the internal consistency of the cheer love and career development sub-scale, which increased from 0.78 in the pilot study to 0.83 in the main study. The sub-scale salary (SAL) had six items with excellent internal consistency (alpha value of 0.88), the promotion sub-scale consisted of four items with excellent internal consistency (alpha value of 0.84), and the cheer love and career development sub-scale consisted of four items with high internal consistency (alpha value of 0.83). Overall, the job motivation scale, with a total of 14 refined

items, had an excellent alpha value of 0.85 and a composite reliability (CR) value of 0.95, indicating a high level of internal consistency and composite reliability in the main study sample.

Regarding job satisfaction and its sub-scales, there were no significant improvements in internal consistency between the pilot and main study. The financial rewards (FR) sub-scale, consisting of seven items, had an alpha value of 0.92, indicating high internal consistency. The relationships with co-workers (RWC) sub-scale, consisting of six items, had an internal consistency of 0.91, indicating excellent internal consistency. The relationships with supervisors (RWS) sub-scale, consisting of six items, had an alpha value of 0.90, indicating excellent or high reliability. The overall internal consistency and composite reliability of the job satisfaction scale and its sub-scales had excellent alpha values of 0.91, and the CR value of the scale was 0.97 in the main study.

In terms of organizational commitment, there was a slight decrease in internal consistency from 0.91 in the pilot study to 0.88 in the main study, which was a minor difference. The organizational commitment scale had a CR value of 0.88 in the main study. Instructors' turnover intention, measured with four items, showed significant differences in internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.79$ in the pilot study to $\alpha = 0.75$ in the main study), and the turnover intention scale had a CR value of 0.75 in the main study. Overall, the reliability and internal consistency, as measured by α and CR coefficients, of the scales and sub-scales were good to excellent, indicating a high level of internal consistency and composite reliability within this specific sample population.

Table 4. Reliability of Scales and Sub-scales as Measured in α and CR Coefficients.

Scales/Sub-Scales	No. of items	Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) in the pilot study (N= 327)	Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) in the main study (N= 619)	Composite reliability (CR) of the scale (N = 619)
Emotional intelligence scale	12	0.79	0.83	0.91
Emotional self-awareness	6	0.81	0.84	0.82
Emotional self-regulation	6	0.74	0.85	0.85
Effective communication	5	0.84	0.81	0.81
Job motivation scale	14	0.86	0.85	0.95
Salary	6	0.89	0.88	0.88
Promotion	4	0.87	0.84	0.85
Cheer love and career development	4	0.78	0.83	0.83
Job satisfaction scale	19	0.92	0.91	0.97
Financial rewards	7	0.91	0.92	0.92
Respect with co-workers	6	0.91	0.91	0.91
Relationships with Supervisors	6	0.92	0.90	0.90
Organizational commitment	6	0.91	0.88	0.88
Turnover intention scale	4	0.79	0.75	0.75

Note. α = Cronbach's alpha coefficient, CR = Composite reliability Coefficients

3.20. Validity of the Scales and Sub-Scales

According to Babey (2019), the validity of an item refers to how well it “measures or describes what it is supposed to measure or describe.” Validity is crucial for the achievement of research, as it determines the worth of a study, especially in questionable circumstances (Cheung et al., 2023). To increase the acceptability of the findings of this research work, the multiple validity of the instrument was checked. This section describes the methods and results of the validity assessment. The face validity was checked using the comments from the pilot study participants, the feedback from the supervisor, panelists, and classmates (Creswell, 2012). Based

on this, three items were removed from the content validity assessment: two items from job motivation and one item from job satisfaction. Then the content validity of the tools was examined by using the content validity index and ratio (CVI/R) (Lawshe, 1975). According to Lawshe, the I-CVI or CVR for each item should be greater or equal to 0.75. In addition to the face and content validity of the instrument for this study, the construct validity was examined using exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, which provided some evidence of construct validity (Messick, 1994). Construct validity is the extent to which a concept, idea, or behavior can be translated or transformed into a functioning and operating reality through operationalization. Convergent validity (AVE/CV) and discriminant validity (DV) are two components of construct validity. The convergent validity of the instrument was assessed using factor loadings (Burke & Larry, 2014). The factor loadings of each item with regard to its respective factors of average variance extracted (AVE) must be 0.5 or more than 0.5, which is a common criterion for convergent validity (Prudon, 2015). Similarly, the discriminant validity of the instrument was checked using factor loadings. To determine the discriminant validity of the constructs or the latent variables, we use the square root of AVE or average variance extracted (Cheung et al., 2023). The square root of AVE must be more than the correlations of the latent variables. Therefore, attention was paid to the validation processes to make the items relatively simple and contextualize them for the Ethiopian context, which was important for the main study. Table 5 shows the results.

Table 5. Construct Validity of Latent Variables as measured in AVE/CV and DV

Scales/Sub Scales	Construct Validity	
	Convergent Validity	Discriminant Validity
	(AVE/CV)	(DV)
Emotional intelligence scale	0.653	0.808
Emotional self-awareness	0.617	0.785
Emotional self-regulation	0.661	0.813
Effective communication	0.572	0.756
Job motivation scale	0.724	0.851
Salary	0.706	0.840
Promotion	0.714	0.845
Cheer love and career development	0.693	0.832
Job satisfaction scale	0.773	0.879
Financial rewards	0.753	0.868
Respect with co-workers	0.761	0.872
Relationships with Supervisors	0.741	0.861
Organizational commitment	0.699	0.836
Turnover intention scale	0.588	0.767

Note. AVE = \sum (standardized factor loadings²) ÷ Number of indicators, DV = the square root of AVE

Table 5 presents the construct validity of the study's latent variables, assessing both convergent and discriminant validity through factor loadings. We calculate the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) by summing the squares of the factor loadings and dividing by the indicator count, ensuring the square root of the AVE our measure for discriminant validity exceeds the inter-construct correlations. Consequently, Emotional Intelligence exhibits an AVE of 0.653 and DV of 0.808, reflecting robust validity. In parallel, Effective Communication demonstrates an AVE of 0.572 and a DV of 0.756, indicating strong validity. Similarly, Job Motivation, with an AVE of 0.724 and a DV of 0.851, and Job Satisfaction, with an AVE of 0.773 and a DV of 0.879, both signify substantial validity. Organizational Commitment, possessing an AVE of 0.699 and a DV of 0.836, and Turnover Intention, with an AVE of 0.588 and a DV of 0.767, also imply significant validity. Collectively, the sub-scales show AVEs surpassing 0.5 and DVs

exceeding their respective correlations, confirming the high construct validity of the latent variables in this study.

3.21. Data Collection Procedures

The researcher followed the following procedures for data collection. Firstly, a support letter and approval were obtained from Addis Ababa University, School of Psychology. Then, permission was required from university presidents, college deans, and department heads to administer the questionnaire. The researcher collected primary data from instructors with the assistance of department heads and academic staff. Before administering the questionnaire, instructors were asked for their consent and the purpose of the survey was explained. This ensured full support and easy retrieval of required information. To maximize the quality of information, a convenient time for respondents was considered. The Amharic language was used to make the questionnaire plain and understandable. Data collectors and the researcher distributed and collected data from teachers in public universities in Ethiopia. Participants were asked to provide genuine answers to all survey items. Completed questionnaires were collected and participants were thanked for their cooperation. Instructors who participated in the pilot study were excluded from the main study to prevent information sharing. Finally, the researcher organized and encoded the data using the social sciences statistical package SPSS, Jamovi, and AMOS, and completed the analysis.

3.22. Ethical Considerations

This research adhered to the highest standards of objectivity and integrity, following the policies and procedures of Addis Ababa University and the institutional review committee. The School of Psychology Ethical Clearance Committee approved this research with the reference number SoP-Eth-Co/08/2015. The study also respected the ethical principles of the Declaration of Helsinki. The researcher obtained the data collection permission from the university using the ethical clearance and the help letter from Addis Ababa University. The researcher also secured authorization and support letters from the administration, colleges, and departments of the sample universities, and made the necessary arrangements to collect the data. The ethical consent form provided information about the researcher, the research title, the significance, the methodology, and the type of participants. The consent form also informed the participants of their rights, their voluntary participation, and the protection of their rights. The participants

signed the written informed consent form after being informed and guided on how to complete the survey and the importance of their participation. A convenient time was allocated for collecting the completed questionnaires, which helped to prevent the low response rate typical of surveys. The data collected were kept confidential and anonymous. The participants were not asked their names; the questionnaires were coded; the informed consent was signed; and the research findings were presented objectively and in detail.

3.23. Data Analysis

Various statistical tools were used in this study, including SPSS version 25, JAMOVI version 2.3.2, and AMOS version 23, to analyze both descriptive and inferential statistics. Before analyzing the data, we conducted data cleaning to ensure accurate data entry. This involved removing response sheets with missing values and reverse scoring negatively worded items. We employed the estimation method to assess data distribution assumptions and evaluate data integrity. Additionally, we checked for outliers and reversed negatively worded items during the data cleaning process. The study also examined the impact of violating assumptions in parametric tests through empirical and theoretical analyses (Constantin & Jeffrey, 2017). Their research suggests that parametric statistics can be confidently used with Likert data, small sample sizes, unequal variance, and non-normal distribution without yielding incorrect conclusions (Constantin & Jeffrey, 2017).

However, it's important to note that the central limit theorem states that as sample sizes increase, the likelihood of violating parametric test assumptions decreases. In this study, we focused on the responses to scale-type items and used appropriate parametric tests accordingly. Additionally, we analyzed instructors' background characteristics using descriptive statistics, such as frequency counts. We assessed emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention among instructors in higher education institutions by calculating mean and standard deviations (Burke and Larry, 2014).

To examine the mediating roles of effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention, we employed structural equation modeling with maximum likelihood estimation. This modeling approach allows for simultaneous estimation of all unknown

parameters, tests the fit of the model to the data, and establishes statistical models that align closely with theoretical concepts, as suggested by (Rex Kline, 2016). To determine the levels of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention, we calculated mean and standard deviation scores using descriptive statistics. We conducted one-sample t-tests to assess statistical significance and examined Pearson correlations to explore the relationships between emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. Multiple linear regression analyses were performed to evaluate the independent and combined contributions of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment to turnover intention.

Furthermore, we used one-way ANOVA to investigate whether statistically significant differences existed among instructors' background characteristics (age, gender, educational status, marital status, and work experience) in relation to each of the six variables (emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention). To assess the strength of the identified statistical significance and related issues, we calculated effect size indicators, such as partial eta square for one-way ANOVA, zero-order correlation coefficient (r^2), and adjusted R^2 for regression analysis. Post-hoc calculations of statistically significant differences between groups mean scores were conducted using Tukey HSD analysis.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

This chapter reports the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants involved in the study, along with the frequencies and descriptive statistics related to these characteristics. It also analyzes the data on several variables, namely emotional intelligence (EI), effective communication (EC), job motivation (JM), job satisfaction (JS), organizational commitment (OC), and turnover intention (TI), using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Additionally, it explores the direct relationship between EI and each of the other variables, as well as the mediating roles of EC, JM, JS, and OC in the relationship between EI and TI. Moreover, it examines the independent and combined contributions of these mediating and independent variables to TI. Lastly, it investigates the significant differences in the mean values of the instructors' EI, EC, JM, JS, OC, and TI based on their socio-demographic characteristics.

4.1. Socio-Demographic Characteristics

The socio-demographic characteristics of participants are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. The Descriptive Characteristics of the Participants.

Variables	Age	Total Experience	University Experience	Marital Status	Educational Status
N	619	619	619	619	619
Mean	33.76	9.74	6.89	1.37	2.13
SD	5.76	5.46	3.98	.49	.50
Minimum	25.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum	60.00	33.00	20.00	3.00	4.00

As Table 6 shows, 619 instructors took part in this study. Their ages ranged from 25 to 60 years, with a mean of 33 and a standard deviation of 5.76. Their total work experience varied from 1 to 33 years, with a mean of 9.74 and a standard deviation of 5.46. They also had different lengths of teaching experience in a university, from 1 to 20 years, with a mean of 6.89 and a standard deviation of 3.98.

Table 7. The Frequency of Socio-demographic Characteristics of the Respondents.

Variables		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Female	154	24.9
	Male	465	75.1
	Total	619	100.0
Age	25-35 years	414	66.9
	36-45 years	186	30.0
	46-55 years	17	2.7
	56 & above years	2	0.3
	Total	619	100
Marital Status	Married	394	63.7
	Unmarried	221	35.7
	Divorced	4	0.6
	Total	619	100.0
Educational Status	Ass. Lecturer	38	6.1
	Lecturer	468	75.6
	PhD/Ass. Professor	108	17.4
	Associate Professor	5	0.8
	Total	619	100.0
Total work experience	1-5 years	168	27.1
	6-10 years	236	38.1
	11-15 years	119	19.2
	16-20 years	77	12.4
	21 and above years	19	3.1
	Total	619	100.0
University work experiences	1-5 years	291	47.0
	6-10 years	222	35.9
	11-15 years	88	14.2
	16-20 years	18	2.9
	Total	619	100.0

Table 7, presented above, provides an overview of the instructor demographics and characteristics. The data includes a total of 619 instructors, 465 (75.1%) male and 154 (24.9%) female. All participants completed the survey questionnaires satisfactorily. The frequency table shows that most instructors, 414 (66.9%), were aged 25–35 years. Another 186 (30%) instructors were in the 36–45-year age range, while only 17 (2.7%) instructors were in the 46–55-year age range. A negligible 2 (0.3%) instructors were aged 56 or above. The frequency analysis also reveals the marital status of the instructors. A majority, 394 (63.7%), were married, 221 (35.7%) were unmarried, and 4 (0.6%) were divorced. The frequency table also indicates the academic ranks of the instructors. Specifically, 38 (6.1%) instructors were assistant lecturers, 468 (75.6%) were lecturers, 108 (17.4%) had a PhD or assistant professorship, and 5 (0.8%) instructors were associate professors. Regarding their overall work experience, 168 (27.1%) instructors had 1–5 years of experience, 236 (38.1%) had 6–10 years of experience, 119 (19.2%) had 11–15 years of work experience, 77 (12.4%) had 16–20 years of experience, and 19 (3.1%) instructors had 21 years or more of total work experience. The analysis also covers their specific work experience within the university setting. A total of 291 (47%) instructors had 1–5 years of university experience, 222 (35.9%) had 6–10 years, 88 (14.2%) had 11–15 years, and 18 (2.9%) instructors had 16–20 years of university work experience. In summary, the data in Table 7 provides comprehensive insights into the demographics and characteristics of the instructors, such as gender, age, marital status, academic rank, and work experience both in general and within the university context.

4.2. The Levels of Emotional Intelligence, Effective Communication, Job Motivation, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Turnover Intention of Instructors

The first purpose of this study was to examine the instructors' levels of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. To do this, one sample t-test was computed and the results are presented in Table 8 below.

Table 8. The Level of Emotional Intelligence, Effective Communication, Job Motivation and Job Satisfaction Influencing Instructors' Organizational Commitment (N = 619).

Variables	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Expected Mean	Df	Sig
Test value							
Emotional intelligence	619	57.96	11.94	20.75	48	618	0.000
Turnover intention	619	12.19	3.63	1.32	12	618	0.188
Effective communication	619	14.77	3.96	-1.38	15	618	0.166
Organizational commitment	619	17.89	5.71	-.457	18	618	0.648
Job motivation	619	26.48	6.73	-31.45	35	618	0.000
Job satisfaction	619	40.65	9.25	-18.40	47.5	618	0.000

*** Levels of significance are at .000(2-tailed); EI = emotional intelligence, EC = effective communication, JM = job motivation, JS = job satisfaction, OC = organizational commitment.

As Table 8 shows, one sample t-test results indicated that instructors' emotional intelligence had a significantly higher observed mean score value (57.96) than the expected mean test value (48). This implies that instructors in this sample group had high emotional intelligence, which theoretically means they were emotionally stable and could understand their own and others' behavior in their organizations. The empirical and theoretical evidence suggests that emotional intelligence reduces the intention to turnover. Conversely, one sample t-test results showed that instructors' effective communication had a lower observed mean score value (14.77) than the expected mean test value (15). This indicates that instructors had a low level of effective communication, which increases the intention to turnover. Similarly, one sample t-test results revealed that instructors' job motivation had a significantly lower observed mean score value (26.48) than the expected mean test value (35). This means that instructors had a low level of job motivation, which was directly related to their intention to turnover. In other words, lower job motivation led to higher intention to leave. Moreover, one sample t-test results demonstrated that instructors' job satisfaction had a significantly lower observed mean score value (40.65) than the expected mean test value (47.5). This implies that instructors had a low level of job satisfaction, which increased their intention to turnover as job satisfaction decreased. Likewise, one sample t-test results showed that instructors' organizational commitment had a lower observed mean score value (17.89) than the expected mean test value (18) but not statistically significant. This indicates that instructors had a low level of organizational commitment, which also increased

their turnover intention. Additionally, one sample t-test results indicated that instructors' turnover intention had a higher observed mean score value (12.19) than the expected mean test value (12). This means that instructors had a higher level of turnover intention. In summary, the results of one sample t-test in Table 8 suggested that instructors had a significantly higher level of emotional intelligence, but significantly lower levels of job motivation and job satisfaction. Furthermore, instructors had a non-significantly higher level of turnover intention, and a non-significantly lower levels of effective communication and organizational commitment.

4.3. Zero-order Correlations among the variables

The second purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between instructors' emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. We used the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient to test the significance of this relationship and presented the results in Table 9.

Table 9. Means, SDs, and Inter-correlations

Variables	Mean	SD	EI	C	JM	JS	OC	TI
EI	57.96	11.94	1					
EC	14.78	3.97	.182**	1				
JM	26.48	6.74	.203**	.300**	1			
JS	40.66	9.75	.200**	.458**	.600**	1		
OC	17.89	5.71	.360**	.389**	.454**	.412**	1	
TI	12.19	3.63	-.343**	-.113**	-.369**	-.220**	-.440**	1

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), N = 619. EI = emotional intelligence, EC = effective communication, JM = job motivation, JS = job satisfaction, OC = organizational commitment, TI = turnover intention.*

According to the findings presented in Table 9, the results of the Pearson correlation coefficient analysis indicate a statistically significant and negative relationship between instructors' emotional intelligence and their turnover intentions ($r = -0.343$, $p < 0.01$). This suggests that as instructors' emotional intelligence increases, their turnover intention decreases. Additionally, a statistically significant weak negative relationship was observed between instructors' effective communication and turnover intention ($r = -0.113$, $p < 0.01$). Similarly, the correlation analysis in Table 9 reveals a statistically significant and negative relationship between instructors' job motivation and their turnover intention ($r = -0.203$, $p < 0.01$). This implies that as instructors' job motivation increases, their turnover intention decreases.

Furthermore, a significant and negative relationship was found between instructors' job satisfaction and their intention to turnover ($r = -0.220, p < 0.01$). This indicates that as instructors' job satisfaction increases, their intention to leave significantly decreases. Lastly, there was a statistically significant and negative relationship between instructors' organizational commitment and their turnover intention ($r = -0.440, p < 0.01$). This demonstrates that when instructors' organizational commitment increases, their turnover intention significantly decreases.

Moreover, the analysis conducted on the data in Table 9 shows a significant positive relationship between instructors' emotional intelligence and their effective communication ($r = 0.182, p < 0.01$). This indicates that as instructors' emotional intelligence increases, their effective communication also increases. Similarly, the correlation analysis indicates a statistically significant and positive relationship between instructors' emotional intelligence and their job motivation ($r = 0.203, p < 0.01$). Likewise, there is a positive and statistically significant relationship between instructors' emotional intelligence and their job satisfaction ($r = 0.200, p < 0.01$). Similarly, the correlation analysis indicates a statistically significant positive relationship between instructors' emotional intelligence and their organizational commitment ($r = 0.360, p < 0.01$). This implies that as instructors' emotional intelligence increases, their job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment also significantly increase.

Furthermore, the analysis reveals a significant positive relationship between instructors' effective communication and their job motivation ($r = 0.300, p < 0.01$). This suggests that as instructors' effective communication increases, their job motivation also increases. Additionally, a statistically significant positive relationship is found between instructors' effective communication and their job satisfaction ($r = 0.458, p < 0.01$). This indicates that as instructors' effective communication increases, their job satisfaction also increases. Similarly, the analysis results indicate a statistically significant and positive relationship between instructors' effective communication and organizational commitment ($r = 0.389, p < 0.01$). This demonstrates that as instructors' effective communication increases, their organizational commitment also increases.

Moreover, the correlation analysis reveals a statistically significant strong and positive relationship between instructors' job motivation and their job satisfaction ($r = 0.600, p < 0.01$). Additionally, a significant positive relationship is observed between instructors' job motivation and their organizational commitment ($r = 0.367, p < 0.01$). Furthermore, the analysis results in Table 9 indicate a statistically significant and positive relationship between instructors' job

satisfaction and their organizational commitment ($r = 0.454, p < 0.01$). This suggests that as instructors' job satisfaction increases, their organizational commitment also increases. In conclusion, emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment are all positively related to each other. This implies that as one of these factors increases, the others also increase, indicating a mutual influence. However, it is worth noting that turnover intention has a negative relationship with the independent and mediating variables. In summary, the correlation results presented in Table 9 demonstrate that instructors with strong emotional intelligence, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment are less likely to have an intention to leave their organization. Therefore, based on this data, instructors' emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment are positively interconnected, while their turnover intention behavior is inversely and significantly related to these independent and mediating variables.

4.4. Results of Mediation Analysis

The third purpose of this study was to examine the total, direct, indirect, and specific indirect effects of instructors' emotional intelligence (EI), effective communication (EC), job motivation (JM), job satisfaction (JS), and organizational commitment (OC) on their turnover intention (TI). Meditational analysis was performed. The direct effects of emotional intelligence on effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention were examined. Similarly, the direct effects of effective communication, job motivation, and job satisfaction on organizational commitment were examined. Table 10 shows the results of testing the direct, indirect and specific indirect effects of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, and job satisfaction on organizational commitment and turnover intention.

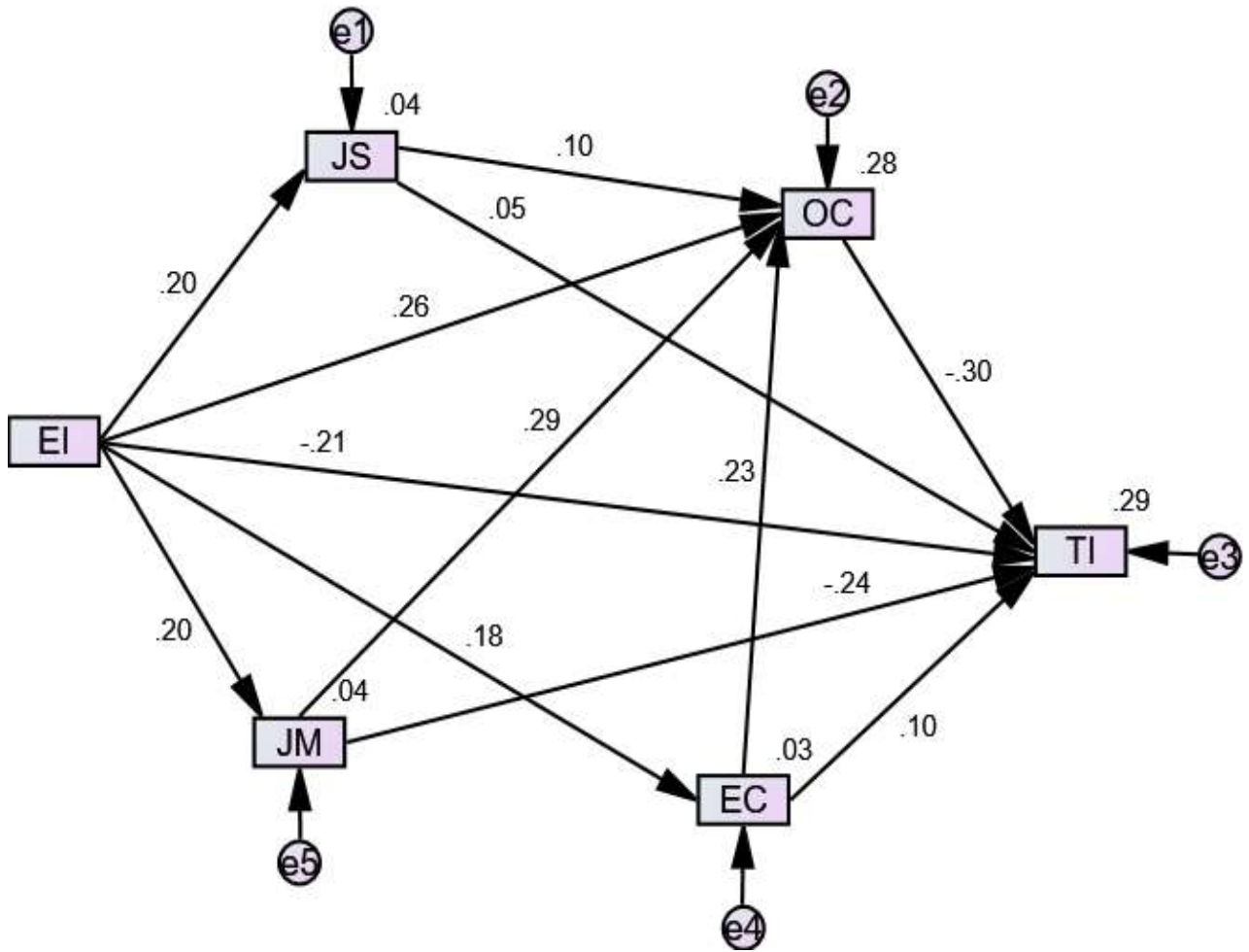


Figure 4. Path Model

Table 10. Test for Mediation Using a Bootstrap Analysis with a 95% Confidence Interval.

Relationships	Standardized Total effects		Standardized Direct effects		Standardized Indirect effects		Specific Indirect effects				
	β	P	β	P	β	P	B	T	P	BCCI	Conclusion
EI→JM	.207	***	.207	***							
EI→EC	.179	***	.179	***							
EI→JS	.206	***	.206	***							
EI→OC	.375	***	.251	***	.124	***					Par.mediation
EI→TI	-.341	***	-.206	***	-.136	***					Par.mediation
JM→OC	.294	***	.294	***							
EC→OC	.239	***	.239	***							
JS→OC	.099	.054	.099	.054							
JM→TI	-.337	***	-.250	***	-.087	***					Par.mediation
EC→TI	.022	.590	.092	.026	-.071	***					Par. mediation
JS→TI	.022	.617	.051	.262	-.029	.05					Ful.mediation
OC→TI	-.296	***	-.296	***							
EI→JS→OC→TI							-.003	-1.5	.042	-.007-.000	Par.mediation
EI→JS→OC							.009	1.5	.042	.000-.022	Par. mediation
JS→OC→TI							-.018	-1.8	.050	-.040-.000	Ful.mediation
EI→JM→OC→TI							-.008	-2.7	***	-.014-.004	Par.mediation
EI→JM→OC							.028	4	***	.015-.044	Par.mediation
JM→OC→TI							-.053	-4.8	***	-.078-.033	Par.mediation
EI→EC→OC→TI							-.006	-3	***	-.011-.003	Par.mediation
EI→EC→OC							.020	3.3	***	.010-.034	Par.mediation
EC→OC→TI							-.081	-4.5	***	-.121-.048	Par.mediation
EI→JS→TI							.005	1	.221	-.003-.016	no mediation
EI→OC→TI							-.034	-4.9	***	-.049-.022	Par. mediation
EI→JM→TI							-.024	-3.4	***	-.039-.013	Par. mediation
EI→EC→TI							.008	2	.017	.001-.017	Par. mediation

EI = emotional intelligence, EC = effective communication, JM = job motivation, JS = job satisfaction, OC = organizational commitment, TI = turnover intention.

As shown in Table 10, the total, direct, indirect, and specific indirect regression effects of the independent and mediating variables on the dependent variable are illustrated and briefly explained as follows:

4.4.1. The Standardized Total Effects of Emotional Intelligence on Turnover Intention and Mediating Variables

A mediation analysis was conducted to examine the mediating roles of effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention. The results, as presented in Table 10, demonstrated that emotional intelligence had a statistically significant and negative standardized total effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.341$, $t = -9.47$, $P < .001$). Furthermore, the overall effects of emotional intelligence on effective communication ($\beta = .179$, $t = 4.16$, $P < .001$), job motivation ($\beta = .207$, $t = 4.93$, $P < .001$), job satisfaction ($\beta = .206$, $t = 5.02$, $P < .001$), and organizational commitment were all statistically significant and positive ($\beta = .375$, $t = 9.87$, $P < .001$), respectively. Additionally, the standardized total effects of job motivation and organizational commitment on turnover intention were found to be statistically significant and negative, with values of JM ($\beta = -.337$, $t = -8.02$, $P < .001$) and OC ($\beta = -.296$, $t = -8$, $P < .001$), respectively. However, the standardized total effects of effective communication and job satisfaction on turnover intention were not statistically significant and positive, with values of EC ($\beta = .022$, $t = .52$, $P > .05$) and JS ($\beta = .022$, $t = .46$, $P > .05$), respectively. Moreover, the standardized total effects of job motivation and effective communication on organizational commitment were statistically significant and positive, with values of JM ($\beta = .294$, $t = 6.68$, $P < .001$) and EC ($\beta = .239$, $t = 5.31$, $P < .001$), respectively. Conversely, job satisfaction had an insignificant and positive standardized total effect on organizational commitment ($\beta = .099$, $t = 1.87$, $P > .05$).

4.4.2. The Standardized Direct Effects of Emotional Intelligence on Turnover Intention and Mediating Variables

Based on the information presented in the table above, it can be observed that emotional intelligence has a significant and negative direct effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.206$, $t = -5.57$, $P < .001$). Similarly, as indicated in Table 10, emotional intelligence has significant and positive direct effects on effective communication ($\beta = .179$, $t = 4.16$, $P < .001$), job motivation ($\beta = .207$, $t = 4.93$, $P < .001$), job satisfaction ($\beta = .206$, $t = 5.02$, $P < .001$), and organizational commitment ($\beta = .375$, $t = 9.87$, $P < .001$), respectively.

=.207, $t = 4.93$, $P < .001$), job satisfaction ($\beta = .206$, $t = 5.02$, $P < .001$), and organizational commitment ($\beta = .251$, $t = 6.61$, $P < .001$). Furthermore, effective communication also demonstrates a statistically significant direct effect on organizational commitment ($\beta = .239$, $t = 5.31$, $P < .001$). Similarly, job motivation has a significant direct effect on organizational commitment ($\beta = .294$, $t = 6.68$, $P < .001$), while job satisfaction does not show a statistically significant direct effect on organizational commitment ($\beta = .099$, $t = 1.87$, $P > .05$). Table 10 provides evidence that emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, and organizational commitment have significant direct effects on turnover intention. However, the direct effect of job satisfaction on turnover intention is insignificant ($\beta = .051$, $t = 1.09$, $P > .05$). The direct effects of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, and organizational commitment on turnover intention are as follows: $\beta = -.206$, $t = -5.57$, $P < .001$; $\beta = .092$, $t = 2.24$, $P < .05$; $\beta = -.250$, $t = -5.56$, $P < .001$; and $\beta = -.296$, $t = -8$, $P < .001$, respectively. Therefore, as presented in Table 10, the effects of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, and organizational commitment on turnover intention are statistically significant ($P < .001$, $P < .05$). However, the effect of job satisfaction on turnover intention is not statistically significant ($P > .05$). Moreover, when considering the mediating variables, the effects of emotional intelligence, effective communication, and job motivation on organizational commitment remain statistically significant ($P < .001$). However, the effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment is not statistically significant ($P > .05$).

4.4.3. The Mediating Roles of Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment between Emotional Intelligence and Turnover Intention

We examined the impact of emotional intelligence (EI) on turnover intention (TI) in this study, considering the mediating factors of job satisfaction (JS) and organizational commitment (OC). The results demonstrated a statistically significant and negative indirect effect of EI on TI ($\beta = -.003$, $t = -1.5$, $p < .05$). The direct effect of EI on TI was also negative and significant, as indicated in Table 10. Therefore, both the indirect and direct effects of EI on TI were negative and significant, suggesting the presence of partial mediation and serial mediation. This means that JS and OC act as mediators in the relationship between EI and TI. Similarly, the indirect effect of EI on OC through the mediation of JS was statistically significant and positive ($\beta = .009$, $t = 1.5$, $P < .05$), as was the direct effect of EI on OC. These outcomes imply that the

relationship between EI and OC is partially mediated by JS. Moreover, the indirect effect of JS on TI through the mediation of OC was significant and negative ($\beta = -.018$, $t = -1.8$, $P < .05$), while the direct effect of JS on TI was statistically insignificant, as illustrated in the accompanying table. These results indicate a statistically significant mediating relationship between JS and TI. On the other hand, the direct effect of JS on OC was not significant, but the indirect effect on TI was significant. This suggests a fully mediating relationship between JS and TI through OC.

4.4.4. The Mediating Role of Job Motivation and Organizational Commitment between Emotional Intelligence and Turnover Intention

The indirect effects of emotional intelligence on turnover intention through the serial mediations of job motivation and organizational commitment. The results showed that emotional intelligence had a negative and statistically significant indirect effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.008$, $t = -2.7$, $P < .001$), as well as a significant direct effect. This indicated a partial mediation of the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention. Moreover, emotional intelligence had a positive and statistically significant indirect effect on organizational commitment through the mediation of job motivation ($\beta = .028$, $t = 4$, $P < .001$), and a significant direct effect. This implied that job motivation mediated the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. Finally, job motivation had a negative and statistically significant indirect effect on turnover intention via the mediation of organizational commitment ($\beta = -.053$, $t = -4.8$, $P < .001$), and a significant direct effect. This revealed a partial mediation of the relationship between job motivation and turnover intention.

4.4.5. The Mediating Roles of Effective Communication and Organizational Commitment between Emotional Intelligence and Turnover Intention

Emotional intelligence had a statistically significant indirect effect on turnover intention through serial mediation of effective communication and organizational commitment ($\beta = -.006$, $t = -3$, $P < .001$). Emotional intelligence also influenced turnover intention directly, as shown by the significant coefficient of the regression model. Therefore, these two factors partially mediated this relationship. Emotional intelligence increased organizational commitment indirectly by improving communication, as the data analysis showed ($\beta = .020$, $t = 3.3$, $P < .001$). Emotional intelligence also had a positive and significant direct effect on organizational

commitment. Thus, effective communication partially mediated the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. Effective communication reduced turnover intention indirectly by enhancing organizational commitment, as indicated by the negative and significant indirect effect ($\beta = -.081$, $t = -4.5$, $P < .001$). Effective communication also lowered turnover intention directly, as evidenced by the negative and significant direct effect. Consequently, organizational commitment played a partial mediating role in the relationship between effective communication and turnover intention.

4.4.6. The Mediating Role of Effective Communication, Job Satisfaction, Job Motivation, and Organizational Commitment between Emotional Intelligence and Turnover Intention (Parallel Mediation)

The influence of emotional intelligence on turnover intention was examined, considering its indirect and direct effects and the role of mediating variables. First, the study found that the indirect effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention through job satisfaction mediation was not significant ($\beta = .005$, $t = 1$, $P > .05$), indicating no substantial impact. Conversely, the direct effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention was statistically significant and negative, suggesting a clear relationship between the two variables. Moreover, it was observed that the direct effects of emotional intelligence were significant, while the indirect effects on turnover intention were not. Consequently, it can be concluded that job satisfaction does not mediate the association between emotional intelligence and turnover intention. Despite the significant and negative direct effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention, a different mediating factor, organizational commitment, demonstrated a statistically significant indirect effect ($\beta = -.034$, $t = -4.9$, $P < .001$). This finding indicates that both the direct and indirect effects are significant, thereby indicating partial mediation (Zhao et al., 2010). Similarly, the study found a statistically significant and negative indirect effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention through the mediation of job motivation ($\beta = -.024$, $t = -3.4$, $P < .001$), alongside a significant and negative direct effect. Thus, both the direct and indirect effects were found to be significant, suggesting partial mediation (Zhao et al., 2010).

Furthermore, the indirect effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention was statistically significant ($\beta = .008$, $t = 2$, $P < .05$) when mediated by effective communication. Additionally, the direct effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention was significant and

negative ($\beta = -.206$, $t = -5.57$, $P < .001$). Consequently, both the direct and indirect effects were found to be statistically significant, indicating partial mediation (Zhao et al., 2010). Overall, the study reveals that emotional intelligence has both direct and indirect effects on turnover intention. While job satisfaction does not mediate this relationship, organizational commitment, job motivation, and effective communication were identified as significant mediators. These findings highlight the importance of considering multiple factors when examining turnover intention in relation to emotional intelligence (Zhao et al., 2010).

4.5. Results of Hierarchical Multiple Linear Regression

The fourth purpose of this study was to examine how instructors' intention to turnover is predicted by their emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in Ethiopian public universities. Hierarchical multiple linear regression was used to test this, as shown in Table 11.

Table 11. Hierarchical Multiple Regression results for Turnover Intention.

Variables	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Age	-.979	.306	-.149**	-.925	.292	-.1411**	-.619	.282	-.094*	-.657	.271	-.100*
Gender	.585	.331	.070	.436	.316	.052	.180	.304	.021	.181	.292	.022
MS	.311	.299	.043	-.038	.290	-.005	.146	.278	.020	.161	.267	.022
ES	.691	.335	.095*	.931	.320	.129**	.617	.309	.085*	.567	.297	.078
WE	-.908	.210	-.203***	-.727	.201	-.162***	-.610	.193	-.136**	-.497	.186	-.111**
EI				-.092	.012	-.303***	-.078	.012	-.257***	-.056	.012	-.185***
EC				-.039	.035	-.043	.028	.037	.031	.088	.036	.096*
JM							-.163	.024	-.303***	-.119	.024	-.220***
JS							.004	.019	.011	.016	.018	.042
OC										-.192	.027	-.303***
R ²	.076			.166			.241			.301		
ΔR^2	.076***			.090***			.075***			.060***		
F	10.133***			32.934***			30.025***			52.234***		

*Dependent variable: Turnover Intention. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001 (2-tailed). MS = marital status, ES = educational status, and WE = work experience.*

The hierarchical multiple regression analysis in this study follows a structured approach to evaluate the contribution of various sets of variables to the prediction of the dependent variable. As shown in Table 11, we interpret the results across four models, with sociodemographic variables as controlled variables, and additional personal-related, job-related, and organizational-related variables entered in subsequent models.

In the first model, only sociodemographic variables (age, gender, MS, ES, and WE) are included. This model explains 7.6% of the variance in the dependent variable ($R^2 = .076$), which is statistically significant ($F(5, 613) = 10.133, p < .001$). Significant predictors in this model are age ($\beta = -.149, t = -3.196, p < 0.01$), ES ($\beta = .095, t = 2.065, p < 0.05$), and WE ($\beta = -.203, t = -4.323, p < 0.00$), indicating that older age and WE are associated with lower scores in turnover intention, while educational status is associated with higher scores. Gender and Marital Status are not significant predictors.

In the second model, EI and EC are added. This model explains 16.6% of the variance ($R^2 = .166$), with an additional 9.0% of the variance explained by EI and EC ($\Delta R^2 = .090$, $p < .001$). The model remains statistically significant overall ($F(2,611) = 32.934$, $p < .001$). Age, educational status, and work experience continue to be significant predictors, although the effects of age and WE significantly reduce turnover intention. EI emerges as a significant negative predictor ($\beta = -.303$, $t = -7.690$, $p < 0.001$), indicating that higher emotional intelligence is associated with lower scores. EC, however, is not a significant predictor in this model.

In the third model, JM and JS are added. This model explains 24.1% of the variance ($R^2 = .241$), with an additional 7.5% of the variance explained by JM and JS ($\Delta R^2 = .075$, $p < .001$). The model remains statistically significant overall ($F(2,609) = 30.025$, $p < .001$). Age and work experience continue to be significant negative predictors, while educational status remains a positive predictor. EI remains a significant negative predictor ($\beta = -.257$, $t = -6.710$, $p < 0.001$). JM is introduced as a significant negative predictor ($\beta = -.303$, $t = -6.679$, $p < 0.001$), indicating that higher job motivation is associated with lower scores. EC and JS are not significant predictors in this model.

In the final model, organizational commitment (OC) is added. This model explains 30.1% of the variance ($R^2 = .301$), with an additional 6% of the variance explained by OC ($\Delta R^2 = .060$, $p < .001$). The model remains significant overall ($F(1,608) = 52.234$, $p < .001$). Age, ES, and WE continue to be significant predictors, though the effects are slightly reduced. EI continues to be a significant negative predictor ($\beta = -.185$, $t = -4.869$, $p < 0.001$). EC becomes a significant positive predictor ($\beta = .096$, $t = 2.428$, $p < 0.05$), suggesting that higher effective communication is associated with higher scores. JM remains a significant negative predictor ($\beta = -.220$, $t = -4.888$, $p < 0.001$), and OC emerges as a significant negative predictor ($\beta = -.303$, $t = -7.227$, $p < 0.001$), indicating that higher organizational commitment is associated with lower scores. Job Satisfaction remains non-significant.

To assess the unique contribution of each variable to the final model, we examine the coefficients and their significance. Emotional intelligence independently accounted for -18.5% of the variance in instructors' turnover intention. Job motivation contributed -22%, and organizational commitment accounted for -30.3% of the total variance. Effective communication contributed 9.6%, while job satisfaction accounted for 4.2% of the variance. These findings highlight the significant roles of emotional intelligence, job motivation, and organizational

commitment in predicting instructors' turnover intention, while effective communication and job satisfaction have less influence.

In conclusion, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis reveals that sociodemographic variables such as age, educational status (ES), and work experience (WE) significantly predict the dependent variable. The inclusion of personal, job-related, and organizational variables substantially increases the model's explanatory power. Emotional intelligence consistently predicts lower scores on the dependent variable, while effective communication becomes a positive predictor in the final model. Job motivation and organizational commitment significantly influence the dependent variable, both showing negative relationships. This analysis underscores the complex interplay between sociodemographic, personal, job-related, and organizational factors in predicting the dependent variable.

4.6. Results of Independent Sample T-Test

The fifth purpose of the study was to examine the effect of gender on instructors' emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. An independent sample t-test was conducted for this purpose and the results are shown in Table 12.

Table 12. EI, EC, JM, JS, OC, and TI differences between females (N= 154) and males (N= 465).

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variance				T-test for Equality of Means						
DV	IV	Mean	SD	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)	MD	SED	95% CID	
											Lower	Upper
EI	Female	58.32	11.28	1.48	.224	.430	617	.668	.477	1.11	-1.70	2.66
	Male	57.84	12.16									
EC	Female	14.54	4.31	4.44	.036	-.70	617	.484	-.26	.369	-.984	.466
	Male	14.84	3.85									
JM	Female	27.48	6.31	1.85	.175	2.12	617	.034	1.33	.625	.099	2.55
	Male	26.15	6.85									
JS	Female	41.29	9.61	.901	.343	.995	617	.320	.856	.860	-.834	2.545
	Male	40.44	9.13									
OC	Female	18.11	5.95	2.28	.132	.540	617	.590	.287	.531	-.757	1.330
	Male	17.82	5.64									
TI	Female	12.01	3.77	1.83	.177	-.71	617	.480	-.24	.337	-.902	.425
	Male	12.25	3.59									

Note: MD = Mean Difference, SED = Standard Error Difference, CID = Confidence Interval Difference

The analysis as shown in Table 12 compares mean differences in emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention between female and male instructors using an independent samples t-test. Among these variables, only job motivation showed a significant mean difference, with females ($M = 58.32$, $SD = 11.28$) scoring higher than males ($M = 57.84$, $SD = 12.16$), $t(617) = 1.48$, $p < 0.05$. The mean difference was 0.477 (CI: -1.70 to 2.66), and the effect size was small ($d = 0.202$). According to Cohen's guidelines, an effect size (Cohen's d) of 0.2 is considered small, 0.5 medium, and 0.8 large. Therefore, the effect size for job motivation ($d = 0.202$) indicates a small difference between females and males, suggesting that gender has a minor impact on job motivation in this sample. For job satisfaction, no significant mean difference was found, with females ($M = 41.29$, $SD = 9.61$) scoring slightly higher than males ($M = 40.44$, $SD = 9.13$), $t(617) = 0.901$, $p > 0.05$. The mean difference was 0.856 (CI: 0.834 to 2.545), and the effect size was negligible ($d = 0.091$). Similarly, no significant mean difference was found in effective communication ($F(617) = 4.44$, $p > 0.05$), with a negligible effect size ($d = -0.073$). Emotional intelligence also showed no significant mean difference ($F(617) = 1.845$, $p > 0.05$), with a negligible effect size ($d = 0.041$). For organizational commitment and turnover intention, no significant mean differences were observed. The effect sizes were negligible ($d = 0.050$ for organizational commitment and $d = -0.065$ for turnover intention). In summary, female instructors exhibited significantly higher job motivation than male instructors. However, no significant differences were found between male and female instructors in emotional intelligence, effective communication, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. The effect sizes for these variables were small, indicating negligible differences between males and females, except for job motivation, which showed a minimal difference.

4.7. Results of One-Way ANOVA Analysis

The final purpose of the study was to examine the influence of socio-demographic variables on instructors' emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted for this aim, and Table 13 shows the results.

Table 13. Descriptive Statistics of EI, ECO, JOM, JOS, ORC, and TOI. Mean Scores by Age Group

Variables	Age_Group	N	Mean	SD	F_Values (df)	P_Value
EI	25-35 years	414	56.3333	11.62489	9.317 (3,615)	.000
	36-45 years	186	61.5538	12.03283		
	46-55 years	17	59.6471	10.06815		
	56 & above years	2	46.0000	9.89949		
	Total	619	57.9596	11.94310		
EC	25-35 years	414	14.5459	3.94411	1.512 (3,615)	.210
	36-45 years	186	15.2473	4.02064		
	46-55 years	17	15.4118	3.95378		
	56 & above years	2	14.0000	1.41421		
	Total	619	14.7787	3.96968		
JM	25-35 years	414	25.8696	6.59058	5.022 (3,615)	.002
	36-45 years	186	27.6774	6.78577		
	46-55 years	17	27.1176	6.96314		
	56 & above years	2	37.5000	12.02082		
	Total	619	26.4847	6.73692		
JS	25-35 years	414	40.1449	9.30220	2.301 (3,615)	.076
	36-45 years	186	41.9731	9.15242		
	46-55 years	17	38.1176	8.24532		
	56 & above years	2	45.5000	2.12132		
	Total	619	40.6559	9.25316		
OC	25-35 years	414	17.4251	5.63180	2.897 (3,615)	.035
	36-45 years	186	18.8925	5.74966		
	46-55 years	17	18.4118	6.40370		
	56 & above years	2	18.0000	4.24264		
	Total	619	17.8950	5.71295		
TI	25-35 years	414	12.7174	3.57552	10.127 (3,615)	.000
	36-45 years	186	11.2043	3.48141		
	46-55 years	17	10.0000	3.80789		
	56 & above years	2	14.0000	4.24264		
	Total	619	12.1922	3.63285		

Table 13 presents the descriptive statistics, revealing that instructors in the age range of 36–45 obtained a higher mean score compared to instructors aged 25–35. Similarly, instructors in the age range of 36–45 scored higher than those in the age range of 46–55. This suggests that instructors in early adulthood have significantly higher emotional intelligence than those in young and late adulthood ($F(3,615) = 9.317, P < .01$). Post hoc pairwise comparisons further confirm that instructors aged 36–45 score significantly higher in emotional intelligence than those aged 25–35. These findings imply that instructors within the 36–45 age group possess a notably higher level of emotional intelligence. Likewise, instructors in the age range of 46–55 achieved a higher mean score than instructors aged 25–35, indicating that instructors in late adulthood possess more effective communication skills ($F(3,615) = 1.512, P > .05$). However, there was no statistically significant age difference in instructors' effective communication skills. Furthermore, Table 13 demonstrates that instructors aged 56 and above achieved higher mean scores than instructors aged 25–35 and instructors aged 36–45. Similarly, instructors aged 56 and above obtained higher mean scores than instructors aged 46–55, suggesting that as age increases, job motivation improves. However, the subsequent post hoc pairwise comparisons indicate that instructors aged 36–45 have significantly higher mean scores in job motivation than those aged 25–35 ($F(3,615) = 5.022, P < .01$). These findings suggest that instructors in the 36–45 age range exhibit higher job motivation within their working environment. Moreover, instructors aged 56 and above achieved higher mean scores than instructors aged 25–35 and instructors aged 36–45 in terms of job satisfaction. However, the ANOVA results indicate no statistically significant mean difference between instructors' age groups in terms of job satisfaction ($F(3,615) = 2.301, P > 0.05$).

The one-way ANOVA test results in Table 13 indicate a statistically significant difference in organizational commitment among instructors of different age groups ($F(3,615) = 2.897, P < .05$). Instructors aged 36–45 scored significantly higher in organizational commitment compared to those aged 25–35 and 46–55. Further analysis through post hoc pair comparisons confirms that instructors aged 36–45 achieve significantly higher mean scores in organizational commitment than those aged 25–35. These findings suggest that instructors in the 36–45 age group demonstrate a higher level of organizational commitment. Additionally, the descriptive statistics in Table 13 reveal that instructors aged 56 and above obtained higher mean scores than instructors aged 25–35. Similarly, instructors aged 56 and above achieved higher mean scores

than instructors aged 36–45 and 46–55. However, instructors in the age range of 25–35 had a significant higher mean score than instructors in the age ranges of 36–45 and 46–55, indicating a statistically significant mean score difference between instructors' age groups in terms of turnover intention ($F(3,615) = 10.127, P < .01$). Further examination through post hoc pair comparisons of means reveals that instructors aged 25-35 obtain significantly higher mean scores in turnover intention compared to instructors aged 36-45 and instructors aged 46-55. These findings suggest that turnover intention is more prevalent among younger instructors, specifically those aged 25–35, establishing a positive correlation between younger age and turnover intention behavior.

Notably, instructors aged 36–45 obtained significantly the highest mean scores in emotional intelligence, job motivation, and organizational commitment across the four age groups. However, it is worth noting that instructors in the age ranges of 25–35 exhibit a significantly higher intention to leave their organizations. This implies that instructors in their younger ages have a tendency to leave their organizations, possibly due to various reasons. Therefore, based on the descriptive statistics, it can be concluded that instructors' emotional intelligence, job motivation, organizational commitment, and turnover intention are significantly influenced by age factors. Consequently, a post-hoc test was conducted to examine the significant mean differences in these variables across age groups, and the results are presented in Table 13.

Table 14. Descriptive Statistics of EI, EC, JM, JS, OC, and Instructors' TI Scores Depend on Marital Status.

Variables	MS	N	Mean	SD	F_Vlues (df)	P_Values
EI	Married	394	59.9975	11.42149	16.662 (2, 616)	.000
	Unmarried	221	54.3484	11.91069		
	Divorced	4	56.7500	19.56826		
	Total	619	57.9596	11.94310		
EC	Married	394	14.7360	3.92699	.657 (2,616)	.519
	Unmarried	221	14.8145	4.04598		
	Divorced	4	17.0000	4.32049		
	Total	619	14.7787	3.96968		
JM	Married	394	26.3299	6.61041	.311 (2,616)	.733
	Unmarried	221	26.7692	7.00170		
	Divorced	4	26.0000	4.54606		
	Total	619	26.4847	6.73692		
JS	Married	394	40.6802	9.15983	.201 (2,616)	.818
	Unmarried	221	40.5611	9.49747		
	Divorced	4	43.5000	4.50925		
	Total	619	40.6559	9.25316		
OC	Married	394	18.1294	5.81093	1.802 (2,616)	.166
	Unmarried	221	17.4163	5.55129		
	Divorced	4	21.2500	.95743		
	Total	619	17.8950	5.71295		
TI	Married	394	11.8883	3.60629	3.840 (2,616)	.022
	Unmarried	221	12.7195	3.61726		
	Divorced	4	13.0000	4.69042		
	Total	619	12.1922	3.63285		

Table 14 presents the results of descriptive statistics, which indicate that married instructors outperformed unmarried instructors in terms of their scores. Furthermore, married instructors had a higher mean score than divorced instructors, while divorced instructors had a

higher mean score than unmarried instructors in relation to their emotional intelligence. These findings suggest that married instructors possess superior emotional intelligence compared to both unmarried and divorced instructors. The ANOVA analysis confirms a statistically significant mean difference among married, unmarried, and divorced instructors regarding their emotional intelligence ($F(2,616) = 16.662, P < 0.01$). A post-hoc pair comparison of means-tested showed that instructors who were married scored significantly higher than those who were unmarried.

Consequently, the descriptive statistics in Table 14 revealed that instructors who are divorced achieved a higher mean score than instructors who are married and unmarried in relation to their turnover intention. Similarly, instructors who are unmarried obtained a higher mean score than married instructors. Moreover, the mean differences between instructors' marital status in turnover intention were also statistically significant, ($F(2,616) = 3.804, P < 0.05$). A further post-hoc pair comparison of means-tested demonstrated that instructors who were unmarried scored significantly higher than those who were married. This finding suggests that unmarried instructors have a significantly higher turnover intention than unmarried and divorced instructors, while instructors who are divorced exhibit a relatively higher turnover intention than married instructors.

Furthermore, the descriptive statistics in Table 14 demonstrate that divorced instructors achieved higher mean scores in effective communication compared to married and unmarried instructors. Similarly, unmarried instructors obtained a higher mean score than married instructors. These results imply that divorced instructors exhibit greater effectiveness in communication skills compared to both married and unmarried individuals. Additionally, unmarried instructors are more effective in their communication skills than married instructors within their respective institutions or organizations. However, the ANOVA analysis indicates no statistically significant difference between married, unmarried, and divorced instructors in terms of their effective communication skills in their organizations ($F(2,616) = 0.657, P > 0.05$).

Likewise, the descriptive statistics indicate that divorced instructors achieved a higher mean score than married and unmarried instructors in terms of job motivation. Similarly, unmarried instructors obtained a higher mean score than married instructors. This suggests that divorced instructors exhibit higher levels of job motivation compared to both married and

unmarried instructors. Conversely, married instructors demonstrate lower motivation in their jobs. Nevertheless, the ANOVA analysis suggests no statistically significant mean difference between married, unmarried, and divorced instructors regarding their job motivations ($F(2,616) = 0.311, P > 0.05$).

Furthermore, the descriptive statistics in Table 14 demonstrate that divorced instructors achieved a higher mean score than married and unmarried instructors in relation to job satisfaction. Similarly, married instructors obtained a higher mean score than unmarried instructors. These findings indicate that divorced instructors experience higher levels of job satisfaction compared to both married and unmarried instructors. However, the ANOVA analysis suggests no statistically significant mean score difference between married, unmarried, and divorced instructors in terms of their job satisfaction ($F(2,616) = 0.201, P > 0.05$).

The results of the descriptive statistics indicate that divorced instructors achieved slightly higher mean scores than married and unmarried instructors, while married instructors achieved slightly higher mean scores than unmarried instructors in relation to their organizational commitment. However, the ANOVA analysis reveals no statistically significant mean difference between married, unmarried, and divorced instructors regarding their organizational commitment ($F(2,616) = 1.802, P > 0.05$).

Table 14. Descriptive Statistics of EI, EC, JM, JS, OC, and TI Mean Scores by Educational Status.

Variables	ES	N	Mean	SD	F_Values (df)	P_Values
EI	Assistant Lecturer	38	55.1316	12.74314	10.762 (3, 615)	.000
	Lecturer	468	56.8440	11.58357		
	Ph.D./Assi Professor	108	63.5648	11.59058		
	Associate Professor	5	62.8000	13.31165		
	Total	619	57.9596	11.94310		
EC	Assistant Lecturer	38	15.1316	4.38160	1.333 (3, 615)	.263
	Lecturer	468	14.6624	3.92834		
	Ph.D./Assi Professor	108	15.0185	3.99528		
	Associate Professor	5	17.8000	3.56371		
	Total	619	14.7787	3.96968		
JM	Assistant Lecturer	38	30.2368	6.05575	5.483 (3, 615)	.001
	Lecturer	468	25.9829	6.62968		
	Ph.D./Assi Professor	108	27.3333	7.06842		
	Associate Professor	5	26.6000	4.72229		
	Total	619	26.4847	6.73692		
JS	Assistant Lecturer	38	43.7895	8.78315	1.671 (3, 615)	.172
	Lecturer	468	40.5491	9.03264		
	Ph.D./Assi Professor	108	39.9907	10.32599		
	Associate Professor	5	41.2000	5.49545		
	Total	619	40.6559	9.25316		
OC	Assistant Lecturer	38	19.6316	6.50746	4.444 (3, 615)	.004
	Lecturer	468	17.4829	5.69474		
	Ph.D./Assi Professor	108	18.8241	5.31763		
	Associate Professor	5	23.2000	1.09545		
	Total	619	17.8950	5.71295		
TI	Assistant Lecturer	38	10.8947	3.17753	6.775 (3, 615)	.000
	Lecturer	468	12.5598	3.64992		
	Ph.D./Assi Professor	108	11.0926	3.41119		
	Associate Professor	5	11.4000	3.71484		
	Total	619	12.1922	3.63285		

The results presented in Table 15 demonstrate the descriptive statistics regarding instructors' emotional intelligence based on their educational level. Specifically, Ph.D./assistant professors exhibited higher mean scores compared to assistant lecturers in terms of emotional intelligence. Similarly, Ph.D./assistant professors scored higher than lecturers and associate professors. Moreover, assistant professors, lecturers, and associate professors, on average,

achieved higher scores than instructors with similar educational levels in relation to emotional intelligence. The results of the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), indicating statistically significant mean differences in emotional intelligence among instructors based on their educational levels ($F(3,615) = 10.782, P < 0.01$). Subsequent post hoc pair comparisons revealed that instructors with Ph.D./assistant professor educational levels obtained significantly higher mean scores than instructors with assistant lecturer and instructors with lecturer educational levels. However, no statistically significant mean difference was observed between instructors with associate professor educational levels. These findings suggest that instructors with Ph.D./assistant professor educational levels show significantly higher emotional intelligence compared to instructors with assistant lecturer, lecturer, and associate professor educational levels.

Similarly, as indicated by the descriptive statistics in Table 15, assistant lecturers achieved higher mean scores than lecturers, assistant professors, and associate professors in job motivation. Conversely, assistant professors exhibited a higher mean score than associate professors and lecturers. Notably, lecturers displayed relatively lower mean scores, suggesting a lower level of job motivation among individuals with the academic status of lecturer. The results of the one-way ANOVA showed statistically significant mean differences in job motivation among instructors based on their educational levels ($F(3,615) = 5.483, P < 0.05$). Post hoc pair comparisons indicated that instructors with assistant lecturer educational levels achieved significantly higher mean scores than instructors with lecturer educational levels. However, no statistically significant mean difference was found between instructors with assistant professor and associate professor educational levels. These results suggest that instructors with assistant lecturer educational levels possess higher levels of job motivation within their organizations.

Furthermore, the descriptive statistics in Table 15 show that associate professors achieved higher mean scores than assistant lecturers, lecturers, and assistant professors. Similarly, assistant professors obtained higher mean scores than lecturers and assistant professors. A significant mean difference was observed among instructors' academic statuses in relation to their organizational commitments ($F(3,615) = 4.444, P < 0.05$). However, post hoc pair comparisons did not reveal any statistically significant mean score differences between

instructors with assistant lecturer, lecturer, assistant professor, and associate professor educational levels.

The results of the descriptive statistics indicate that lecturers achieved higher mean scores than assistant lecturers, assistant professors, and associate professors in terms of turnover intentions. In this case, statistically significant mean differences were observed among instructors' educational levels, suggesting that instructors with the academic status of lecturer tend to have relatively higher turnover intentions compared to others ($F(3,615) = 6.775, P < 0.01$). Further analysis of post hoc pair comparisons indicated that instructors with lecturer educational levels achieved significantly higher mean scores than instructors with assistant lecturer and assistant professor educational levels. However, no significant mean differences were observed between instructors with associate professor educational levels in terms of their turnover intention.

Regarding job satisfaction, assistant lecturers scored higher than lecturers, assistant professors, and associate professors. Table 15 demonstrates that assistant lecturers and associate professors reported high levels of job satisfaction. Conversely, assistant professors expressed lower levels of job satisfaction. However, there was no statistically significant mean score difference between instructors with different educational levels concerning job satisfaction ($F(3,615) = 1.671, P > 0.05$). Additionally, the descriptive statistics in Table 15 indicate that assistant lecturers outperformed lecturers in terms of effective communication. Similarly, assistant lecturers achieved a slightly higher mean score than assistant professors or individuals with a Ph.D. degree. Likewise, associate professors scored higher than assistant professors, assistant lecturers, and lecturers. Despite the mean difference observed among instructors' academic statuses, there was no statistically significant difference in their effective communication abilities ($F(3,615) = 1.333, P > 0.05$).

Table 15. Descriptive Statistics of EI, EC, JM, JS, OC, and TI Behavior. Mean Scores by Years of Work Experience.

Variables	WE	N	Mean	SD	F_Values (df)	P_Value
EI	1-5 years	291	56.0172	11.64014	11.974 (3,615)	.000
	6-10 years	222	57.7568	11.69114		
	11-15 years	88	63.0455	12.08676		
	16-20 years	18	67.0000	7.99264		
	Total	619	57.9596	11.94310		
EC	1-5 years	291	14.6186	4.04401	5.920 (3,615)	.001
	6-10 years	222	14.9414	3.51096		
	11-15 years	88	14.1705	4.47013		
	16-20 years	18	18.3333	3.91077		
	Total	619	14.7787	3.96968		
JM	1-5 years	291	25.8110	6.66142	2.639 (3,615)	.049
	6-10 years	222	26.7072	5.97353		
	11-15 years	88	28.0114	8.47918		
	16-20 years	18	27.1667	6.33617		
	Total	619	26.4847	6.73692		
JS	1-5 years	291	40.5464	9.51263	.935 (3,615)	.423
	6-10 years	222	41.0721	8.50096		
	11-15 years	88	39.5227	10.25085		
	16-20 years	18	42.8333	8.80675		
	Total	619	40.6559	9.25316		
OC	1-5 years	291	16.7595	5.59346	7.487 (3,615)	.000
	6-10 years	222	18.9459	5.08718		
	11-15 years	88	18.7614	6.86319		
	16-20 years	18	19.0556	5.78509		
	Total	619	17.8950	5.71295		
TI	1-5 years	291	12.8454	3.69344	12.006 (3,615)	.000
	6-10 years	222	12.1532	3.34636		
	11-15 years	88	10.6591	3.63851		
	16-20 years	18	9.6111	2.68194		
	Total	619	12.1922	3.63285		

The results presented in Table 16 reveal important findings regarding the relationship between work experience and various factors. Specifically, the descriptive statistics indicate that instructors with 16–20 years of teaching experience achieved higher mean scores than those with 11–15 years of experience in terms of emotional intelligence. Additionally, instructors with 16–20 years of experience outperformed those with 6–10 years and 1–5 years of experience in the same regard. These results imply that emotional intelligence tends to increase as instructors gain more teaching experience. Furthermore, there was a statistically significant mean score difference between instructors' work experience and their emotional intelligence, as evidenced by

the ANOVA summary results ($F(3,615) = 11.947, P < 0.01$). The post hoc pair comparisons revealed that instructors with 11-15 years of experience achieved significantly higher mean scores than those with 1-5 years of experience. Similarly, instructors with 11-15 years of experience had higher mean scores than those with 6-10 years of experience. Additionally, instructors with 16-20 years of experience attained higher mean scores than those with 1-5 and 6-10 years of experience. However, there were no significant mean score differences between instructors with 6-10 years of experience and those with 1-5 years of experience, as well as between instructors with 16-20 years of experience and those with 11-15 years of experience. These findings suggest that instructors with 11-15 and 16-20 years of teaching experience demonstrate higher levels of emotional intelligence in their professional lives.

Moreover, the descriptive statistics in Table 16 confirm that instructors with 16–20 years of work experience achieved higher mean scores than those with 11–15 years of experience in terms of effective communication. Similarly, instructors with 16–20 years of experience scored higher than those with 6–10 years and 1–5 years of experience. The ANOVA summary results also suggest a statistically significant mean difference in effective communication based on instructors' work experience ($F(3, 615) = 5.920, P < 0.01$). Further analysis through post hoc pair comparisons revealed that instructors with 16-20 years of experience had significantly higher mean scores than those with 1-5 years of experience. Similarly, instructors with 16-20 years of experience achieved higher mean scores than those with 6-10 years of experience and 11-15 years of experience. However, there were no significant mean score differences between instructors with 1-5 years of experience and those with 6-10 and 11-15 years of experience. Likewise, no significant mean differences were found between instructors with 6-10 years of experience and those with 11-15 years of experience. These findings suggest that instructors with 16-20 years of work experience have higher levels of effective communication compared to instructors with other levels of experience.

Furthermore, the descriptive statistics demonstrate that instructors with 11–15 years of work experience achieved higher mean scores than those with 1–5 years of experience in terms of job motivation. Similarly, instructors with 11–15 years of experience outperformed those with 6–10 years of experience. Conversely, instructors with 11–15 years of experience achieved higher mean scores than those with 16–20 years of experience. The ANOVA summary results

indicate a statistically significant mean difference in job motivation based on instructors' years of work experience ($F(3, 615) = 2.639, P < 0.05$). The post hoc pair comparisons demonstrated that instructors with 11-15 years of experience achieved higher mean scores than those with 1-5 years of work experience. However, there were no statistically significant mean score differences between instructors with 1-5 years of work experience and those with 6-10 years of experience. Similarly, no significant mean score differences were found between instructors with 6-10 years of experience and those with 11-15 and 16-20 years of experience. These results suggest that instructors with 11-15 years of teaching experience exhibit higher levels of job motivation compared to instructors with other levels of experience.

Additionally, the descriptive statistics reveal that instructors with 16–20 years of work experience achieved higher mean scores than those with 1–5 years of experience in terms of job satisfaction. Similarly, instructors with 16–20 years of experience higher those with 6–10 years of experience. Likewise, instructors with 16–20 years of experience achieved higher mean scores than those with 11–15 years of experience. However, there were no statistically significant mean differences in job satisfaction among instructors with different levels of experience ($F(3, 615) = 0.935, P > 0.05$).

Similarly, instructors with 16–20 years of teaching experience achieved higher mean scores than those with 1–5 years and 6–10 years of experience in terms of their organizational commitment. As instructors' years of teaching experience increased, their commitment levels also increased. The ANOVA summary results indicate a statistically significant mean score difference in organizational commitment based on instructors' work experience ($F(3, 615) = 7.487, P < 0.01$). Further analysis through post hoc pair comparisons revealed that instructors with 6-10 years of work experience achieved higher mean scores than those with 1-5 years of experience. Similarly, instructors with 11-15 years of experience attained higher mean scores than those with 1-5 years of experience. However, there were no statistically significant mean differences between instructors with 1-5 years of experience and those with 16-20 years of experience. Likewise, no significant mean score differences were found between instructors with 6-10 years of experience and those with 11-15 and 16-20 years of experience. These findings indicate that instructors with 6-10 and 11-15 years of teaching experience display higher levels of organizational commitment compared to instructors with other levels of experience.

Likewise, the descriptive statistics demonstrate that instructors with 1–5 years of work experience achieved higher mean scores than those with 6–10 years of experience in terms of turnover intention. Similarly, instructors with 1–5 years of experience higher those with 11–15 years and 16–20 years of experience in the same regard. These results suggest that as instructors' years of work experience decrease, their intention to leave their positions increases. The ANOVA summary results support this finding, indicating a statistically significant mean difference in turnover intention based on instructors' years of teaching experience ($F(3,615)=12.006, P<0.01$). Further analysis through post hoc pair comparisons revealed that instructors with 1-5 years of experience achieved higher mean scores than those with 11-15 years of experience. Similarly, instructors with 1-5 years of experience attained higher mean scores than those with 16-20 years of experience. In contrast, instructors with 6-10 years of experience achieved significantly higher mean scores than those with 11-15 and 16-20 years of experience. However, there were no statistically significant mean differences between instructors with 1-5 years of experience and those with 6-10 years of experience, as well as between instructors with 11-15 years of experience and those with 16-20.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

This study investigates the relationships between emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention in Ethiopian higher education institutions. We utilized reliable and valid instruments and employed various statistical methods to address six research questions. In this section, we analyze and discuss the findings, drawing from the research questions and literature review. Additionally, we explore how effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment mediate the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention. Furthermore, we examine the impact of age, gender, education status, marital status, and work experience on the variables of interest among instructors. The discussion is organized into six subsections, each focusing on a specific set of variables and their associations. These subsections summarize the key findings from the data and compare them with previous studies in the field. They also provide an explanation for the observed relationships. However, it is important to note that this study is non-experimental, and therefore causality cannot be established. Instead, the emphasis is on identifying correlations and proposing plausible explanations for the observed phenomena. Despite this limitation, the findings of this study have significant implications for understanding turnover intention among instructors. We have employed academically rigorous and relevant sources in this study. In conclusion, this section offers a comprehensive analysis of the findings, based on the research questions, literature review, and the relationships among the variables. It also discusses the implications, limitations, and recommendations for the field and future research.

5.1. The Level of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention of instructors

The first research question of this study involved assessing the levels of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions among instructors in Ethiopian higher education institutions. The levels were analyzed using a t-test, as presented in Table 8. The results revealed a significantly high level of emotional intelligence among the instructors, which aligns with previous research conducted in various education settings. Imtiaz et al. (2016) found high levels

of emotional intelligence among instructors in Pakistan, while Wolle (2022) demonstrated the effectiveness of high emotional intelligence in Ethiopian public universities. Similarly, Khassawneh et al. (2022) reported the significant impact of emotional self-regulation on instructor behavior and student success in the United Arab Emirates.

Empirical and theoretical evidence suggests that higher emotional intelligence is associated with reduced turnover intention, as indicated by (Gara Bach Ouerdian et al., 2021). Instructors with high emotional intelligence are more likely to experience job satisfaction, support students' self-awareness, regulate emotions, foster social relationships, and possess effective communication skills (Roorda et al., 2011). Consequently, this study suggests that instructors with high emotional intelligence are more likely to have a positive perspective on their work environment, potentially leading to increased loyalty and decreased turnover rates. However, it is important to note that the high emotional intelligence observed among the instructors in this study does not necessarily imply low turnover intention. Some studies have presented contradictory perspectives, suggesting that instructors with higher emotional intelligence are more prone to leaving their jobs (Akhtar et al., 2017). Emotional intelligence is a multifaceted construct, and its different facets may impact turnover intention differently in varied contexts. For instance, Issah (2018) demonstrated a positive relationship between self-emotion appraisal, a component of emotional intelligence, and turnover intention among university lecturers in Ghana. Additionally, factors such as culture, gender, age, education, and experience may influence the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention. Williams (2021) examined online instructors who taught students remotely and found that these instructors utilized emotional intelligence skills to better manage themselves, establish positive emotional connections, and be more aware of their own and their students' thoughts.

Hence, it was expected that the instructors in this sample group would demonstrate emotional stability and the ability to comprehend their own and others' emotions within their higher education institutions. In conclusion, the results of this study indicated that the instructors possessed high levels of emotional intelligence, consistent with previous research conducted in diverse contexts. Nevertheless, the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention is not straightforward, as certain studies have suggested that higher emotional intelligence may actually increase the likelihood of leaving a job. Therefore, this study

concluded that emotional intelligence is a complex construct that may have different effects on turnover intention depending on various factors and contexts. Further research is recommended to explore the mechanisms and moderators of the emotional intelligence-turnover intention link, as well as the implications for policy and practice in higher education.

Moreover, the results presented in Table 8 indicate that the instructors' effective communication score is slightly lower than the expected mean, suggesting a lack of significant effective communication. This finding is concerning, as communication skills are crucial for successful teaching and learning. Instructors with ineffective communication may face difficulties in achieving their instructional goals and meeting their students' needs and expectations. Effective communication is defined as the clear, accurate, and appropriate transmission and reception of information, utilizing both verbal and non-verbal cues (Finn & Schrodt, 2012). Nasiru and Hammawa (2020) further elaborate on effective communication as a process involving communication, attentive listening, and mutual comprehension among institutional staff.

Effective communication can yield numerous benefits for higher education institutions. Stanikzai (2017) asserts that effective communication enhances organizational outcomes, including productivity, efficiency, and quality, innovation, and customer satisfaction. For instance, instructors who communicate clearly and accurately can enhance students' learning and performance. Moreover, effective communication facilitates collaboration and cooperation among instructors and their colleagues or leaders, thereby improving the quality and innovation of teaching and research. Instructors who effectively communicate can also meet or exceed the expectations of their stakeholders, including students, parents, employers, or society, thereby increasing satisfaction and fostering loyalty. Furthermore, Ramirez (2012) argues that effective communication can improve instructors' comprehension, moods, communities, institutions, leadership, and humanities. For instance, it enables instructors to better understand and interpret information and feedback from students or peers, thereby enhancing comprehension and learning. Effective communication also helps instructors express and regulate their emotions, leading to improved moods and overall well-being. By building and maintaining positive and supportive relationships with students or colleagues, instructors strengthen communities and institutions. Additionally, effective communication allows instructors to influence and guide

students or peers, thereby enhancing their leadership and impact. Lastly, effective communication enables instructors to appreciate and respect the diversity and complexity of human culture and society, enriching their understanding of humanities and values.

However, achieving effective communication is not without challenges. It requires various skills and strategies, including the use of verbal and non-verbal cues, attentive listening, mutual comprehension, respect, attention, clarity, enthusiasm, and relevance. Many instructors may lack these skills or face barriers and challenges during the communication process, such as a lack of training, feedback, or self-awareness, as well as personal, contextual, or technological obstacles (Finn & Schrodt, 2012; Xie & Derakhshan, 2021). Consequently, instructors need to enhance their communication skills by seeking professional development, feedback, and reflection opportunities. They should also apply effective communication principles and techniques in their instructional contexts. By doing so, instructors can improve their communication competence and confidence, ultimately leading to enhanced academic outcomes and student satisfaction.

In conclusion, effective communication is a complex and dynamic phenomenon that involves the clear, accurate, and appropriate transmission and reception of information using verbal and non-verbal cues. It can benefit higher education institutions by enhancing organizational outcomes such as productivity, efficiency, quality, innovation, and customer satisfaction, as well as instructors' comprehension, moods, communities, institutions, leadership, and humanities. However, achieving effective communication is challenging due to the need for various skills and strategies and the presence of barriers and challenges. Therefore, instructors should prioritize improving their communication skills by seeking professional development, feedback, and reflection opportunities and by implementing effective communication principles and techniques in their instructional contexts.

A one-sample t-test in Table 8 reveals that instructors' job motivation was significantly lower than expected. This indicates a low level of job motivation among instructors, which is related to their intention to leave. In other words, instructors who are less motivated are more likely to quit. This finding is consistent with previous research that has examined the relationship between these two variables. For example, Li et al. (2022) found that teacher burnout, which is an indicator of low job motivation, had a significant and positive impact on turnover intention

among faculty members in Chinese higher education institutions. Similarly, Komba and Amani (2016) discovered that career motivation and work commitment, which are indicators of job motivation, were associated with turnover intention among lecturers in public universities and primary school teachers in Tanzania. These studies highlight the importance of job motivation in influencing instructor retention in the education sector.

However, the current discussion does not include contrasting literature that could challenge or contradict the main finding regarding the negative relationship between instructors' job motivation and their turnover intention. To make the analysis more comprehensive, it would be helpful to incorporate contrasting literature that presents alternative perspectives or a more nuanced understanding of the topic. For instance, Kakar et al. (2021) conducted a study that revealed how instructors' perceptions of their management and support from their employers (HRM practices) negatively affected their turnover intention, with job opportunities moderating this relationship. This suggests that additional factors, such as HRM practices and job opportunities, may also influence instructors' turnover intention, potentially overshadowing the significance of job motivation. Therefore, to improve the quality of the discussion, it is advisable to include contrasting literature that provides diverse viewpoints and a broader understanding of the subject matter. In conclusion, based on the findings and the review of relevant literature, it can be concluded that job motivation among instructors is an important but not sufficient determinant of their turnover intention. To reduce turnover intention and strengthen instructor retention, it is necessary to consider other factors that may impact their motivation, job satisfaction, and commitment to the profession.

Furthermore, Table 8 shows the results of a one-sample t-test that indicate a significant difference between the observed mean score value of instructors' job satisfaction and the expected mean score. This finding suggests that instructors have a low level of job satisfaction, which in turn leads to an increase in their intention to turnover. This finding supports previous studies that have found a negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention among teachers and other professionals (Lee et al., 2017; Qasir Abbas, 2019). Job satisfaction can be influenced by various aspects of the work environment, such as salary, workload, autonomy, recognition, feedback, and organizational culture (Zhang et al., 2023). Therefore,

improving these aspects may enhance job satisfaction and reduce turnover intention among instructors.

However, this finding also indicates that instructors' job satisfaction falls significantly below expectations, suggesting that there are barriers or challenges that prevent them from achieving high job satisfaction. Some potential challenges include a lack of professional development opportunities, low social status, high expectations from students and parents, and inadequate support from leaders and colleagues in terms of fringe benefits, contingent rewards, nature of work, and communication (Hoque et al., 2023; Stankovska et al., 2017). These challenges can lead to frustration, dissatisfaction, and burnout among instructors, resulting in an increased intention to turnover. Therefore, it is crucial to identify and address the specific challenges or barriers that affect job satisfaction and turnover intention among instructors in different contexts. Additionally, factors such as personal characteristics, alternative job opportunities, and occupational commitment should be considered as they may also influence turnover intention among instructors (Kukla-Acevedo, 2009). By understanding these factors, it may be possible to develop more effective strategies and interventions to retain and motivate instructors in their profession.

Similarly, the analysis of a one-sample t-test in Table 8 reveals that the observed mean score value of instructors' organizational commitment is lower than the expected mean value. This indicates that instructors have a low level of organizational commitment, which in turn increases their intention to turnover. This finding is consistent with previous research that has shown a negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention, suggesting that employees who are more committed to their organization are less likely to leave (Kristanti et al., 2021; Perryer et al., 2010). One possible explanation for this relationship is that organizational commitment reflects how employees perceive their organization's value and support, as well as the opportunities it provides for their growth and development. These factors can increase employees' satisfaction, loyalty, and attachment to the organization, reducing their desire to seek other employment. On the other hand, employees with low levels of organizational commitment may feel dissatisfied, alienated, and disconnected from their organization, leading them to explore better opportunities elsewhere.

The results of the one-sample t-test presented in Table 8 show that the mean score for instructors' turnover intention was non-significantly higher than the expected mean value. This suggests a higher level of turnover intention among instructors, which aligns with previous studies conducted by Mathews (2018). These studies have reported a high prevalence of turnover intention among academic staff in US universities and colleges. Figueroa (2015) also acknowledges that some higher academic institutions have come to view turnover intentions and actual turnover as a normal part of their culture. Supporting these findings, the study by Ibrahim et al. (2017) reveals a substantial prevalence of turnover intention among academic staff at Madda Walabu University. The study found that 75.6% of instructors planned to leave the university, while only 24.4% intended to stay. These figures emphasize the significant magnitude of the intention to leave among academic staff and highlight the urgent need for the university to address staff retention.

Recognizing the importance of retaining academic staff is crucial because they play a vital role in the overall functioning of universities. Therefore, it is essential to address turnover intention among academic staff. By understanding the factors that contribute to turnover intention and implementing strategies to mitigate it, universities can improve staff retention and create a more stable and productive academic environment. However, it is important to acknowledge the limitations of this study, which focused specifically on Madda Walabu University. Further research is needed to explore the underlying causes of turnover intention and identify potential interventions in academic institutions more broadly. In summary, the results of this study, consistent with previous research, highlight a higher level of turnover intention among instructors. These findings emphasize the need for universities to prioritize staff retention and develop strategies to address turnover intention in order to maintain a productive and stable academic environment. It is worth noting that the one-sample t-test in Table 8 revealed a significantly higher level of emotional intelligence and a non-significantly higher level of turnover intention. However, the observed mean scores for job motivation and job satisfaction were significantly lower than the expected mean values, while instructors exhibited a non-significantly lower level of effective communication and organizational commitment.

5.2. The Relationship between Instructors' Emotional Intelligence, Turnover Intention, Effective Communication, Job Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment

The second research question examines the association between emotional intelligence, turnover intention, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Table 9 presents the results of the correlation analysis, which reveal significant relationships among emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. The zero-order correlation matrix indicates negative and statistically significant correlations between emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention ($r = -0.343$, $r = -0.113$, $r = -0.203$, $r = -0.220$, and $r = -0.440$, $p < 0.01$) respectively. These findings suggest that all variables are mutually reinforcing, meaning that emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment contribute to the understanding of turnover intention. Consequently, instructors with higher levels of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment exhibit lower turnover intention. The results of this study partly align with previous research on emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention.

The correlation analysis results presented in Table 9 indicate a significant and negative relationship ($r = -0.343$, $p < 0.01$) between instructors' emotional intelligence (EI) and their turnover intention (TI). This means that as instructors' emotional intelligence increases, their intention to leave the organization decreases. These findings are consistent with previous studies in the literature that have also shown the influence of emotional intelligence on instructors' turnover intention, suggesting that higher emotional intelligence reduces the likelihood of instructors leaving their jobs. However, it is important to note that there have been inconsistent findings in the existing literature. Some studies have found a negative effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention, indicating that instructors with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to stay in their jobs and institutions (Gara Bach Ouerdian et al., 2021). On the other hand, other studies have found a positive effect, suggesting that instructors with higher

emotional intelligence are more likely to leave their jobs (Waheed Akhtar et al., 2017). There are also studies that have found no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention (Kaur & Sharma, 2019). These mixed findings can be attributed to the presence of other factors that may mediate or moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention. Factors such as job satisfaction, interpersonal relationships, and organizational commitment, Gara Bach Ouerdian et al. (2021) and Mohammad et al. (2014) can influence how emotional intelligence affects turnover intention depending on their level and quality. Therefore, it is necessary to consider these factors to fully understand the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention.

To address this gap in the literature, this study aims to empirically investigate the impact of academic staff's emotional intelligence on their turnover intention in higher educational institutions. This study posits that instructors with high emotional intelligence are more likely to have a positive perception of their work environment, which may help mitigate high turnover rates. This is because they possess better emotional management and control skills, making them less inclined to quit their jobs and organizations. Supporting this hypothesis, Asfahani (2022) has found a negative association between emotional intelligence and turnover intention. In summary, the correlation analysis in Table 9 demonstrates a significant and negative relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention among instructors. However, existing literature presents mixed findings, indicating the need to consider other factors that may mediate or moderate this relationship. This study aims to address this gap by empirically investigating the impact of emotional intelligence on turnover intention in higher educational institutions.

A statistically significant negative relationship was observed between instructors' effective communication and turnover intention ($r = -0.113$, $p < 0.01$). This finding is consistent with prior studies that have examined the role of effective communication in employee retention. For example, Zhang (2022) found that job satisfaction mediated the relationship between teacher burnout, turnover intention, and the quality of communication with colleagues and supervisors in higher education. This implies that effective communication can create a positive work environment, increase employee satisfaction and loyalty, and decrease the intention to quit. However, other studies have questioned the assumption that communication is always beneficial for employee retention. Lee et al. (2021) argued that stress and organizational commitment have

a stronger impact on turnover intention than communication, and communication can sometimes have a negative effect if perceived as intrusive or coercive. These studies indicate that communication is not a universal solution for employee retention, and its effectiveness depends on various contextual factors, such as the source, content, frequency, and style of communication, as well as the individual and organizational characteristics of the employees. Conversely, ineffective communication can cause employee stress, raise turnover intention, absenteeism, burnout, and limit feedback (Stanikzai, 2017). Therefore, effective communication plays a crucial role in ensuring the smooth operation of organizations, as it positively affects staff satisfaction and retention.

Table 9 presents the results of the correlation analysis, indicating a significant and negative relationship between instructors' job motivation and their turnover intention ($r = -0.203$, $p < 0.01$). This suggests that as instructors' job motivation increases, their inclination to leave their positions decreases. Scholars have extensively contributed to understanding motivation as goal-oriented behavior, considering both internal and external factors that drive individuals and influence their commitment to work (Chidi & Victor, 2017). In the context of higher education, job motivation refers to the driving force that compels educators, administrators, and staff in academic institutions to perform their roles with enthusiasm, dedication, and a sense of purpose (Rietveld et al., 2022; Stankovska et al., 2017). This motivation is influenced by a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors in educational settings (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Kim, 2020). Research indicates that motivation, closely linked to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, plays a vital role in lecturers' intent to leave or their actual departure (Awang et al., 2015).

The current finding, which reveals a negative relationship between instructors' job motivation and their turnover intention, aligns with previous studies that have explored the role of motivation in reducing turnover intention. However, some studies challenge the negative association between instructors' job motivation and turnover intention, proposing alternative factors that may influence this relationship. Takaya et al. (2020) discovered that the link between instructors' job motivation and turnover intention is mediated by their perceived organizational support and supervisor support, with these mediators being moderated by perceived organizational politics. This suggests that instructors' job motivation may not necessarily result in reduced turnover intention if they perceive a lack of support from their organization or

supervisor or if there is a high level of politics in their workplace. Therefore, it is important to exercise caution when interpreting the finding that instructors' job motivation is negatively associated with their turnover intention. Future research should investigate the role of these factors in different contexts and settings, exploring how instructors' job motivation can be enhanced and sustained to minimize turnover intention.

A significant negative correlation was observed between instructors' job satisfaction and their intention to turnover ($r = -0.220, p < 0.01$). As instructors' job satisfaction increases, their intention to leave decreases significantly. This finding is consistent with previous studies that examined this relationship in different educational contexts. For example, Zhang et al. (2023) found an inverse association between job satisfaction and turnover intention among Chinese English language teachers. Similarly, Kukla-Acevedo (2009) investigated the impact of job satisfaction on turnover intention among public school teachers in the United States and discovered that teachers who were more satisfied with their work environment, salary, and recognition were less likely to leave their current school or the teaching profession. However, other studies have suggested that the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention may be influenced by additional factors, such as burnout, learning culture, and proactive personality. Li et al. (2022) reported that job satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between burnout and turnover intention among university faculty members in China. They also found that proactive personality moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention, with a stronger negative effect for individuals with high proactive personality compared to those with low proactive personality. In contrast, Lin and Huang (2020) found that employees who experienced a higher learning culture had lower turnover intention levels and better job satisfaction. Moreover, they found that job satisfaction had a negative impact on employee turnover intention but a positive impact on job performance. Therefore, the finding that instructors' job satisfaction is negatively associated with their intention to turnover is supported by existing literature. However, its manifestation may depend on the specific context and individual characteristics of the instructors. Future research could explore how other factors, such as organizational support, professional development, and career opportunities, may influence the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention among instructors in different educational settings.

A significant and negative correlation was found between instructors' organizational commitment and their turnover intention ($r = -0.440$, $p < 0.01$), indicating that higher levels of organizational commitment were associated with a decrease in turnover intention. Instructors with high levels of commitment are less inclined to leave their positions, thereby positively impacting the organization's stability. Conversely, lower levels of commitment among instructors are likely to lead to withdrawal behaviors, decreased commitment, reduced involvement in group work, and other unfavorable outcomes, ultimately resulting in increased costs associated with hiring new instructors (Armstrong, 2009). Organizational commitment reflects the strength of the bond between instructors and their organizations, while turnover intention signifies the likelihood of voluntary job departure (Guzeller & Celiker, 2020; Obiechina, 2019). Previous research consistently indicates a negative relationship between these variables, with higher commitment associated with lower turnover intention (Kakar et al., 2021). However, this relationship may be influenced by additional factors such as the psychological contract gap, which refers to the disparity between expected and actual employment outcomes Xia et al. (2022), or constituent attachment, which measures the emotional connection instructors have with colleagues or supervisors (Obiechina, 2019).

Enhancing organizational commitment has been shown to decrease turnover intention by positively influencing employees' sense of belonging and attachment to the organization, thereby enhancing loyalty and satisfaction. Additionally, it fosters a positive psychological contract between employees and the organization, built on trust, respect, and mutual obligations (Kanu et al., 2022). When employees perceive that their contributions are valued and they receive adequate support and development opportunities, they are more likely to respond with higher commitment and lower intention to quit (Wang et al., 2017). However, the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention may not be direct, as it can be influenced by moderating or mediating variables such as job characteristics, personal factors, and environmental factors. For instance, some studies have found that the impact of organizational commitment on turnover intention is stronger for employees with high job autonomy, low role conflict, and high perceived organizational support (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Conversely, other studies suggest that the effect of organizational commitment on turnover intention is weaker for employees with high job satisfaction, high career aspirations, and abundant alternative employment opportunities (Al-Suraihi et al., 2021). Therefore, organizations need to recognize

the complex and dynamic nature of the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention and implement appropriate strategies to enhance the former and reduce the latter. Potential strategies include fostering a positive organizational culture, providing effective leadership, offering fair and competitive rewards, and designing meaningful and challenging jobs. Additionally, organizations should monitor and evaluate the level of organizational commitment and turnover intention among their employees and tailor interventions accordingly.

5.3. Results of Mediation Analysis

The third research question of this study aimed to investigate the comprehensive impact of instructors' emotional intelligence (EI), effective communication (EC), job motivation (JM), job satisfaction (JS), and organizational commitment (OC) on their turnover intention (TI). To address this, a mediational analysis was conducted to examine the total, direct, indirect, and specific indirect effects. The analysis explored the direct effects of emotional intelligence on effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. Additionally, the study investigated the direct effects of effective communication, job motivation, and job satisfaction on organizational commitment. The findings regarding the direct, indirect, and specific indirect effects of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, and job satisfaction on organizational commitment and turnover intention are presented in Table 10.

5.3.1. The Direct Effects of Emotional Intelligence on Turnover Intention

As shown in Table 10, the direct effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention is statistically significant and negative ($\beta = -.206$, $t = -5.57$, $P < .001$). Emotional intelligence negatively affects turnover intention, which is consistent with prior research. For example, Gara Bach Ouerdian et al. (2021) found a negative relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention, mediated by affective organizational commitment. Similarly, Gao et al. (2020) reported that emotional intelligence reduces turnover intention by decreasing work-family conflict and job burnout, with this effect being moderated by perceived organizational support. These studies suggest that emotional intelligence can help employees cope with stress, enhance relationships with leaders and colleagues, and increase attachment to the organization, thus reducing their intention to quit. However, some studies have challenged the negative relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention, and have found it to be contingent on

other factors. For instance, Mohammad et al. (2014) found that emotional intelligence was positively related to turnover intention among employees who perceived low organizational justice, but negatively related among those who perceived high organizational justice. They argued that emotional intelligence can increase employees' awareness of unfair treatment and dissatisfaction, motivating them to leave the organization. Moreover, Zeidan (2020) found that emotional intelligence had no direct effect on turnover intention, but only an indirect effect through organizational commitment. They suggested that emotional intelligence alone is not sufficient to influence employees' turnover intention unless it is translated into positive attitudes and behaviors toward the organization. Therefore, the evidence regarding the negative effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention is not conclusive and may be dependent on contextual factors and the measurement of variables. Future research should examine the boundary conditions and mechanisms of this relationship and use more reliable and valid measures of emotional intelligence and turnover intention.

Likewise, as indicated in Table 10 above, emotional intelligence (EI) has a statistically significant and positive direct effect on effective communication ($\beta = .179$, $t = 4.16$, $P < .001$). This finding is consistent with the hypothesis that faculty members with higher EI are more likely to communicate effectively with their students, colleagues, and administrators. Based on these empirical findings, the present study aims to explore the direct association between EI and effective communication among faculty members in a public university in Ethiopia. This proposition is supported by recent studies conducted by Gunasekera et al. (2021), who examined the role of EI in enhancing effective communication skills among teachers and students in Sri Lanka. Similarly, Ozkaral and Ustu (2019) investigated the relationship between EI and communication skills among university instructors in Turkey. These studies suggest that EI is a crucial factor for developing and maintaining positive and productive interpersonal relationships in academic settings. In conclusion, this study supports the notion that EI positively and directly affects effective communication among faculty members. It also suggests that training and development programs can enhance EI and improve faculty members' effective communication skills. Academic professionals who need to communicate effectively in various situations and contexts should consider EI as a valuable asset.

As shown in Table 10, emotional intelligence (EI) significantly and positively influences job motivation among higher education academic staff or instructors ($\beta = .207$, $t = 4.93$, $P < .001$), which aligns with previous research on EI and its relationship with education. EI, defined as the ability to recognize, manage, and communicate emotions while navigating interpersonal relationships with sound judgment and empathy has been consistently linked to academic achievement, teaching effectiveness, and organizational commitment among instructors (Halimi et al., 2020). The finding of this study is related with the research findings of Tziner et al. (2020) to investigate the positive correlation between instructors' EI and their work motivation. EI may facilitate instructors' ability to cope with the challenges inherent in their profession, including managing feedback, meeting tight deadlines, navigating interpersonal relationships, adapting to change, and overcoming setbacks and failures. Additionally, EI enables instructors to influence their emotions as sources of information and motivation, rather than as distractions. However, it is important to note that the positive direct effect of EI on job motivation may not be universally applicable and could vary based on factors such as measurement and definition of EI, type and level of education, cultural norms, and individual and organizational characteristics. Therefore, further research is warranted to explore the moderating and mediating variables that could affect the relationship between EI and job motivation among educators across diverse settings and circumstances.

Table 10 demonstrates that emotional intelligence (EI) exerts a statistically significant and positive direct influence on job satisfaction ($\beta=.206$, $t=5.02$, $P<.001$). This finding is consistent with previous research conducted in the higher education setting, which has explored the connection between EI and various work-related outcomes. For instance, Shukla et al. (2018) discovered a significant correlation between EI and job satisfaction in their study involving college teachers in India. Furthermore, Nadaf (2017) reported a positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. However, conflicting results have been presented in some studies regarding the relationship between EI and work-related outcomes in the context of higher education. Kafetsios and Zampetakis (2008) found no significant relationship between EI, job satisfaction, or organizational commitment among academic staff in Greece. They argued that cultural and organizational factors may moderate the impact of EI on work outcomes. Similarly, Kamal Gautam and Kakkar (2017) concluded that emotional intelligence did not affect the level of job satisfaction based on their findings. Anari

(2012) discovered a positive effect of EI on job satisfaction but a negative effect on organizational commitment among faculty members in Iran. They suggested that the negative relationship could be attributed to the lack of trust and support within the Iranian higher education system. Therefore, these studies indicate that EI is not a universal predictor of work-related outcomes, but rather a context-dependent variable that may vary based on the specific characteristics of the higher education environment. In conclusion, while some empirical evidence supports the notion that EI has a direct positive impact on job satisfaction among higher education employees, there is also evidence challenging this view. Consequently, further research is necessary to investigate the underlying mechanisms and contextual factors that influence the relationship between EI and work-related outcomes in the higher education context.

As Table 10 shows, emotional intelligence (EI) has a positive and significant direct effect on organizational commitment ($\beta = .251$, $t = 6.61$, $P < .001$). This finding is consistent with previous studies that reported a positive relationship between EI and organizational commitment among higher education employees in Pakistan (Shafiq & Akram Rana, 2016). These studies suggest that EI is a key factor in influencing the attitudes and behaviors of higher education employees. However, not all studies have found a positive relationship between EI and work-related outcomes in the higher education context. For instance, Kafetsios and Zampetakis (2008) found no significant relationship between EI and organizational commitment among academic staff in Greece. They argued that the relationship between EI and work outcomes may be moderated by cultural and organizational factors. Likewise, Anari (2012) found a negative effect of EI on organizational commitment among faculty members in Iran. They attributed the negative relationship to the lack of trust and support within the Iranian higher education system. These studies indicate that EI is not a universal predictor of work-related outcomes, but rather a context-dependent variable that may vary depending on the specific characteristics of the higher education environment. Therefore, further research is needed to explore the underlying mechanisms and contextual factors that affect the relationship between EI and work-related outcomes in the higher education context.

Effective communication significantly affects organizational commitment ($\beta = .239$, $t = 5.31$, $P < .001$), serving as a vital organizational component by facilitating information, idea, and feedback exchange. It influences employees' commitment levels, affecting their performance,

satisfaction, and retention. In line with communication and commitment literature within higher education, Pongton and Suntrayuth (2019) discovered that communication quality and satisfaction positively affect organizational commitment among academic staff. These findings suggest that clear, timely, accurate, and respectful communication enhances employees' organizational attachment and loyalty, decreasing turnover likelihood. Effective communication also emerges as a contextual factor interacting with leadership style and culture, influencing commitment levels. Therefore, it should be viewed as a multifaceted and dynamic construct, with varying impacts on organizational commitment based on the situation and perspective.

Job motivation has a significant direct impact on organizational commitment ($\beta = .294$, $t = 6.68$, $P < .001$). This finding aligns with previous studies that have investigated the association between these variables in diverse contexts. For instance, Hanaysha and Majid (2018) found that employee motivation positively influenced organizational commitment among academics in the higher education sector. These studies indicate that when employees are motivated by intrinsic or extrinsic factors, they develop a stronger attachment and loyalty to their organization, thereby enhancing their productivity and performance. This research indicates that job motivation significantly influences organizational commitment within higher education institutions. Furthermore, it is imperative to formulate practical implications and recommendations to bolster job motivation and organizational commitment among academic staff. These strategies should be grounded in empirical evidence and customized to address the unique needs and challenges prevalent in the higher education domain.

The direct effects of job satisfaction on organizational commitment are statistically nonsignificant ($\beta = .099$, $t = 1.87$, $P > .05$). Job satisfaction is commonly regarded as a significant factor influencing employee's organizational commitment. However, studies have indicated that the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment may not be as strong or consistent as expected, particularly in higher education settings. For example, a study conducted by Ngirande (2021) concluded that job satisfaction does not moderate the relationship between occupational stress and organizational commitment among academic staff in two South African historically black institutions of higher learning. The author argued that job satisfaction may not be capable of buffering the negative effects of occupational stress on organizational commitment due to its transient and situational nature, in contrast to the more stable and enduring nature of

organizational commitment. Furthermore, the author proposed that other factors, such as organizational culture, organizational support, and organizational justice, may have stronger moderating effects on the relationship between occupational stress and organizational commitment compared to job satisfaction.

However, not all studies support the finding that job satisfaction has statistically nonsignificant direct effects on organizational commitment in higher education. For example, a study by Azem and Akhtar (2014) found a positive and significant impact of job satisfaction on the organizational commitment of employees in Saudi public sectors. The authors explained that job satisfaction may enhance organizational commitment by fostering a sense of belonging, loyalty, and involvement with their institutions. They also noted that the impact of job satisfaction may vary depending on different dimensions of organizational commitment, such as affective, continuance, and normative commitment, and that different aspects of job satisfaction may have distinct effects on organizational commitment.

Therefore, it is important to recognize that the finding that job satisfaction has statistically nonsignificant direct effects on organizational commitment in higher education may not be applicable to all contexts and situations. The relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment is likely influenced by various factors, including the type and quality of leadership, the level and sources of occupational stress, the dimensions and aspects of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, as well as the characteristics and culture of the institutions. Further research is necessary to explore the complex and dynamic nature of the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment in higher education.

5.3.2. The Mediating Roles of Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment between Emotional Intelligence and Turnover Intention

The study investigated the influence of emotional intelligence (EI) on turnover intention (TI) while considering the mediating factors of job satisfaction (JS) and organizational commitment (OC). Results revealed significant negative indirect effects of EI on TI, indicating partial mediation through JS and OC. The direct effect of EI on TI was also negative and significant, further supporting partial mediation and serial mediation. Similarly, the indirect effect of EI on OC through JS was positive and significant, indicating partial mediation.

Additionally, the indirect effect of JS on TI through OC was negative and significant, implying a significant mediating relationship between JS and TI. While the direct effect of JS on OC was not significant, the indirect effect was, suggesting a fully mediating relationship between JS and TI through OC.

These findings are consistent with some previous studies that have explored the role of EI and its related constructs in the context of higher education. For example, a study by Zhang et al. (2022) found that teacher burnout and turnover intention in higher education were negatively influenced by job satisfaction, and that job satisfaction was positively influenced by EI. The study also found that proactive personality moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention, such that the negative effect of job satisfaction on turnover intention was stronger for individuals with high proactive personality. Moreover, some other studies have reported similar findings regarding the relationship between EI and TI, and the mediating role of JS and OC. For example, a study by Giao et al. (2020) found that EI had a negative and significant relationship with TI, meaning that employees with higher EI had a lower TI. The study explained this finding by suggesting that employees with higher EI might have lower expectations and aspirations, and might be less aware of alternative job opportunities, which could increase their TI. Another study by Gara Bach Ouerdian et al. (2021) found that affective organizational commitment mediated the relationship between employees EI and their TI, and that this relationship was negative. The study also found that leader member exchange moderated the relationship between EI and OC, such that the positive effect of EI on affective organizational commitment was stronger for individuals with high leader member exchange.

While previous research has suggested that there may not be a direct correlation between emotional intelligence (EI) and organizational commitment, certain studies have proposed alternative routes. For instance, Alsughayir (2021) found no direct association but identified an indirect connection through job satisfaction. Similarly, Aghdasi et al. (2011) reported that EI did not directly or indirectly impact organizational commitment, job satisfaction, or occupational stress. These contrasting findings indicate that the relationship between EI and TI, and the role of JS and OC, might be influenced by various contextual factors, such as the type of organization, the nature of the job, the level of leadership, the personality of the employees, and the culture of the workplace. Therefore, further research is needed to explore the underlying mechanisms

and boundary conditions of these relationships, and to provide more practical implications for enhancing EI, JS, and OC, and reducing TI, among higher education academic staffs or instructors.

5.3.3. The Mediating Role of Job Motivation and Organizational Commitment between Emotional Intelligence and Turnover Intention

The study found that emotional intelligence influences turnover intention of higher education instructors both directly and indirectly through job motivation and organizational commitment. Emotional intelligence had a negative indirect effect on turnover intention, partially mediated by job motivation and organizational commitment. Additionally, emotional intelligence positively affected organizational commitment indirectly through job motivation, indicating that job motivation plays a mediating role. Job motivation, in turn, had a negative indirect effect on turnover intention through organizational commitment, revealing a partial mediation in the relationship between job motivation and turnover intention.

This finding is consistent with previous studies that have examined the relationships among these variables in different contexts and settings. For example, Gara Bach Ouerdian et al. (2021) found that EI had a negative direct effect on TI and a negative indirect effect on TI through OC among employees in higher institutions. Similarly, Ali Yusuf and Widodo (2023) found that EI and OC had a negative direct effect on TI. However, emotional intelligence (EI) showed no significant effect on organizational commitment (OC), nor did it significantly influence turnover intention (TI) through its mediation of OC. These findings contradict the expected outcomes of this study, underscoring a research gap that warrants further exploration for clarification and validation in future research endeavors. The current study supports the notion that EI can enhance the psychological attachment and satisfaction of employees with their jobs and organizations, which in turn reduces their intention to leave.

Therefore, the finding of this study contributes to the existing literature by providing empirical evidence on the effects of EI on TI and its mediators in the context of higher education academic staff or instructors. The finding also has practical implications for higher education institutions, as it implies that enhancing the EI of academic staff or instructors can improve their JM and OC, which can reduce their TI and increase their retention and performance. Higher

education institutions can provide training and development programs to foster the EI skills and competencies of academic staff or instructors, such as self-awareness, self-regulation, empathy, and social skills. Higher education institutions can also create a supportive and fair work environment that can facilitate the expression and management of emotions, as well as the recognition and appreciation of the emotional needs and contributions of academic staff or instructors.

5.3.4. The Mediating Roles of Effective Communication and Organizational Commitment between Emotional Intelligence and Turnover Intention

The findings suggest that emotional intelligence has a significant influence on turnover intention, both directly and indirectly. This indirect effect is mediated by effective communication and organizational commitment. Emotional intelligence not only directly influences turnover intention but also indirectly affects it through its impact on effective communication and organizational commitment. Similarly, emotional intelligence indirectly increases organizational commitment by improving communication. Effective communication plays a crucial role in reducing turnover intention both directly and indirectly through its positive effect on organizational commitment. Overall, the study highlights the complex relationship between emotional intelligence, effective communication, organizational commitment, and turnover intention in organizational contexts.

This finding is consistent with previous studies that have examined the relationships among these variables in different contexts and settings. For example, Gara Bach Ouerdian et al. (2021) found that EI had a negative direct effect on TI and a negative indirect effect on TI through OC among employees in higher institutions. Similarly, some studies have reported findings regarding the role of EI in influencing TI and its mediators. For instance, Khairuddin and Hussain (2021) found that EI had a significant direct and indirect effect on TI through OC among employees. Therefore, the finding of this study contributes to the existing literature by providing empirical evidence on the effects of EI on TI and its mediators in the context of higher education academic staff or instructors. Previous research has shown that effective communication can decrease turnover intention by increasing organizational commitment in the academic sector (Daly et al., 2017). Therefore, effective communication is essential for the successful functioning of organizations because it influences employee well-being and loyalty.

The findings also have practical implications for higher education institutions, as it implies that enhancing the EI of academic staff or instructors can improve their EC and OC, which can reduce their TI and increase their retention and performance. Higher education institutions can provide training and development programs to foster the EI skills and competencies of academic staff or instructors, such as self-awareness, self-regulation, empathy, and social skills. Higher education institutions can also create a supportive and reasonable work environment that can facilitate the expression and management of emotions, as well as the recognition and appreciation of the emotional needs and contributions of academic staff or instructors.

5.3.5. The Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction, Job Motivation, Effective Communication, and Organizational Commitment between Emotional Intelligence and Turnover Intention (Parallel Mediation)

The study investigated the impact of emotional intelligence on turnover intention, exploring both direct and indirect effects along with the role of mediating variables. It found that emotional intelligence has both direct and indirect effects on turnover intention. Specifically, emotional intelligence has a significant negative direct effect on turnover intention, suggesting a clear relationship between the two variables. Job satisfaction was not found to mediate the association between emotional intelligence and turnover intention, as the indirect effect through job satisfaction was not significant. Organizational commitment, job motivation, and effective communication were identified as significant mediators. Emotional intelligence had a negative indirect effect on turnover intention through these variables, indicating partial mediation. The study underscores the importance of considering multiple factors, beyond just job satisfaction, when examining turnover intention in relation to emotional intelligence. In summary, emotional intelligence influences turnover intention both directly and indirectly through various mediating factors, emphasizing the complexity of the relationship between emotional intelligence and employee turnover.

Previous studies have suggested that emotional intelligence can influence turnover intention directly or indirectly through various mediators, such as job satisfaction, job motivation, organizational commitment, and effective communication (Li et al., 2022). One of the most commonly studied mediators is job satisfaction, which is the degree of positive or negative affective reactions to one's job or job aspects (Locke, 1976). Job satisfaction is assumed

to mediate the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention because employees with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to experience positive emotions, cope with stress, and adapt to changes in the work environment, which can enhance their satisfaction with their job and reduce their desire to quit (Mustafa et al., 2023). The direct effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention was non significant and positive. This suggests that job satisfaction does not play a role in the link between emotional intelligence and turnover intention among university teachers.

Organizational commitment, defined as the level of identification and involvement with an organization and its goals Mowday (1979), has been examined as another mediator. It is posited that organizational commitment acts as a mediator between emotional intelligence and turnover intention. This is because individuals with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to establish positive relationships with their leaders and colleagues, align their values and goals with the organization, and experience a sense of belonging and loyalty, all of which enhance their commitment and reduce their intention to leave (Meyer et al., 2002). Empirical studies have provided support for this proposition, demonstrating that organizational commitment mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention (Zeidan, 2020). A significant and negative direct effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention was also observed in this study. These results indicate that organizational commitment partially mediates the association between emotional intelligence and turnover intention among university faculty members in Ethiopia.

It is suggested that job motivation acts as a mediator between emotional intelligence and turnover intention, as individuals with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to possess a clear sense of their objectives, regulate their behavior, and exhibit persistence when faced with challenges. These factors contribute to increased motivation and reduced inclination to quit (Cherniss et al., 1998). Several empirical studies have substantiated this hypothesis, demonstrating that job motivation serves as a mediator in the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention (Akosile & Ekemen, 2022). Their findings supported the findings of this study which has a significant and negative indirect effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention through job motivation, alongside a significant and negative direct effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention. This suggests that job motivation

plays a partial mediating role in the connection between emotional intelligence and turnover intention, particularly among university instructors in Ethiopia.

Effective communication, defined as the process of exchanging information and meaning between individuals or groups in a clear and accurate manner Owen Hargie (2022). It is a potential mediator between emotional intelligence and turnover intention. Employees with higher emotional intelligence are expected to communicate more effectively, as they can express their emotions appropriately, listen actively, empathize with others, and resolve conflicts constructively, which can enhance their communication skills and lower their intention to quit (Daly et al., 2017). Further evidence has suggested that effective communication may affect turnover intention via various mediators and moderators, such as organizational citizenship behavior, organizational identification, organizational commitment, and psychological empowerment (Daly et al., 2017). However, other studies have not found a mediating role of effective communication in the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention. As reported in this study the indirect effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention via effective communication was significant and positive, while the direct effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention was significant and negative. This indicates that effective communication partially mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention among university instructors.

To conclude, the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention among higher education academic staff or instructors is complex and mediated by multiple factors. The empirical evidence on the mediating effects of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job motivation, and effective communication is inconclusive and conflicting. Thus, further research is required to elucidate the mechanisms and moderators of the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention in higher education settings.

5.4. Discussion on Results of Hierarchical Multiple Linear Regression

The fourth purpose of this study was to examine how instructors' intention to turnover is predicted by their emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in Ethiopian public universities. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis in Table 11 revealed that organizational commitment, job motivation and emotional intelligence had a significant negative effect on turnover intention respectively.

Effective communication positively predicted turnover intention while, job satisfaction was not significant predictor in this study. This suggests that instructors who are more committed to their organization, motivated, and emotionally intelligent are less likely to quit their jobs, regardless of their levels of effective communication and job satisfaction. This finding is consistent with previous studies that have found a negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention among academic staff in higher education (Agmasu, 2021; Ramalho Luz et al., 2018; Tarigan & Ariani, 2015). Organizational commitment is the degree of attachment, identification, and involvement that an employee has with their organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Therefore, higher education institutions should enhance the organizational commitment of their instructors by providing them with a supportive and conducive work climate, fair and equitable treatment, and recognition and appreciation for their contributions.

Job motivation plays a crucial role in determining the turnover intentions of higher education instructors. Motivation can be derived from intrinsic factors, such as personal fulfillment and professional growth, or extrinsic factors, such as salary and job security. Studies have consistently shown that higher levels of job motivation are associated with lower turnover intentions. For instance, Awang et al. (2015) found that intrinsic motivation significantly reduces turnover intention among lecturers, emphasizing that motivated staff are more likely to remain committed to their institutions due to a sense of purpose in their work. Additionally, the lecturer's working environment exerts a direct impact on turnover and intent to leave. This environment can be influenced by class size, teaching workloads, and the availability of teaching resources (Guzeller & Celiker, 2020; Xia et al., 2022). Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory provides a robust framework for understanding the role of job motivation in turnover intentions. According to Herzberg, job satisfaction and motivation are influenced by two sets of factors: hygiene factors and motivators. Hygiene factors, such as salary, job security, and working conditions, do not necessarily increase job satisfaction but their absence can lead to dissatisfaction. Motivators, such as recognition, responsibility, and opportunities for growth, directly enhance job satisfaction and motivation. This theory supports the empirical finding by explaining how enhancing motivators while maintaining adequate hygiene factors can foster job motivation and subsequently reduce turnover intentions.

Emotional intelligence (EI), defined as the ability to recognize, understand, and manage one's own emotions and those of others, significantly influences turnover intention. In higher education, instructors with high EI are better equipped to handle the emotional demands of teaching, maintain positive relationships with colleagues and students, and manage stress effectively. Miao et al. (2017) support this assertion, demonstrating that higher EI levels correlate with lower turnover intentions across various professions, including academia. Their meta-analysis indicates that emotionally intelligent individuals are more adept at coping with job-related challenges and maintaining a positive work attitude, reducing the likelihood of considering job departure. While the inverse relationship between emotional intelligence, and turnover intention is well-documented, some studies present contrasting perspectives. Coetzee & Stoltz (2015), for instance, suggest that the impact of EI on turnover intention may vary depending on organizational context and individual differences. In certain settings, high EI might increase awareness of alternative career opportunities, potentially leading to higher turnover intentions if individuals perceive better prospects elsewhere.

The results also showed that job satisfaction did not predict turnover intention significantly. This is somewhat surprising, as previous studies have suggested that these factors are important for the well-being and retention of academic staff in higher education (Mohammad et al., 2014; Parasız et al., 2017; Tarigan & Ariani, 2015; Waheed Akhtar et al., 2017). These factors are expected to influence the turnover intention of instructors, as they may affect their performance, relationships, and attitudes toward their work. However, the results of this study indicate that these factors are not significant predictors of turnover intention, at least in this sample of instructors. One possible explanation for this finding is that these factors are more relevant for the intrinsic aspects of the job, such as the quality of teaching and learning, rather than the extrinsic aspects, such as the salary and benefits, which may be more influential for the turnover intention of instructors. Another possible explanation is that these factors are moderated by other variables, such as personality, gender, age, or tenure, which may affect the relationship between these factors and turnover intention. Further research is needed to explore these possibilities and to clarify the role of these factors in the turnover intention of instructors in higher education.

5.5. Discussions on Independent Sample T-Test

The fifth purpose of this study examined gender differences across six variables: emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. The results showed a significant difference in job motivation and effective communication between female and male instructors, with females scoring higher. However, there were no significant gender differences in emotional intelligence, effective communication, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. The equality of variances was confirmed across all variables except effective communication. Thus, the study concluded that while female instructors demonstrated higher job motivation compared to males, there were no notable gender disparities in other emotional, attitudinal, or behavioral aspects among instructors.

5.5.1. Gender and Emotional Intelligence in Higher Education

Table 12 shows no statistically significant difference in emotional intelligence between female and male higher education instructors, implying that gender does not affect emotional intelligence. This finding agrees with some previous studies, but disagrees with others. The literature on the role of gender in emotional intelligence in higher education is inconclusive. Fernández-Berrocal et al. (2012) and Hopkins et al. (2008) argue that women have higher emotional intelligence because of their greater empathy and expressiveness. However, Fernández-Berrocal et al. (2012) also recognize other studies that find no significant gender differences in emotional intelligence. A possible reason for the non-significant effect of gender on emotional intelligence among higher education instructors is the multidimensional nature of emotional intelligence. Factors such as personality, culture, education, and experience may override gender as predictors, especially for highly educated and experienced professionals or higher education instructors. Another view considers emotional intelligence as a dynamic skill that can be developed over time, reducing or eliminating gender differences as individuals improve their ability to manage emotions, both their own and others'.

The implication that gender does not influence emotional intelligence among higher education instructors has implications for both practice and research. Practically, it encourages instructors to avoid gender stereotypes and focus on individual characteristics and abilities. It also suggests that emotional intelligence can be improved through training and feedback,

regardless of gender. Research-wise, it highlights the need for more comprehensive studies on the factors that affect emotional intelligence in higher education settings, using valid and reliable measurement tools. It also calls for studies that examine the effects of emotional intelligence on teaching and learning outcomes, requiring cross-disciplinary, cross-cultural, and cross-context comparisons.

5.5.2. Gender and Effective Communication in Higher Education

Effective communication is a vital skill for higher education instructors. In this discussion, the role of gender in effective communication and its impact on instructors was explored. The findings of this study demonstrated that female instructors were correlated with significantly greater mean effective communication skills than their male colleagues. This is consistent with previous empirical studies (Qazi et al., 2022). These studies emphasize that women tend to use more expressive, supportive, and cooperative communication skills, while men tend to use more instrumental, assertive, and competitive communication skills. However, it is important to note that gender differences in communication are not absolute or fixed and can vary depending on various factors such as the situation, audience, purpose, and individual preferences of communicators (Marques, 2021). Gender is a complex and dynamic construct that should not be stereotyped or essentialized, and a balanced and inclusive approach that incorporates both feminine and masculine communication strategies is recommended. By adapting their communication styles to different situations and goals, instructors can enhance their credibility, competence, and influence, leading to increased job motivation and performance. It is crucial to recognize and appreciate the diversity and flexibility of these skills among instructors and adapt to the needs and preferences of different students and contexts. Overall, effective communication in higher education requires awareness, sensitivity, and adaptability to meet the diverse needs and expectations of students and colleagues.

5.5.3. Gender and Job Motivation in Higher Education

Job motivation significantly influences the performance, satisfaction, and retention of higher education instructors. Nevertheless, consensus is lacking regarding the presence of gender differences in job motivation within this professional group. Recent research suggests that female instructors tend to exhibit slightly higher mean scores of job motivation compared to their male counterparts, indicating the potential influence of subtle gender-related factors on

motivational levels. Previous studies examining gender-based disparities in job motivation among higher education instructors have reported similar results with this study. For instance, Al-Rubaish et al. (2011) discovered that female faculty members in a Saudi Arabian university displayed higher levels of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and overall job satisfaction than male faculty members, indicative of their more positive attitudes and perceptions of the work environment. These studies imply that female instructors may draw upon different sources and types of motivation than their male counterparts, potentially influencing their performance, satisfaction, and retention in the profession.

5.5.4. Gender and Job Satisfaction in Higher Education

The findings of this study indicate no statistically significant difference in job satisfaction levels between male and female instructors. However, while some studies align with this, others reveal notable gender differences in job satisfaction among academic staff. Abbas Madandar Arani and Abbasi (2008) conducted a cross-cultural study involving secondary school teachers in Iran and India, concluding no discernible relationship between gender and job satisfaction. Similarly, Klein and Takeda-Tinker (2008) found no correlation between gender and overall satisfaction among full-time business faculty at Wisconsin Technical College. Likewise, Dey et al. (2016) reported no significant gender disparities in job satisfaction among higher education academic staff in India. These findings suggest that factors such as age, education, experience, or culture may outweigh gender in influencing job satisfaction levels.

Conversely, other studies have highlighted gender discrepancies in job satisfaction among higher education academic staff. For instance, Webber & Rogers (2018) discovered that female faculty tend to report lower satisfaction levels than their male counterparts, particularly concerning salary, department culture perception, and work-life balance. On the other hand, studies investigated that female instructors have higher job satisfaction than male instructors (Pasha & Aftab, 2021). It can be inferred that a distinction is present between male and female educators in relation to their job satisfaction. Conflicting results may stem from factors like gender equality, resource availability, and leadership quality across different countries and universities. In conclusion, this discussion has explored the complexities of the gender-job satisfaction relationship among higher education academic staff, shedding light on the contextual factors

shaping these dynamics. This understanding carries implications for higher education policies, practices, and academic staff performance.

5.5.5. Gender and Organizational Commitment in Higher Education

As Table 12 shows, gender did not significantly correlate with organizational commitment among higher education instructors. The mean difference between female and male instructors was not statistically significant. Previous studies on the relationship between gender and organizational commitment have reported mixed results. This finding is consistent with some recent studies in the literature. For instance, Kassaw and Golga (2019) found no significant difference in the level of commitment between male and female academic staff in higher education institutions. Similarly, Ahmad et al. (2023) found no significant influence of gender on affective and continuance commitment among employees in public and private organizations, although they found a significant influence of gender on normative commitment. Likewise, a study conducted by Pasha and Aftab (2021) showed that there is no a notable disparity in the level of organizational commitment between male and female instructors. These studies indicate that gender may not be a relevant factor in explaining the variations in organizational commitment among academic staff or instructors.

However, some studies have reported opposite findings, suggesting that gender may have a strong effect on organizational commitment in some contexts. For example, Aftab et al. (2020) found that female teachers showed higher levels of organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior than male teachers at a high level of commitment. Likewise, Fisher et al. (2010) argued that the existing measures of organizational commitment are biased and do not capture the commitment of women and some men in contemporary workplaces. These studies imply that gender may have a significant effect on organizational commitment in some situations, such as when the level of commitment is high or when the measures of commitment are not appropriate. In conclusion, the finding of this study may depend on various factors, such as the context, the sample, the measure, and the type of commitment. Further research is needed to explore the possible reasons for the inconsistency in the literature and to provide a more comprehensive and nuanced understanding of the role of gender in organizational commitment.

5.5.6. Gender and Turnover Intention in Higher Education

This discussion compares the mean scores of female and male instructors to examine the effect of gender on turnover intention, as shown in Table 12. The results reveal no significant difference between the two groups, implying that gender does not influence the decision to leave the job or organizations. This finding contradicts some previous studies that reported higher turnover intention among female workers than male workers (Pasha & Aftab, 2021; VanGilder et al., 2003). These studies also noted that women cited both monetary and non-monetary reasons for their job mobility intentions, reflecting higher career expectations and aspirations. However, other studies found no gender disparity in turnover intention, indicating the inconsistency in the literature (Billingsley, 2004). These divergent results suggest that contextual factors, such as job type, organizational culture, and personal characteristics, may moderate the relationship between gender and turnover intention. Notably, when controlling for tenure status, the reasons for turnover intention showed no significant variation by gender.

The finding that gender does not affect the intention to leave the organization among higher education instructors is consistent with some existing studies. For example, Xu (2008) observed no difference in the intentions to depart academia between women and men faculty in STEM disciplines. However, women faculty had a higher tendency to change positions within academia. Similarly, Kassem (2020) determined that gender did not moderate the link between leadership styles and employee turnover intention among administrative staff in higher education institutions. These studies collectively indicate that gender is not a significant factor in explaining the turnover behavior of academic employees. Therefore, the conclusion that gender does not impact the intention to leave the job among higher education instructors is inconclusive and may depend on various contextual factors, such as discipline, institution, leadership style, and work-life balance. Further research is needed to explore the role of gender in the turnover process of academic employees and identify best practices to retain and support both women and men faculty in higher education.

5.6. Discussion of ANOVA Analysis on Instructors' Socio-Demographic Characteristics with Turnover Intention Behavior

The final objective of the study was to investigate the influence of socio-demographic variables on instructors' emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention.

5.6.1. Instructors' Age and Emotional Intelligence

The effect of age on emotional intelligence (EI) among instructors was investigated using a one-way ANOVA. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 13, indicating a significant difference in EI scores among the four age groups, $F(3, 615) = 9.317, p < 0.01$. A post hoc test revealed that instructors aged 36–45 exhibited significantly higher EI scores than those aged 25–36. This finding suggests that EI is higher among instructors in the 36–45 age group compared to their younger peers. These results are partially consistent with previous studies examining the relationship between age and EI. For instance, Fernández-Berrocal et al. (2012) and Ramchandran et al. (2020) reported that EI tends to increase with age due to accumulated life experiences and emotional maturity. In conclusion, this study provides evidence of an age difference in emotional intelligence among higher education instructors. However, it is important to interpret these findings with caution and encourage further research that considers other relevant factors.

5.6.2. Instructors' Age and Job Motivation

The finding that instructors aged 36–45 had a significantly higher mean score of job motivation than instructors aged 25–35 suggests a positive relationship between age and job motivation among higher education instructors. However, age is not the only factor that influences the motivation of instructors. Deci et al. (1991) argued that younger instructors tend to have higher levels of intrinsic motivation, which derives from their enthusiasm and adaptability to evolving teaching methods and technologies. Older instructors, on the other hand, may rely more on extrinsic motivation, such as job security and retirement benefits (Richard & Deci, 2000). This transition indicates the complexity of motivation across different age groups. Moreover, this finding contradicts the assumption that younger workers are more motivated to learn and improve their skills than older workers. Yamashita et al. (2022) found that younger workers had lower levels of motivation to learn by age, education, and literacy skills than older

workers. Therefore, the relationship between age and job motivation among higher education instructors may depend on other factors, such as personality traits, career goals, work environment, and feedback mechanisms.

5.6.3. Instructors' Age and Organizational Commitment

This study examined the mean score difference between the instructors' age and their organizational commitment using a one-way ANOVA test. The results showed a statistically significant difference ($F(3,615) = 2.897, p < .05$). Post hoc pair comparisons revealed that instructors aged 36-45 scored significantly higher than those aged 25-35, indicating a higher level of commitment in the former group. These findings suggest a significant association between age and commitment. Specifically, older instructors exhibit higher commitment levels than their younger counterparts. This result diverges from previous studies examining the correlation between age and teachers' commitment levels. Specifically, Anari (2012) reported a lack of significant disparity in job satisfaction and organizational commitment across teachers of varying ages and genders. Likewise, Agu (2016) reported that educational status and age do not serve as meaningful predictors of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. One possible explanation for these findings is that older instructors, with greater experience and expertise, may develop a stronger identification and attachment to their organization. Moreover, they may enjoy more opportunities for career advancement and recognition, which could increase their loyalty and motivation. Additionally, established social networks and relationships with colleagues and superiors among older instructors might enhance their sense of organizational belonging and support. Therefore, a comprehensive understanding of this phenomenon requires consideration of multiple dimensions and levels of analysis. For instance, future research could examine how different types of tenure affect the age-commitment relationship across diverse employee or teacher groups. In conclusion, this study provides empirical evidence from Ethiopian higher education academic staff to the existing literature on age-commitment. It also identifies gaps and limitations in current research, suggesting directions for future investigations in this domain.

5.6.4. Instructors' Age and Turnover Intention

The one-way ANOVA test result showed a statistically significant difference in turnover intention among instructors' age groups, $F(3,615) = 10.127, P < .01$. A post hoc pair comparison

revealed that instructors aged 25-35 had a significantly higher turnover intention than those aged 36-45 and 46-55. These results indicate that younger instructors (25-35) have a higher tendency to leave their jobs than older ones. This finding was consistent with previous research that reported a positive correlation between younger age and turnover intention behavior. Billingsley (2004) and Conley and You (2017) found that the age of teachers was related to their predicted and actual turnover. Conley and You (2017) also observed that teachers under 35 had higher attrition rates than those between 35 and 60. Similarly, Singer (1992) suggested that teachers under 30 were twice as likely to quit their jobs and their institutions as their older colleagues. These findings suggest that age is a significant factor influencing turnover intention among teachers. The study also found that instructors aged 36-45 had the highest levels of: emotional intelligence, effective communication, and organizational commitment, while instructors aged 56 and above had the highest levels of job motivation and job satisfaction. However, both the youngest (25-35) and the oldest (56 and above) instructors had a high intention to quit their jobs, due to different factors. A post-hoc test confirmed that age factors significantly influenced instructors' emotional intelligence, job motivation, organizational commitment, and turnover intention.

5.6.5. Instructors' Marital Status and Emotional Intelligence

The finding indicated in Table 14 showed that marital status is associated with emotional intelligence (EI) among instructors is an interesting one that has implications for both personal and professional development. The finding that married instructors had the highest EI score, followed by divorced instructors, and then unmarried instructors, suggests that marital status may affect EI among instructors. One possible explanation for this finding is that marriage provides a context for developing and practicing EI skills, such as empathy, communication, conflict resolution, and emotional regulation. For instance, married couples may face various challenges and opportunities that require them to understand and manage their own and their partner's emotions, such as financial issues, parenting, health problems, career changes, etc. These situations may help them to develop and practice EI skills that can also benefit them in their professional lives. Another possible explanation is that EI influences the likelihood and quality of marriage, such that people with higher EI are more likely to get married and stay married, and to have more satisfying marriages. For example, EI may help people to choose compatible

partners, to communicate effectively, to resolve conflicts constructively, and to express and receive affection and support. These factors may enhance the quality and stability of their marriages, as well as their personal well-being.

This finding is consistent with some previous studies on EI and marital satisfaction among different professionals. For example, Anyamene and Etele (2020) found a significant low-relationship between EI and marital satisfaction of married teachers in Anambra State, Nigeria. They suggested that married teachers should be encouraged by counselors to pursue habits and attitudes that promote marital satisfaction through periodic seminars and counseling sessions. Similarly, Hatam Siavoshi et al. (2016) found a positive relationship between EI and marital satisfaction among lecturers. They proposed that EI can help improve marital satisfaction by enhancing empathy, communication, and conflict resolution skills. However, this finding is also contradicted by some other studies that have found no significant relationship between EI and marital stability. For example, a study conducted by Onyekuru and Ugwu (2017) indicated that both emotional maturity and emotional sensitivity positively and significantly correlate with marital stability. However, emotional competence despite its positive association with marital stability failed to reach a level of statistical significance. They argued that EI alone is not sufficient to guarantee marital stability, and that other factors, such as personality, social support, and religious beliefs, may also play a role. Therefore, the finding that marital status is associated with EI among instructors is not conclusive, and may vary depending on the context, culture, and profession of the participants. Further research is needed to explore the causal mechanisms and moderating factors that may explain the relationship between EI and marital status among instructors. Moreover, the implications of this finding for personal and professional development of instructors should be examined, as EI may have an impact on their teaching effectiveness, job satisfaction, and well-being.

5.6.6. Instructors' Marital Status and Effective Communication

The finding that instructors who are divorced or unmarried have higher mean scores in effective communication than instructors who are married is interesting, but not conclusive. The ANOVA result in Table 14 indicates that the difference is not statistically significant, implying that it could be due to chance or other factors. Thus, it is not valid to infer a causal relationship between marital status and effective communication skills in higher education. Furthermore, the

finding is inconsistent with some previous research that has found positive associations between communication skills and marital satisfaction (Plooy & Beer, 2018). One possible explanation for the inconsistency is that the measurement of communication skills in the finding relies on self-reports, which may not reflect the actual performance or perception of others. Therefore, more rigorous and comprehensive research is required to examine the link between marital status and communication skills in higher education, and to account for the potential moderating and mediating factors.

5.6.7. Instructors' Marital Status and Job Motivation

The finding that instructors who are divorced or unmarried have higher mean scores in job motivation than instructors who are married. The ANOVA result shows that the difference is not statistically significant, implying that it could be attributed to chance or other factors. This finding contradicts some preceding research that has reported positive correlations between marital status and work motivation meaning that married individuals scored significantly higher in work motivation (Kim, 2020; Meng & Yang, 2023). A possible reason for the inconsistency is that the finding relies on self-reports of job motivation, which may not correspond to the actual performance or perception of others. Another possible reason is that the sample of instructors may not be representative of the general population of higher education staff, and may have some confounding variables that influence both their marital status and their job motivation. For instance, the level of education, the field of study, the age, the gender, and the cultural background of the instructors may affect their work motivation and satisfaction, as well as their marital decisions and outcomes. Hence, more rigorous and comprehensive research is required to investigate the relationship between marital status and job motivation in higher education, and to control for the potential moderating and mediating factors.

5.6.8. Instructors Marital Status and Job Satisfaction

The finding indicates that divorced instructors experience higher levels of job satisfaction compared to both married and unmarried instructors. However, the ANOVA result shows that the difference is not statistically significant, meaning that it could be due to chance or other factors. This finding is consistent with the previous findings which indicated that, when accounting for age and gender, marital status does not significantly correlate with job satisfaction (Jayaraman & Tamizhchelvan, 2015). Thus, it is not valid to infer a causal relationship between

marital status and job satisfaction in higher education. One possible explanation for the discrepancy is that the measurement of job satisfaction in the finding is based on self-reports, which may not reflect the actual performance or perception of others. Therefore, more rigorous and comprehensive research is needed to examine the link between marital status and job satisfaction in higher education, and to account for the potential moderating and mediating factors. As a higher education instructor, I find this topic interesting and relevant, as it may have implications for my own professional development and personal well-being. I wonder how marital status may affect other aspects of teaching and learning, such as motivation, engagement, and feedback. I hope that future research will shed more light on this issue and provide useful insights for higher education practitioners and policymakers.

5.6.9. Instructors' Marital Status and Organizational Commitment

The study found that instructors who were married or divorced had higher organizational commitment than those who were unmarried. However, the researchers found no statistically significant difference in the ANOVA summary, meaning that the difference could have occurred by chance or due to factors not measured in the study. Previous research conducted by Sheikh (2017) revealed that marital status appears to be a significant factor for female employees who prioritize a family-friendly work environment. Such an environment at the university facilitates a better work-life balance, particularly due to the availability of flexible working hours. The finding relied on self-reports, which could be biased or inaccurate. Another possible explanation was that confounding variables affected marital status and organizational commitment. For example, the instructors' education level, field of study, age, gender, and cultural background could influence how they perceived and performed their roles in their organizations, as well as how they decided and experienced their marital relationships. Therefore, the researchers recommended more rigorous and comprehensive research to examine the relationship between marital status and organizational commitment in higher education, controlling for other factors.

5.6.10. Instructors' Marital Status and Turnover Intention

The discovery of a causal relationship between marital status and turnover intention within higher education is both surprising and statistically significant, indicating that unmarried instructors exhibit a higher propensity to leave their positions compared to their married counterparts. Nevertheless, this finding diverges from certain prior studies which have

underscored the positive influence of marital status on factors such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work motivation attributes commonly associated with reduced turnover intention (Mulie & Sime, 2018). The data suggest that married academic staffs are 2.088 times less inclined to leave from their university positions compared to their unmarried counterparts. One plausible explanation for this inconsistency could be attributed to the reliance on self-reported measures to gauge turnover intention, which might not wholly capture the actual behavior of instructors. Additionally, confounding variables could play a significant role, influencing both marital status and turnover intention. Factors such as educational attainment, discipline, age, gender, and cultural background may intricately interplay with turnover intention and marital decisions, thereby warranting further investigation. Thus, it becomes imperative to conduct additional research to examine the relationship between marital status and turnover intention in higher education, while also endeavoring to control for potential moderating and mediating variables.

5.6.11. Instructors' Educational Status and Emotional Intelligence

The findings in Table 15 suggest a positive correlation between Emotional Intelligence (EI) and academic status among higher education instructors, with Ph.D./assistant professors exhibiting the highest level of EI among the compared groups. This aligns with prior research highlighting EI skills as significant predictors of academic success, crucially impacting student performance (Halimi et al., 2020). Moreover, some studies have suggested that higher education can enhance one's EI, as it exposes one to diverse perspectives and challenges (Sánchez-álvarez et al., 2020). Furthermore, EI may bolster instructors' capacity to navigate the multifaceted challenges inherent in teaching, including emotion management, student motivation, and fostering a conducive learning atmosphere (Zhoc et al., 2020). The relationship between educational attainment and Emotional Intelligence (EI) remains ambiguous within the context of higher education studies. This ambiguity necessitates further investigation into the factors influencing the evolution of EI across different levels of academic achievement. Specifically, the discrepancy in EI levels between Ph.D./assistant professors and associate professors, despite similar educational backgrounds, raises questions. Could different experiences, expectations, or opportunities in their academic lines contribute to this contrast? Alternatively, might disparate personality traits, learning styles, or motivational orientations account for these distinctions?

These avenues merit further exploration to elucidate the implications of EI within higher education. Additionally, investigating the integration of EI into academic curricula and qualification frameworks presents an intriguing prospect. Identifying barriers to and devising strategies for promoting EI skill acquisition in higher education settings could prove instrumental (Zhoc et al., 2020).

5.6.12. Instructors' Educational Status and Turnover Intention

The results of the descriptive statistics indicate that lecturers achieved higher mean scores than assistant lecturers, assistant professors, and associate professors in terms of turnover intentions. Statistically significant mean differences were observed among instructors' educational levels, suggesting that instructors with the academic status of lecturer tend to have relatively higher turnover intentions compared to others $F_{(3, 615)} = 6.775, p < 0.01$). Education status, specifically the certification status of teachers, can also impact turnover intentions. For example, uncertified special education teachers may experience a higher level of turnover intention than their certified counterparts due to increased challenges and fewer resources in their work environment (Miller et al., 1999). Conversely, certified teachers often have access to better opportunities and incentives, such as higher salaries and career advancement, which may encourage them to remain in their positions. In conclusion, the study's findings underscore the significant influence of academic status and certification on educators' turnover intentions. Lecturers, in particular, exhibit higher turnover intentions than their higher-ranked counterparts, a trend that is statistically significant and warrants further investigation. Additionally, the certification status of teachers emerges as a pivotal factor, with uncertified special education teachers displaying a greater propensity to leave, likely due to the myriad challenges they encounter. Conversely, certified teachers are more inclined to stay, motivated by the enhanced opportunities and rewards that certification affords. These insights highlight the critical need for targeted interventions and support systems to address the specific needs of uncertified teachers and to mitigate the turnover rates among lecturers, thereby fostering a more stable and committed teaching workforce.

5.6.13. Instructors' Educational Status and Effective Communication

The findings suggest a lack of significant correlation between instructors' academic status and their effective communication within higher education. This observation aligns with

prior research examining the determinants of effective communication in this context. Howard (2014) posited that factors such as communication styles, audience dynamics, generational disparities, organizational culture, and intercultural proficiency outweigh academic credentials in influencing instructors' ability to engage with students, peers, and stakeholders. Notably, Howard (2014) underscored the importance of intercultural competence, linguistic adaptability, and empathy in bridging communication gaps across diverse cultural settings within higher education. However, this finding contrasts with other studies that have identified a positive correlation between instructors' academic status and their effective communication in higher education. For example, Tracey Salamondra (2021) emphasized the pivotal role of effective communication in student success and highlighted students' inclination to view instructors with higher academic standing as more credible, knowledgeable, and authoritative sources of information and guidance.

This discrepancy presents a confusing scenario necessitating further investigation and clarification. One approach to reconciling these conflicting findings is to analyze the multifaceted nature of effective communication within higher education, considering various dimensions and indicators. Effective communication encompasses elements such as clarity, accuracy, relevance, timeliness, responsiveness, appropriateness, persuasiveness, and rapport. These facets may be evaluated through diverse metrics including student learning outcomes, satisfaction ratings, peer evaluations, publication records, citation metrics, and online presence. Moreover, the significance of these dimensions and indicators may vary based on the communication's purpose, context, and audience. Hence, future research should investigate the complex and dynamic relationship between effective communication, instructors' academic status, and other contextual factors within higher education.

5.6.14. Instructors' Educational Status and Job Motivation

Instructors' job motivation varies significantly by their educational rank, as the finding shows. Assistant lecturers had the highest level of motivation, followed by assistant professors and associate professors. Lecturers had lower motivation levels, with lecturers being the least motivated. Assistant lecturers had significantly higher motivation scores, as a post hoc test showed, while no significant difference was found between assistant professors and associate professors. Overall, these results suggest that assistant lecturers were the most motivated group

among the higher education institutions studied. A possible explanation for this finding is that assistant lecturers have higher expectations, aspirations, or satisfaction in their work than other academic ranks, as they may be more eager to advance their careers or more satisfied with their teaching roles.

The findings of this study challenge the hypothesis that instructors' job motivation is directly correlated with their educational rank. While research suggests that instructors with advanced degrees may be intrinsically motivated by a passion for research and academic excellence Gagné and Deci (2005), those with lower qualifications might prioritize extrinsic rewards, such as salary (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Kim (2020) notes that for highly educated and married women, motivation is a crucial factor in career continuation decisions, providing a theoretical basis for further research. Nonetheless, this study reveals that educational rank is not the sole motivator. The school's academic quality, administrative and collegial support, working conditions, and instructors' personal aspirations also significantly influence their motivation. These elements should be considered in policy and practice to boost motivation and retention in higher education.

5.6.15. Instructors' Educational Status and Job Satisfaction

The findings indicate that assistant lecturers exhibit higher levels of job satisfaction compared to lecturers, assistant professors, and associate professors. Specifically, Table 15 illustrates that both assistant lecturers and associate professors reported high levels of job satisfaction, whereas assistant professors indicated lower satisfaction levels. However, there was no statistically significant difference in mean job satisfaction scores when comparing instructors across different educational levels, suggesting that education level does not significantly influence job satisfaction among instructors. Stankovska et al. (2017) explored job motivation and satisfaction among academic staff in higher education, highlighting that personal, social, cultural, environmental, and financial factors outweigh academic qualifications or rank in determining satisfaction levels. In fact there was a negative relationship between job motivation and job satisfaction among assistant lecturers; but positive relationship between job motivation and job satisfaction among assistant professors, associate professors and full professors. Other studies have shown mixed associations between instructors' educational attainment and job satisfaction in higher education. For instance, Pita and Torregrosa (2021) found that the more

educated workers are, the more satisfied they report to be with the working conditions of their jobs. Similarly, Khalid et al. (2012) suggested that job satisfaction and motivation among academic staff significantly impact the quality of institutions and students' learning outcomes. Their findings indicated that faculty members at private universities exhibit greater satisfaction with their remuneration, supervisory relationships, and advancement prospects compared to their counterparts in public institutions. Conversely, public university faculty members report higher levels of satisfaction regarding collegial interaction and job security. It is also suggested that elevated educational attainment may bolster instructors' credibility, expertise, and influence, which could, in turn, enhance their job satisfaction and motivation. Considering the intricate array of elements that affect job satisfaction within the realm of higher education, it is imperative for future studies to explore its multifaceted and evolving characteristics. Such investigations should encompass not only the educational achievements of faculty but also other relevant variables. This comprehensive approach will yield a deeper understanding of job satisfaction and its consequential effects on the various stakeholders within the higher education sector.

5.6.16. Instructors' Educational Status and Organizational Commitment

The findings from Table 15 indicate that associate professors had the highest mean scores, followed by assistant professors, lecturers, and assistant lecturers in terms of organizational commitment. Additionally, there was a significant mean difference observed among instructors' academic statuses concerning their organizational commitments. This suggests that academic status influences organizational commitment among instructors, with higher-ranked positions generally exhibiting greater commitment. This result agrees with some prior research that has investigated the impact of personal characteristics on faculty members' attachment to their institutions. For example, Bakan et al. (2011) reported a significant relationship between education level and organizational commitment among employees in a Turkey. In conclusion, the analysis substantiates a distinct correlation between academic rank and organizational commitment among educators. Associate professors exhibited the most profound commitment, succeeded by assistant professors, lecturers, and assistant lecturers, respectively. These results are congruent with prior research, underscoring the pivotal role of individual attributes in shaping educators' commitment to their respective institutions.

5.6.17. Instructors' Work Experience and Emotional Intelligence

As indicated in Table 16 instructors with 16–20 years of teaching experience had the highest mean score in emotional intelligence, followed by instructors with 11–15 years, 6–10 years, and 1–5 years of experience, respectively. The data suggests a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and the number of years of teaching experience. Post hoc pair comparisons in Table 18 showed that instructors with 16–20 years of experience scored significantly higher than those with 1–5 and 6–10 years of experience, and instructors with 11–15 years scored significantly higher than those with 1–5 years. There was no significant difference between instructors with 11–15 and 16–20 years of experience, or between instructors with 1–5 and 6–10 years. These findings suggest that teaching experience enhances emotional intelligence among instructors.

These findings align with existing literature that emphasizes the significance of emotional intelligence (EI) in teachers' effectiveness. Work experience have a positive effect on emotional intelligence, as it provides opportunities for learning and developing emotional skills in different situations (Gautam & Khurana, 2017). There are several possible explanations for the observed positive association between teaching experience and emotional intelligence. Firstly, experienced instructors may have developed greater self-awareness and self-regulation skills over time, enabling them to recognize and manage their own emotions effectively, even in challenging situations. Secondly, interactions with diverse students and colleagues over the years may have enhanced their social awareness and relationship management skills, enabling them to empathize and communicate effectively. In conclusion, this study provides evidence of a positive association between teaching experience and emotional intelligence among higher education instructors.

5.6.18. Instructors' Work Experience and Effective Communication

The findings of this study indicate a significant positive correlation between work experience and effective communication skills among higher education instructors. Instructors with 16-20 years of work experience demonstrated significantly higher mean scores in effective communication compared to those with fewer years of experience. This correlation suggests that as instructors gain more experience, they become more proficient and confident in utilizing various communication skills in their teaching practices (Maragha, 2021). However, it is

essential to acknowledge that other factors may also influence the effective communication skills of instructors, which were not accounted for in this study. For instance, instructors may face diverse and complex classroom environments that require them to adapt their communication styles accordingly. Additionally, variations in motivation and interest levels among instructors may impact their willingness to enhance their communication skills through continuous learning and professional development initiatives. Therefore, while the findings highlight the importance of teaching experience in fostering effective communication skills, it is crucial to consider individual differences and contextual factors when evaluating instructors' communication abilities. This nuanced understanding is vital for developing tailored training programs and support mechanisms to help instructors improve their communication skills effectively. In conclusion, while the study provides valuable insights into the relationship between teaching experience and communication skills, caution must be exercised in interpreting these findings. Future research endeavors should aim to explore this relationship further using rigorous experimental or quasi-experimental designs to establish causal effects. Additionally, incorporating a broader range of sources and proposing innovative solutions to address the limitations of the study could enrich the discourse on this topic.

5.6.19. Instructors' Work Experience and Job Motivation

Instructors with 11–15 years of work experience had higher job motivation than those with 1–5, 6–10, and 16–20 years, consistent with previous research on the factors affecting teacher motivation. Work experience is another significant socio-demographic variable influencing job motivation in higher education. Novice instructors may experience higher motivation due to the novelty of the teaching experience and their desire to prove themselves (Stankovska et al., 2017). Experienced instructors, on the other hand, may find motivation in mentorship and facilitating the development of younger educators. Recognizing the varying needs of instructors at different career stages is vital. Cordingley et al. (2019) argue that teacher motivation is enhanced by measures that improve teachers' professionalism, such as collaboration and continuous professional development. However, the relationship between teaching experience and job motivation is not linear or deterministic. There may be other factors that moderate or mediate this relationship, such as individual differences in personality traits, values, beliefs, goals, expectations, and preferences; contextual factors in the school

environment; and temporal factors in the course of time. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct further research to examine these factors in depth and to explore how they interact with each other to influence teacher motivation.

5.6.20. Instructors' Work Experience and Job Satisfaction

The findings suggest that instructors with 16–20 years of teaching experience reported higher job satisfaction levels compared to those with fewer years of experience. Despite these differences, statistical analysis did not find any significant mean differences in job satisfaction among instructors with different levels of experience. The finding of this study supports the findings of previous studies that have demonstrated a positive relationship between teaching experience and job satisfaction among academic staff in higher education. For example, Kadtong et al. (2017) reported that the experience of teachers influence their satisfaction level. This may be attributed to several factors, such as: Teachers with more years of teaching experience may have gained more knowledge, skills, and confidence in their profession, which may enhance their sense of competence and fulfillment, as well as developed more effective strategies for managing classroom dynamics, dealing with diverse student needs, and adapting to changing educational contexts. Some other studies that have found a positive relationship between job motivation and job satisfaction among academic staff in higher education (Stankovska et al., 2017). Therefore, it is possible that job satisfaction is influenced by other factors besides teaching experience, such as personal values, goals, interests, expectations, rewards system etc. In conclusion, this study has provided some insights into the relationship between teaching experience and job satisfaction among academic staff in higher education. However, further research is needed to explore the underlying mechanisms and moderators of this relationship.

5.6.21. Instructors' Work Experience and Organizational Commitment

The study found that instructors with 16–20 years of experience had higher commitment scores compared to those with 1–5 and 6–10 years of experience. This increase in commitment levels with teaching experience is in line with prior research in the field of education. For instance, Nazir Haider Shah et al. (2020) observed a positive correlation between teachers' years of experience and their organizational commitment. Specifically, teachers across various experience ranges 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, and 16-20 years demonstrated high levels of job commitment. Nevertheless, it was also noted that there was no correlation between the teachers'

educational qualifications, their tenure, and their organizational commitment, as reported by (Gyeltshen, 2021). A plausible explanation is that teaching experience enhances instructors' professional experiential learning, which in turn influences their commitment to the organization. This experiential learning is a key component of professional development, allowing instructors to meet changing demands and expectations in their field, as well as to improve their pedagogical techniques and student outcomes. Further research is essential to investigate the mechanisms and conditions that define the relationship between teaching work experience and organizational commitment. It is equally important to compare these findings across different educational contexts and cultures to gain a broader understanding of the phenomenon.

5.6.22. Instructors' Work Experience and Turnover Intention

The issue of turnover intention among higher education instructors is a multifaceted phenomenon that has received considerable attention in recent research. A surprising finding has emerged, showing that instructors with 1–5 years of teaching experience tend to score higher in terms of turnover intention than their counterparts with 6–10, 11–15, and 16–20 years of teaching experience. This finding challenges the conventional wisdom regarding the relationship between teaching experience and turnover intention in higher education. This finding contradicted with the existing literature on teacher work experience and turnover intention in higher education. Employees with more work experience are less likely to leave their organizations, as they have often invested more in the organization and developed stronger ties with their colleagues. This is also true for teachers, as Miller et al. (1999) demonstrated that teachers with more years of teaching experience had lower levels of turnover intention than those with less experience. Moreover, work experience can also affect the level of satisfaction and commitment that teachers have to their jobs and organizations, which in turn can influence their turnover intention. A comprehensive meta-analysis by Nazari and Alizadeh Oghyanous (2021) found a consistent negative correlation between years of teaching work experience and turnover intention. This suggests that, on average, instructors with more work experience are less likely to express an intention to leave their current roles. Several factors may contribute to this finding. One potential explanation is that the challenges faced by early-career instructors are perceived as more acute, leading to a higher expression of turnover intention during the initial years. As instructors gain experience and adapt to the demands of academia, their intention to leave may

decrease. However, the turning point might be different for each individual, explaining the reversal in the scores among those with 6–10 years of experience. In conclusion, the finding that instructors with 1–5 years of teaching experience exhibit higher turnover intention than their more experienced instructors adds a layer of complexity to our understanding of the relationship between teaching experience and turnover in higher education.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

6.1. Conclusions

This study demonstrated the extent to which instructors' emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention relate, and illustrated their implications for organizational dynamics and instructor retention.

The main finding of this study was that instructors had a significantly higher level of emotional intelligence. However, the study also found that instructors had significantly lower levels of job motivation and satisfaction. They also had lower levels of effective communication and organizational commitment, although these differences were not statistically significant. The findings highlight that while instructors demonstrate strong emotional intelligence, indicating emotional stability and a deep understanding of organizational dynamics, there are notable challenges in job motivation, satisfaction, effective communication, and organizational commitment. These findings underscore the importance of addressing organizational issues that may impact instructor retention and satisfaction. Strategies aimed at enhancing job motivation, fostering effective communication practices, and strengthening organizational commitment could potentially improve overall job satisfaction and reduce turnover rates among instructors. Further research is essential to identify specific root causes of these challenges and develop targeted interventions that promote a supportive and fulfilling work environment in educational settings.

The correlation analysis showed that emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment were negatively and significantly related to turnover intention. This means that instructors who scored higher on these factors were less likely to leave their jobs or organizations. This suggests that enhancing these factors could reduce instructor turnover. The analysis also revealed that emotional intelligence was positively and significantly related to effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. This implies that instructors with higher emotional intelligence also had higher levels of these factors, which could benefit their performance and

well-being. Additionally, the analysis indicated that effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment were positively and significantly related to each other. This demonstrates the interdependence of these factors in the context of higher education instructors.

The study examined how emotional intelligence affects turnover intention among instructors, and how this relationship is mediated by effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Previous research suggested that emotional intelligence reduces instructors' intention to quit. The study confirmed this finding, showing that emotional intelligence had a significant negative impact on turnover intention. The study also revealed two types of mediating effects between emotional intelligence and turnover intention: partial mediation and serial mediation. In partial mediation, emotional intelligence influenced turnover intention both directly and indirectly through one or more mediators. In serial mediation, emotional intelligence influenced turnover intention indirectly through a chain of mediators. The study identified four mediators: effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment were the mediators in both partial and full mediation. Effective communication and job motivation were the mediators in partial mediation only. The study provided statistical evidence for each mediation model, and discussed the implications for theory and practice.

The regression analysis showed that emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, and organizational commitment were all significant predictors of turnover intention, explaining 30.1% of the total variance. Among these factors, organizational commitment, job motivation, and emotional intelligence had stronger negative effects on turnover intention among instructors, while effective communication had a weaker positive significant effect on turnover intention. However, job satisfaction also had a positive but not significant effect on turnover intention, but it still added to the overall understanding of the phenomenon. In contrast, organizational commitment was the most influential factor. Job motivation was the second most predictor, and emotional intelligence was the third most influential factor influencing instructors' turnover intention behavior in higher education. Overall, organizational commitment was the most crucial predictor, with job motivation and emotional intelligence also playing significant roles in influencing instructors' turnover intentions in higher education.

This study examined the impact of gender on emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention among instructors. The findings indicated that female instructors exhibited higher job motivation compared to male instructors, while no significant gender differences were observed in the other variables. These results suggest that gender influences certain aspects of instructors' attitudes and behaviors more than others.

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed the relationships among the variables. Age was a significant factor in several aspects. Instructors aged 36-45 scored higher on emotional intelligence, job motivation, and organizational commitment than those aged 25-35. These findings suggest that older instructors demonstrate enhanced emotional intelligence, increased job motivation, and greater organizational commitment. The findings indicate that younger instructors (25-35) exhibited higher turnover intention, suggesting a positive association between age and turnover intention. This implies that younger instructors are more likely to consider leaving their positions compared to their older counterparts.

The findings also indicated that marital status significantly influences the independent and dependent variables. Married instructors' demonstrated higher emotional intelligence compared to their unmarried counterparts, while unmarried instructors exhibited higher turnover intention than married instructors. The findings suggest that marital status plays a crucial role in shaping both emotional intelligence and turnover intention among instructors. Specifically, being married is associated with higher emotional intelligence, whereas being unmarried is linked to a greater likelihood of considering leaving their positions. This implies that marital status may be an important factor to consider when addressing issues related to emotional well-being and retention strategies in educational institutions.

The findings suggest that educational levels have a significant impact on various aspects of instructors' professional attitudes and behaviors. For instance, instructors with Ph.D. or assistant professor qualifications demonstrated higher emotional intelligence compared to those with lower academic ranks. Assistant lecturers exhibited higher job motivation than lecturers. Associate professors showed greater organizational commitment compared to other academic ranks and lecturers displayed higher turnover intention than assistant lecturers. These implications highlight the importance of educational attainment in influencing emotional

intelligence, job motivation, organizational commitment, and turnover intention among instructors. They underscore the potential benefits of higher academic qualifications in enhancing these professional attributes and reducing turnover intentions within academic settings.

The findings underscore the influence of years of work experience on various dimensions among instructors. Specifically, instructors with 11-15 and 16-20 years of experience demonstrated higher levels of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, and organizational commitment compared to their less experienced counterparts. Conversely, instructors with 1-5 years of experience exhibited higher turnover intention than those with greater tenure. These results highlight the significant impact of professional experience in shaping both positive professional attributes and potential challenges such as turnover intention among instructors in educational settings.

6.2. The Relevance and Implications of Theories

This study offers significant insights into turnover intentions within a specific higher education context, providing theoretical understanding and practical applications. It analyzes four key theoretical frameworks: the Theory of Reasoned Action or Planned Behavior, Emotional Social Intelligence theory, Social Exchange theory, and Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory. By aligning its analysis with these frameworks, the study achieves a comprehensive understanding of the factors influencing turnover intentions. Furthermore, empirical evidence gathered in the study substantiates and validates these theoretical perspectives. Through rigorous research methods and data analysis, the study illustrates how factors such as emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment contribute to turnover intentions among individuals in higher education. Overall, the study's findings contribute not only to theoretical understanding but also offer practical implications for educators, administrators, and policymakers. By acknowledging the multifaceted nature of turnover intentions and the interaction of various factors, stakeholders can devise targeted interventions and strategies to enhance employee retention and organizational effectiveness in higher education environments.

Reasoned Action or Planned Behavior Theory

The Theory of Reasoned Action or Planned Behavior is highly relevant in understanding the turnover intentions of academic staff in higher education. This theory, proposed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and Ajzen (1991), provides a framework to predict and explain instructors' decisions to stay or leave their jobs. The theory suggests that human behavior is rational and planned, and it is determined by the intention to perform the behavior. This intention is influenced by their attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. Attitude is the individual's evaluation of the pros and cons of performing the behavior. For instance, an instructor may have a positive attitude towards staying in their job if they believe it will provide them with satisfaction, recognition, and security. Subjective norm is the individual's perception of the social pressure from significant others, such as peers, the media, or family, regarding whether or not they should perform the behavior. For instance, an instructor may feel a strong subjective norm to leave their job if they think that their colleagues, friends, or family want them to do so or would approve of their decision. Perceived behavioral control is the individual's perception of their ability to perform the behavior. For instance, an instructor may have a high perceived behavioral control to stay in their job if they believe that they have the skills, knowledge, and support to do their work effectively and efficiently. The theory can be applied to understand how instructors' turnover intentions and behaviors are related to their commitments, compensation fairness, job satisfaction, and other factors. For example, Munir and Rahman (2016) found that instructors' turnover intentions were negatively influenced by their job satisfaction and positively influenced by their subjective norm and perceived behavioral control. They also found that job satisfaction was positively influenced by the commitments of instructors and the fairness of compensation. However, the theory has some limitations and criticisms, such as the assumption of rationality and planning, the reliance on self-reported measures, the lack of specification of the interactions and influences of the model components, and the difficulty of measuring and operationalizing the behavior of interest. Therefore, it is important to acknowledge these issues and to use the theory with caution and rigor.

Emotional social intelligence Theory

The theory of emotional-social intelligence, developed by Bar-On, is highly relevant to the turnover intention of academic staff in higher education. This theory suggests that emotional and social abilities, skills, and facilitators are interrelated and essential for how well we perceive

ourselves and others, express ourselves, and cope with daily life demands. In the context of higher education, academic staff members who have high emotional intelligence are more likely to be effective communicators. They can use their emotions to guide their thoughts and behaviors, understand their own and others' feelings accurately, and manage their interactions effectively. This ability to understand and manage emotions can enhance interpersonal interactions, increase psychological well-being, and lead to more favorable judgments by others. Moreover, the theory suggests that high emotional intelligence can lead to more emotional exhaustion as these individuals tend to analyze the use of emotion in themselves and others more often. This could potentially influence their turnover intentions as they might seek environments that are less emotionally demanding. Furthermore, the theory is supported by the social exchange theory, which indicates that staff members in higher education institutions have social relationships with their colleagues, department heads, program chairs, students, and academic communities. They contribute to teaching, research, and community service, for which they expect benefits and promotional opportunities. If these expectations are not met, it could influence their turnover intentions. In conclusion, the theory of emotional-social intelligence has significant implications for understanding the turnover intentions of academic staff in higher education. It provides a framework for understanding how emotional and social competencies influence staff members' interactions, job satisfaction, and ultimately, their decisions to stay or leave their positions.

Social Exchange Theory

The theoretical implications of the Social Exchange Theory (SET) are profound. SET posits that individuals engage in social interactions aiming to maximize rewards and minimize costs, thus forming and sustaining mutually beneficial relationships. This theory can be applied to various contexts, such as the workplace, education, and family, to explain how individuals evaluate their current and alternative situations, and how their satisfaction and commitment levels influence their decisions and behaviors. In the context of the workplace, SET contributes to understanding the relationship between turnover intention, emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. EI, the ability to be aware of and understand one's own emotions and the emotions of others, and to use this information to guide one's actions and interactions, is a key factor in social exchanges. High EI can lead to more positive social exchanges, enhancing job satisfaction and organizational

commitment, and reducing turnover intentions. Effective communication, the skill of conveying and receiving messages clearly and accurately, and of establishing rapport and trust with others, is crucial for successful social exchanges. Effective communication can improve job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and decrease turnover intentions. Organizational commitment, the degree of attachment and loyalty that individuals have towards their organizations, and their willingness to contribute to its goals and values, can be influenced by the quality of social exchanges. Positive social exchanges can strengthen organizational commitment and reduce turnover intentions. Turnover intentions, the psychological state of individuals who are considering leaving their organizations voluntarily, can be understood through the lens of SET. Negative social exchanges can increase turnover intentions, while positive social exchanges can decrease them. By applying SET to research, we can explore how EI and effective communication predict organizational commitment and turnover intentions among instructors in higher education, through reciprocal exchanges, mutual benefit, and the evaluation of rewards and costs within their social relationships. We can also examine how other variables, such as work environment, job satisfaction, and career opportunities, may mediate these relationships. This can provide useful implications for retaining and motivating instructors in higher education, as well as improving their performance and well-being.

Herzberg's two-factor theory

The theoretical implications of Herzberg's two-factor theory are profound and have significantly contributed to our understanding of job satisfaction and motivation. Herzberg's theory posits that job satisfaction is influenced by both hygiene and motivator factors. While hygiene factors can prevent dissatisfaction, they do not necessarily contribute to satisfaction. On the other hand, motivator factors can truly enhance job satisfaction by fulfilling individuals' needs for personal growth and recognition. Moreover, Herzberg's theory directly addresses job motivation, suggesting that it is primarily driven by motivator factors. These intrinsic factors, such as the opportunity for training and development or recognition, provide a sense of personal growth and achievement, thereby enhancing job motivation. According to Herzberg, employees are more likely to consider leaving their jobs if hygiene factors (extrinsic factors such as working conditions and compensation) are insufficient or if motivator factors (intrinsic factors such as recognition and career development) are lacking. This aligns with the observation that low job satisfaction can increase the risk of high turnover intention. In conclusion, Herzberg's two-factor

theory provides a comprehensive framework for understanding the complex relationship between various factors that influence job satisfaction and motivation, and their subsequent impact on turnover intention and organizational commitment. It underscores the importance of addressing both extrinsic (hygiene) and intrinsic (motivator) factors to enhance job satisfaction, motivation, and organizational commitment, and reduce turnover intention. This theory can be particularly useful in informing human resource strategies and practices in various organizational contexts, including universities in Ethiopia.

6.3. Practical Implications

The findings of this study have significant implications for academia and organizational management in Ethiopian public universities. They reveal disparities in communication, motivation, satisfaction, and commitment among instructors, which require targeted interventions. These interventions could include improving communication channels through regular feedback sessions, fostering a supportive work environment where instructors feel valued and respected, and providing opportunities for professional development such as training workshops and mentoring programs. By implementing these measures, instructors' satisfaction and commitment could be increased, and their turnover intentions reduced. Moreover, the correlation results highlight the importance of five factors in influencing instructors' attitudes and intentions: emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Institutions can utilize these findings to develop strategies that promote a supportive and conducive work environment, leading to employee satisfaction, retention, and organizational success. Furthermore, the ability of emotional intelligence, job motivation, and job satisfaction to predict instructors' turnover intention and organizational commitment suggests opportunities for institutions to design interventions that mitigate turnover intention and promote employee retention and satisfaction. Additionally, the complex relationship between socio-demographic variables and professional attributes among instructors reflects the multifaceted nature of factors that influence their attitudes and intentions. This calls for comprehensive strategies that address the various dynamics of academic and organizational environments, as well as employee well-being, within Ethiopian public universities.

6.4. Recommendations

Based on the conclusions drawn from the study, we propose the following recommendations to address the identified issues and enhance the overall satisfaction and retention of instructors in the educational setting:

Implement Emotional Intelligence Training for Instructors

Emotional intelligence (EI) refers to the ability to understand and manage one's own emotions as well as the emotions of others. It encompasses skills like self-awareness and self-regulation. Instructors greatly benefit from EI, as it helps reduce turnover intention, improve communication, increase job motivation and satisfaction, and foster organizational commitment. Therefore, we suggest that institutions introduce training programs that focus on enhancing EI skills among instructors. These programs can be delivered through workshops, seminars, or online courses, depending on the instructors' availability and preferences. The Human Resources department can collaborate with external trainers or develop internal training programs on EI, based on the best practices and research findings in the field. The Training and Development team should be responsible for designing and delivering the EI training sessions, as well as evaluating their impact and effectiveness. Instructors should actively participate in the training and apply the acquired skills in their work. This has the potential to enhance their emotional stability, understanding of behavior, and perception of the work environment, ultimately leading to improved performance and outcomes.

Improving Effective Communication of Instructors

Effective communication is crucial in establishing a strong connection between emotional intelligence and turnover intention. To foster this connection, institutions should encourage a culture of open and transparent communication, facilitating dialogue and information exchange among instructors and administrative staff. This can be achieved through regular meetings, the use of online communication tools, and the establishment of feedback mechanisms. The department of communication, learning, and professional development should also design and deliver effective training programs or workshops to enhance instructors' communication skills. It is important for instructors to actively participate in these sessions and apply the acquired skills in their interactions with colleagues and students. This can potentially lead to increased organizational commitment and decreased turnover intention.

Enhancing Job Motivation of Instructors

Job motivation is a driving force that significantly impacts instructors' turnover intentions, overall performance, and productivity. Therefore, it is crucial to boost instructors' motivation levels. To achieve this, we propose implementing initiatives that focus on key areas. Firstly, providing ample opportunities for instructors to expand their skill sets, update their knowledge, and advance their careers is essential. This could involve offering comprehensive training programs, establishing mentorship schemes, or granting access to relevant online courses. Close collaboration between the Human Resources department and the Training and Development team is vital to tailor these opportunities to instructors' specific needs and interests. Secondly, recognizing and appreciating instructors' achievements and contributions is vital for sustaining their motivation. Regular feedback and acknowledgment for outstanding performance are effective means to achieve this. University presidents, college deans, and department or program managers should establish fair and transparent recognition systems and effectively communicate the value of instructors' work to the institution and society. Lastly, cultivating a work environment that instills a sense of purpose and fulfillment in instructors is indispensable. This involves clearly defining the institution's vision, mission, and goals for both the institution and the instructors. Providing autonomy, flexibility, and adequate resources to carry out their responsibilities further enhances job satisfaction. Cultivating a culture of trust, respect, and collaboration among instructors and other stakeholders is paramount. Additionally, promptly addressing any issues or challenges that impede work satisfaction and motivation is essential for sustaining a positive work environment. In summary, by prioritizing initiatives aimed at enhancing job motivation, institutions can cultivate a more engaged and productive workforce among their instructors, ultimately benefiting both the institution and its stakeholders.

Enhancing Job Satisfaction for Instructors

Job satisfaction refers to the level of contentment and fulfillment that instructors experience in their work. It has a significant impact on turnover intentions, as well as overall performance and productivity. Therefore, it is crucial to prioritize the enhancement of job satisfaction for instructors. The Human Resources department can play a key role in this effort by evaluating and improving existing policies, benefits, and work conditions. This may involve offering competitive salaries, flexible schedules, comprehensive health insurance, and other

attractive incentives. Additionally, university presidents, college deans, and department or program managers have the responsibility of fostering a positive work environment. They can achieve this by providing consistent support and duly recognizing the accomplishments of instructors. Examples of recognition include offering constructive feedback, tangible rewards, and heartfelt appreciation for their dedication and hard work. Above all, it is essential to cultivate a culture of value, respect, and trust within the organization. Instructors should feel genuinely appreciated and supported in their roles, which will contribute to a harmonious and productive work environment.

Enhancing Organizational Commitment for Instructors

Organizational commitment is the degree to which instructors identify with and are loyal to the institution. Organizational commitment also mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intentions and enhances performance and productivity. Therefore, it is important to increase organizational commitment of instructors. The Human Resources department could provide opportunities for growth and advancement for instructors, such as career development, mentoring, and training programs. They should also involve instructors in decision-making processes, such as curriculum design, policy formulation, and strategic planning. Instructors could express their needs and concerns to the appropriate stakeholders and participate in professional development opportunities. They should also actively engage in the organization, contribute to its goals, and participate in activities that strengthen their commitment. For example, they could join committees, teams, or clubs, attend events, or volunteer for projects. This could involve creating a sense of belonging and loyalty to the institution.

Addressing Demographic Diversity

The study found significant differences in emotional intelligence, job motivation, organizational commitment, and turnover intention based on factors such as age, marital status, educational level, and years of work experience. Therefore, institutions should develop and implement support programs or initiatives that provide to the specific needs of different demographic groups, such as younger instructors or those with less experience. This could involve mentorship programs, targeted resources, and policies that accommodate varying life stages and career aspirations. By addressing the demographic diversity of instructors, institutions

can improve their emotional intelligence, job motivation, and organizational commitment while reducing turnover intention.

Strategies for Long-Term Retention

Implement long-term retention strategies that focus on creating a supportive and inclusive work environment where instructors feel valued, engaged, motivated, and satisfied with their institution. This may include offering competitive compensation packages, opportunities for career advancement, and a commitment to ongoing professional development.

Continuous Monitoring and Evaluation

Establish mechanisms for continuously monitoring and evaluating the effectiveness of these recommendations. Regularly assess key metrics such as turnover rates, job satisfaction levels, and employee engagement to identify areas for improvement and make necessary adjustments.

Further Research

Future research should examine the underlying factors contributing to observed disparities among instructors in Ethiopian public universities. This can be achieved through longitudinal studies and qualitative inquiries, which can provide a nuanced understanding of the relationship between emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and other key variables. Additionally, exploring the impact of organizational culture, leadership styles, institutional policies, and gender differences on instructor experiences would provide actionable insights for organizational management and policy development. By implementing these recommendations, educational institutions can strive to create a positive and supportive environment that promotes the well-being, satisfaction, and retention of instructors, ultimately enhancing the quality of education delivery and institutional success.

6.5. Limitations of the Study

This study has limitations that must be acknowledged. Firstly, the sample size was relatively small, limiting the generalizability of the findings to Ethiopian higher education instructors as a whole. Increasing the diversity and size of the sample would improve the external validity and representativeness of the study. Secondly, the study relied on self-report measures,

which introduce common method bias and subjectivity. Such measures may not accurately capture instructors' actual behaviors and outcomes, as they can be influenced by social desirability, recall bias, or mood effects. Future research should consider using more objective and reliable measures, such as behavioral observations or performance ratings. Thirdly, the study had a cross-sectional design, which prevents drawing causal conclusions or determining the directionality of observed relationships. This design does not account for the temporal order, stability, or changes in the variables over time. Future research should utilize longitudinal and experimental methods to investigate the causal mechanisms and moderators of the emotional intelligence-turnover intention relationship.

Despite these limitations, this research enhances the existing literature by providing a contextualized analysis within the Ethiopian educational context and suggesting potential explanatory factors such as organizational culture, leadership styles, and institutional policies. Furthermore, we introduced a new framework tailored specifically to the Ethiopian context. This framework demonstrates how emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment predict turnover intention among public university instructors in Ethiopia. It can serve as a valuable guide for future research and interventions. Our findings indicate that enhancing instructors' emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment can increase retention and reduce turnover intention. In summary, this study sheds light on the complex dynamics of emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention in Ethiopian higher education. It confirms the importance of these variables while highlighting their multifaceted nature. We hope that this research inspires further exploration and practical interventions to enhance the effectiveness and satisfaction of Ethiopian public university instructors.

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Appendix 1: Survey Questionnaires (English version)

**Addis Ababa University
College of Education and Behavioral Studies
School of Psychology**

Dear participants of the study:

I am a Ph.D. student at Addis Ababa University Ethiopia, under the supervision of Professor Habtamu Wondimu at the School of Psychology. The research title is The Nexus between Emotional Intelligence and Turnover Intention: The Mediating Effects of Effective Communication, Job Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment among Instructors in Public Universities of Ethiopia. The main aim of this research is to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention and understand the effect of mediating variables (effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment) on turnover intentions. The questionnaire has seven parts that include measures of socio-demographic characteristics, emotional intelligence, effective communication, job motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment and turnover intentions of instructors. You have been chosen and invited to participate in this research. It is hoped that you can provide sufficient information that is necessary for the analysis to be completed successfully. Therefore, please carefully read the instructions and respond to all the items given. And please take note of the following points before you answer the questions.

1. The response you give will have great value for the study. Therefore, you are kindly requested to fill out the questionnaire honestly.
2. The questionnaire will take approximately 25 to 30 minutes of your time.
3. No need of writing your name
4. Any information you may provide will be kept confidential.
5. Your participation is very important for this study but, it depends on your voluntariness and willingness. If you agree please show your consent by your signature: _____.

If you have any questions or concerns, please contact me via e-mail at bantetegegne@gmail.com or Cell Phone at +251 972 66 46 50

I thank you very much for your willingness to participate in the study.

Part I: Socio-Demographic Feature

To get data about your socio-demographic features, the following questions are about your background information. For the following questions, please write down the true information and put an ‘X’ sign on the blank spaces provided. Note that all the data you provide must be accurate.

1. Name of your University -----
2. Age: -----
3. Gender: -----
4. Year of work experience: ----- years
5. Year of service in this University: -----years
6. Marital Status: Married -----, Unmarried -----, Divorced/widowed-----
7. Educational status: Assistant lecturer -----, Lecturer -----, Assi. Prof/Ph.D. -----, Asso. professor-----, professor -----

Part II: The Emotional Intelligence Questionnaires Short Form Scale

The following items are designed to measure emotional intelligence and are used in public Universities in Ethiopia to examine the emotional characteristics and feelings of instructors. The items in the following table are supposed to measure emotional intelligence. Therefore, you are kindly asked as honestly as possible to answer each of the following items. Please carefully read each item and then rate the extent to which you agree with the statements below and circle the most appropriate option for each statement below.

No.	Items							
		Completely	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Undecided	Slightly agree	Agree	Completely agree
	Emotional Self-Awareness							
1	Given my circumstances, I feel pretty good about myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	In general, I am happy with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Overall, I am comfortable with my current situation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I generally believe that everything is good in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	In general, I know my emotions and feelings and how I feel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I would generally describe myself as a good negotiator or communicator.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Emotional Self-Regulation							
7	Generally, I find it difficult to know exactly what emotion I am feeling.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I often find it difficult to motivate myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I often find it difficult to express my feelings to people close to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Those people who are close to me often express their complaints that I don’t treat them right.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I often find it difficult to adjust my life or daily life to the circumstances.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I often find it difficult to control my emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part III: Turnover Intention Scale

The following items are designed to measure the extent to which you intend to leave the organization or institution. Turnover intention is defined as the approximate likelihood of an instructor will soon quit an organization at some stage. The items in the following table are supposed to measure the turnover intentions of instructors in public Universities. Therefore, please read each question and indicate your response using the scale provided for each question and remember that: **1** = Never, **2** = Rarely, **3** = Sometimes, **4** = Most of the time, and **5** = Always.

No.	Items	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	How often have you considered leaving your job or university?	1	2	3	4	5
2	How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	1	2	3	4	5
3	How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	1	2	3	4	5
4	How often would you consider accepting another job at the same salary?	1	2	3	4	5

Part IV: Effective Communication Scale

The following items are designed to measure the communication effectiveness or communication openness of instructors. Effective communication is defined as an open and effective relationship between members of academic staff in higher education institutions. Therefore, please read each item carefully and then circle the answer you choose from the given 5-point scales that range from strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), undecided (3), agree (4), and strongly agree (5).

No.	Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	When people talk to each other at this university, there is a great deal of understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
2	There is very clear communication at this university.	1	2	3	4	5
3	It is easy to communicate openly with all my colleagues at this university.	1	2	3	4	5
4	It is easy to ask for advice from any co-worker at this university.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I find it enjoyable to talk to other co-workers at this university.	1	2	3	4	5

Part V: Organizational Commitment Scale

The following questions or items are designed to measure instructors' organizational commitment. Organizational commitment is correlated with the mental connection of the instructors and their emotional association or engagement with academic institutions and is viewed as their desire to contribute to institutional accomplishments. The items in the following table are supposed to measure the organizational commitments of instructors in public Universities. Thus, please circle the

one number for each question that comes closest to reflecting your opinion from (1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= undecided, 4= agree 5= strongly agree)

Serial Numbers.	Items					
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I feel like I am a part of the family at this university.	1	2	3	4	5
2	This university has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I feel that my thoughts and feelings are attached to this university.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I have a strong sense of belonging to this university.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career at this university.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I feel as if this university's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5

Part VI: Job Motivation Questionnaire Scale

The following items are designed to measure instructors' motivational levels. The items in the following table are supposed to measure the motivational levels of instructors in public Universities. Job motivation is something that motivates instructors toward their goals or work activities. Therefore, please read each statement and circle one on the right side of this page, and answer honestly from a 4-point scale (Strongly disagree=1, Disagree=2, Agree=3, and Strongly agree=4).

No.	Items				
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
	Salary				
1	The salary I get is enough compared to the work I do.	1	2	3	4
2	I have a reasonable and adequate salary.	1	2	3	4
3	My salary is sufficient to meet the necessities for me and my family.	1	2	3	4
4	My salary motivates me to work hard.	1	2	3	4
5	My superiors do all they can to increase my salary.	1	2	3	4
6	I want my teaching job to be seen in terms of my salary.	1	2	3	4
	Promotion and Incentives				
7	The promotion process motivates me to work harder.	1	2	3	4
8	Promotion is given based on lecturers' performance.	1	2	3	4
9	The incentives given to me are appropriate for the work I have done.	1	2	3	4
10	I do appreciate the way lecturers are promoted.	1	2	3	4
	Cheer love and Career development				
11	Being a teacher has always been my first choice, so I have no desire to change careers.	1	2	3	4
12	When I teach, I feel motivated, so I am not interested in getting another job because I like to be a lecturer.	1	2	3	4
13	Even if my salary is insufficient, I will not change my job as a teacher.	1	2	3	4
14	I chose the teaching career because I like it.	1	2	3	4

Part VII: Job Satisfaction Scale

The following items are designed to measure instructors' job satisfaction levels. Job satisfaction is defined as an affective or emotional reaction of instructors to their work. The items in the following table are supposed to measure the job satisfaction levels of instructors in public Universities. Therefore, please read each item carefully and circle one that comes closest to reflecting your opinion about it from the 4 points Likert scale ranging from (1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree)

No.	Items				
		Strongly disagreed	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
	Financial rewards				
1	I am satisfied with my salary because it is reasonable and sufficient.	1	2	3	4
2	I am satisfied with my teaching job in terms of salary.	1	2	3	4
3	I am satisfied because my salary is enough compared to the work I do.	1	2	3	4
4	I am satisfied because my salary is enough to meet the needs of me and my family.	1	2	3	4
5	I am satisfied with my salary, as it helps me to improve myself and achieve my goals.	1	2	3	4
6	I am satisfied with my job because my superiors do their best to increase my salary.	1	2	3	4
7	My salary satisfies me because it doesn't negatively affect my teaching activities.	1	2	3	4
	Respect between co-workers				
8	I am satisfied because there is a good relationship between the instructors.	1	2	3	4
9	I am satisfied with the way instructors help each other.	1	2	3	4
10	I am satisfied with the mutual respect among instructors.	1	2	3	4
11	I am satisfied with the instructors' respect for their colleagues.	1	2	3	4
12	I am satisfied with the way that there is teamwork in the working area.	1	2	3	4
13	I am satisfied with the job because my colleagues don't feel jealous of me.	1	2	3	4
	Relationships with Supervisors				
14	I am satisfied because my supervisors do not harm me at work but always support me.	1	2	3	4
15	I am satisfied with the comments or feedback given to me by my superiors.	1	2	3	4
16	I am satisfied that my comments at work are taken into account during decision-making.	1	2	3	4
17	I am satisfied with the respect my superiors have for me.	1	2	3	4
18	I am satisfied because my supervisors give me clear responsibilities.	1	2	3	4
19	I am satisfied with my job because my supervisors can manage all employees equally.	1	2	3	4

Thank You!

Appendix 2: Survey Questionnaires (Amharic version)

አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ የትምህርት እና ባህሪ ጥናት ኮሌጅ የሳይኮሎጂ ትምህርት ቤት

ውድ የዚህ ጥናት ተሳታፊዎች:-

እኔ በአሁኑ ሰዓት በአዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ በትምህርትና ስነ-ባህሪ ጥናት ኮሌጅ በሳይኮሎጂ ትምህርት ቤት የሦስተኛ (ፒ ኤች ዲ) ዲግሪዬን “The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Turnover Intention: The Mediating Effects of Effective Communication, Job Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment among Instructors in Public Universities in Ethiopia” በሚል ርዕስ የመመረቄያ ጥናቴን እየሰራሁ እገኛለሁ። የዚህ ጥናት ዋና ዓላማም በመምህራን ስሜታዊ ልሀቀት/ብስለት/ እና ተቋማቸውን ወይም ሥራቸውን ለመልቀቅ ባላቸው ዝንባሌ መካከል ያለውን ዝምድና ወይም ግንኙነት ለመመርመር/ለማጥናት/ እና እንዲሁም በአሸማጋይ ተለዋዋጮች አማካይነት የሚመጣውን የግንኙነት ለውጥ ማለትም የመምህራን ውጤታማ ወይም ግልፅ የሆነ ግንኙነት፣ የሥራ ተነሳሽነት ፣ የሥራ እርካታ እና ተቋማዊ ቁርጠኝነት ወይም ታማኝነት መካከል ያለውን የእርስ በርስ ዝምድና እና የሽምግልና ሚናቸውን ለመመርመር ታስቦ ነው። እርስዎም በዚህ ጥናት ውስጥ በመሳተፍ የቡድን አስተዋጾ እንዲያደርጉ ተመርጠዋል። የዚህ ጥናት ትንታኔው በተሳካ ሁኔታ እንዲጠናቀቅና ውጤታማ እንዲሆን አስፈላጊ የሆነውን በቂ መረጃ እንደሚሰጡኝ ተስፋ አደርጋለሁ። በመሆኑም እርስዎ በግልፅነትና በታማኝነት እውነተኛ መረጃ ሊሆን ይችላል ያሉትን መልስ ጥያቄውን በማንበብ ከተሰጠው ምርጫ ላይ **የክብ ምልክት** ያስቀምጡ ዘንድ በአክብሮት እጠይቃለሁ። ይህ መጠይቅ በውስጡ **ሰባት መመሪያዎችን** እንዲሁም የተለያዩ የመጠይቅ አይነቶችና መጠኖችን ይዟል። ስለዚህ የተሰጡትን ጥያቄዎች በጥንቃቄ ካነበቡ በኋላ አስፈላጊውን መልስ እንዲሰጡ በድጋሜ እጠይቃለሁ።

ለጥያቄዎቹ መልስ ከመስጠትዎ በፊት እባክዎ የሚከተሉትን ነጥቦች ልብ ይበሉ።

1. ማንኛውም ሀሳብ ሚስጥራዊ ሆኖ ይቀመጣል።
2. ስም መፃፍ አያስፈልግም።
3. ለእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ ከአንድ በላይ መልስ መስጠት አይቻልም።
4. መጠይቁ በግምት ከ 25 እስከ 30 ደቂቃዎች ጊዜን ይወስዳል።

የሚሰጡት መልስ ለዚህ ጥናት ትልቅ ዋጋ ያለው በመሆኑ ጥያቄዎችን በታማኝነትና በትክክል ይሞሉ ዘንድ በታላቅ አክብሮት እጠይቃለሁ። መጠይቁን ለመሙላት ከተስማሙ እባክዎን ስምዎን በፈርማዎ ያሳዩ _____

ማሳሰቢያ:- ማንኛውም ጥያቄ ወይም ሥጋት ካለዎት እባክዎን በኢሜል bantigegn12tegegne@gmail.com ወይም በሞባይል ስልክ +251 972 66 46 50 ይደውሉ።

በዚህ ጥናት ለመሳተፍ ፈቃደኛ ስለሆኑ እና ስለምታደርጉልኝ ትብብር ሁሉ በጣም አመሰግናለሁ ።

ክፍል አንድ:- አጠቃላይ መረጃዎች

የመጀመሪያው መጠይቅ ስለ እርስዎና ስለመምህራን ሙያዎ በተመለከተ ነው። ስለዚህ እባክዎ ከጥያቄ ቁጥር **1-8 ላሉ ጥያቄዎች** እውነተኛውን መረጃ ይፃፉ ወይም የ (x) ምልክት ከተሰጠው አማራጭ ጎን ያስቀምጡ።

1. የዩኒቨርሲቲዎ ስም -----
2. ዕድሜ -----
3. ፆታ -----
4. የሥራ ልምድ ----- ዓመታት
5. በዚህ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ውስጥ የአገልግሎት ዘመን ----- ዓመታት
6. የጋብቻ ሁኔታ፣ (U) ያገባ ----- (ለ) ያላገባ ----- (ሐ) የፈታ/ች/----- (መ) የሞተ/ች/-----
7. የትምህርት ደረጃ፣ (U) ረዳት ሌክቸረር ----- (ለ) ሌክቸረር ----- (ሐ) ረዳት ፕሮፌሰር/ፒ ኤች ዲ/ -----
(መ) አሶሾት ፕሮፌሰር ----- (ሠ) ፕሮፌሰር -----

ክፍል ሁለት:- የስሜታዊ ልህቀት/ብስለት/ ባህሪያትን በሚመለከት:

የሚከተሉት ጥያቄዎች በኢትዮጵያ የመንግስት ዩኒቨርሲቲዎች ውስጥ የሚገኙ መምህራንን የስሜታዊ ልህቀት/ብስለት/ ባህሪያትን ለመለካት የተዘጋጁ ናቸው። የስሜት ልህቀት/ብስለት/ ማለት ሰዎች የራሳቸውን ስሜት የማወቅ/የመረዳት፣ የመከታተልና የመቆጣጠር እንዲሁም የሌሎችን ስሜት፤ አስተሳሰብ እና ባህሪ ለይቶ የማወቅ፤ የመረዳትና የመምራት ክህሎት ወይም ልምድ ማለት ነው። ከዚህ በታች የሚገኙ **12 ጥያቄዎች** የመምህራንን የስሜት ልህቀት/ብስለትን/ ወይም የስሜት ብልህነትን ይለካሉ ተብሎ ይታሰባል። በመሆኑም ጥያቄዎችን በማንበብ ከጥያቄው በስተቀኝ በኩል ከተቀመጡ አማራጮች (ማለትም 1 = ሙሉ በሙሉ አልስማማም፣ 2 = አልስማማም፣ 3 = በመጠኑ አልስማማም፣ 4 = መውሰን አልችልም፣ 5 = በመጠኑ እስማማለሁ፣ 6 = እስማማለሁ፣ 7 = ሙሉ በሙሉ እስማማለሁ ከሚሉት) መካከል ትክክለኛ መልስ ይሆናል የሚሉትን ምርጫ **በማክበብ** መልስዎን ይስጡ ።

ተ. ቁ	የጥያቄዎች : ዝርዝር	የስሜት ልህቀት/ብስለት/ ባህሪያትን በሚመለከት						
		ሙሉ በሙሉ አልስማማም	አልስማማም	በመጠኑ አልስማማም	መውሰን አልችልም	በመጠኑ እስማማለሁ	እስማማለሁ	ሙሉ በሙሉ እስማማለሁ
	ራስን ማወቅ ወይም የራስን ስሜትን መረዳት							
1	ከሁኔታዎቼ ወይም አሁን ካለሁበት ሁኔታ አንፃር፣ ስለራሴ ጥሩ ስሜት ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	በአጠቃላይ በሕይወቴ ደስተኛ ነኝ።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	በአጠቃላይ አሁን ያለሁበት ሁኔታ ተመችቶኛል።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	በአጠቃላይ ሁሉም ነገር በህይወቴ ውስጥ ጥሩ እንደሆነ አምናለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	በአጠቃላይ ስሜቴን እና ምን እንደሚሰማኝ አውቃለሁ ወይም እረዳለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	በአጠቃላይ ራሴን እንደ ጥሩ ተግባር ወይም አስታራቂ አድርጌ እገልጻለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	ራስን መቆጣጠር ወይም የራስን ስሜት መቆጣጠር							
7	በአጠቃላይ የሚሰማኝን ስሜት በትክክል ለማወቅ እችላለሁ ወይም ይከብደኛል።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	ራሴን ለማንሳሳት ብዙ ጊዜ እችላለሁ ወይም ይከብደኛል።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	ብዙ ጊዜ ስሜቴን ወይም ፍቅሬን ለቅርብ ሰዎች ለመግለጽ እችላለሁ ወይም ይከብደኛል።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	ከእኔ ጋር የሚቀራረቡ ሰዎች እኔ በትክክል እንዳልያዝኳቸው ቅሬታቸውን ይገልጻሉ።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	ሕይወቴን ወይም የዕለት ተዕለት ኑሮዬን ከሁኔታዎች ጋር ማስተካከል ብዙ ጊዜ ይከብደኛል።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	ስሜቴን መቆጣጠር ብዙ ጊዜ ይከብደኛል ወይም ይቸግረኛል።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ክፍል ሦስት:- የመምህራንን የመልቀቅ ዝንባሌ/ፍላጎት/ በሚመለከት:

የሚከተሉት **4 ጥያቄዎች** የእርስዎን ተቋሙን/ሥራዎን/ ለመልቀቅ ያለዎትን ዝንባሌ ለመለካት የተዘጋጁ ጥያቄዎች ናቸው። ስለሆነም እባክዎን እያንዳንዱን ጥያቄ በጥሞና ያንብቡና ለእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ (1 = በጭራሽ፤ 2 = አልፎ አልፎ፤ 3 = አንዳንድ ጊዜ፤ 4 = ብዙ ጊዜ፤ 5 = ሁል ጊዜ) ከሚሉት አማራጮች ውስጥ ትክክለኛ መልስ ይሆናል የሚሉትን ምርጫ **በማክበብ** መልስዎን ይስጡ።

ተ. ቁ	የጥያቄዎች : ዝርዝር	የመልቀቅ ዝንባሌ/ፍላጎት/ በሚመለከት				
		በጭራሽ	አልፎ አልፎ	አንዳንድ ጊዜ	ብዙ ጊዜ	ሁል ጊዜ
1	ዩኒቨርሲቲዎን ወይም ሥራዎን ለመልቀቅ ምን ያህል ጊዜ አስበው ያውቃሉ?	1	2	3	4	5
2	ለግል ዝንባሌ/ፍላጎት/ የበለጠ የሚስማማ ሌላ ሥራ ለማግኘት ምን ያህል ጊዜ አልመው/ አስበው/ ያውቃሉ?	1	2	3	4	5
3	የሥራ-ነክ ግብዓትን ለማሳካት እድል ተነፍገው ወይም እድል ሳይሰጥዎ ሲቀር ምን ያህል ጊዜ ይከፋገታል?	1	2	3	4	5
4	በተመሳሳይ ደሞዝ ሌላ ሥራን ለመቀበል ምን ያህል ጊዜ አስበው ያውቃሉ?	1	2	3	4	5

ክፍል አራት:- ውጤታማ የሆነ የእርስ በእርስ ግንኙነትን በሚመለከት:

የሚከተሉት 5 ጥያቄዎች የእርስዎን ግልፅና ውጤታማ የሆኑ መልካም ግንኙነቶችን ለመለካት የተዘጋጁ ጥያቄዎች ስለሆኑ ለእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ (1 = በጣም አልሰማማም፣ 2 = አልሰማማም፣ 3 = አልወሰንኩም፣ 4 = እስማማለሁ፣ 5 = በጣም እስማማለሁ) ከሚሉት አማራጮች ውስጥ ትክክለኛ መልስ ይሆናል የሚሉትን ምርጫ በማክበብ መልስዎን ይስጡ።

ተ.ቁ	የጥያቄዎች : ዝርዝር					
		በጣም አልሰማማም	አልሰማማም	አልወሰንኩም	እስማማለሁ	በጣም እስማማለሁ
1	እዚህ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ውስጥ ሰዎች እርስ በእርስ ሲነጋገሩ ጥሩ ወይም ከፍተኛ የሆነ መግባባት አለ።	1	2	3	4	5
2	እዚህ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ውስጥ በጣም ግልፅ የሆነ ተግባቦት ወይም ግንኙነት አለ።	1	2	3	4	5
3	እዚህ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ውስጥ ከሁሉም የስራ ባልደረባዎች ጋር በግልፅ መነጋገር ወይም ማውራት ቀላል ነው።	1	2	3	4	5
4	እዚህ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ውስጥ ካሉ ከሁሉም የስራ ባልደረባዎች ምክር መጠየቅ ቀላል ነው።	1	2	3	4	5
5	እዚህ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ውስጥ ካሉ ሌሎች የስራ ባልደረባዎች ጋር መነጋገር/ ማውራት/ አስደሳች ሆኖ አግኝቶቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5

ክፍል አምስት:- ለተቋምዎ ያለዎት ቁርጠኝነት/ታማኝነትን/ በሚመለከት:

የሚከተሉት 6 ጥያቄዎች ደግሞ እርስዎ ለተቋሙ ያለዎትን ታማኝነት ወይም ቁርጠኝነት ለመለካት የተዘጋጁ ጥያቄዎች ናቸው። ስለሆነም ለእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ (1 = በጣም አልሰማማም፣ 2 = አልሰማማም ፣ 3 = አልወሰንኩም፣ 4 = እስማማለሁ፣ 5 = በጣም እስማማለሁ) ከሚሉት አማራጮች ውስጥ ትክክለኛ መልስ ይሆናል የሚሉትን ምርጫ በማክበብ መልስዎን ይስጡ።

ተ.ቁ	የጥያቄዎች : ዝርዝር					
		በጣም አልሰማማም	አልሰማማም	አልወሰንኩም	እስማማለሁ	በጣም እስማማለሁ
1	በእዚህ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ውስጥ የቤተሰብ አባል እንደሆንኩ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
2	ይህ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ለእኔ ትልቅ ትርጉም አለው።	1	2	3	4	5
3	ሀሳቤ እና ስሜቴ ከዚህ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ጋር የተቆራኘ እንደሆነ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
4	ለእዚህ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ባልደረባነት ጠንካራ የሆነ ስሜት አለኝ።	1	2	3	4	5
5	ቀሪ የስራ ዘመኔን ከዚህ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ጋር ባሳልፍ በጣም ደስተኛ ነኝ።	1	2	3	4	5
6	የእዚህ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ችግሮች የእራሴ እንደሆኑ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4	5

ክፍል ስድስት:- የመምህራንን የሥራ ተነሳሽነት ደረጃ በሚመለከት:

የሚከተሉት 14 ጥያቄዎች የእርስዎን የሥራ ተነሳሽነት ለመለካት የተዘጋጁ ጥያቄዎች ናቸው። ስለሆነም ለእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ (1 = በጣም አልሰማማም ፣ 2 = አልሰማማም፣ 3 = እስማማለሁ፣ 4 = በጣም እስማማለሁ) ከሚሉት አማራጮች ውስጥ ትክክለኛ መልስ ይሆናል የሚሉትን ምርጫ በማክበብ መልስዎን ይስጡ።

ተ. ቁ	የጥያቄዎች : ዝርዝር	በጣም አልስማማም	አልስማማም	እስማማለሁ	በጣም እስማማለሁ
	ደመወዝ				
1	የማገኘው ደሞዝ ከምሰራው ስራ ጋር ሲወዳደር ጥሩ ነው።	1	2	3	4
2	ተመጣጣኝ ደሞዝ አለኝ ።	1	2	3	4
3	ደሞዜ ለእኔ እና ለቤተሰቤ የሚያስፈልጉንን ነገሮች ለማሟላት በቂ ነው።	1	2	3	4
4	ደሞዜ ጠንክራ እንድሰራ ያነሳሳኛል።	1	2	3	4
5	ኃላፊዎቼ ደሞዜን ለመጨመር የተቻላቸውን ሁሉ ያደርጋሉ።	1	2	3	4
6	የማስተማር ሥራዬ ከሚከፈለኝ ደሞዝ አንፃር እንዲታይ እፈልጋለሁ።	1	2	3	4
የደረጃ ዕድገትና ጥቅማጥቅም					
7	የደረጃ እድገት አሰጣጥ ሂደቱ ጠንክራ እንድሰራ ያነሳሳኛል።	1	2	3	4
8	የደረጃ እድገት የሚሰጠው መምህራን ባላቸው የሥራ አፈፃፀም መሰረት ነው።	1	2	3	4
9	የተሰጡኝ ማበረታቻዎች ለሰራሁት ስራ ተገቢ ናቸው።	1	2	3	4
10	መምህራን የሚያድጉበትን መንገድ ወይም የደረጃ እድገት የሚያገኙበትን አሠራር አደንቃለሁ።	1	2	3	4
የሥራ ፍቅር ወይም የሥራ መውደድ					
11	መምህራ መሆን ሁሌም የመጀመሪያ ምርጫዬ ስለሆነ ሌላ ሥራ የመቀየር ፍላጎት የለኝም።	1	2	3	4
12	ሳስተምር የተነሳሽነት ስሜት ይሰማኛል፤ በመሆኑም ሌላ ሥራ ለመስራት /ለመቀየር/ ፍላጎት የለኝም።	1	2	3	4
13	ደሞዜ በቂ ባይሆንም የመምህርነት ሥራዬን አልቀደርም።	1	2	3	4
14	የማስተማር ሥራን የመረጥኩት ስለምወደው ነው።	1	2	3	4

ክፍል ሰባት:- የመምህራንን የሥራ እርካታ ደረጃ በሚመለከት:

የሚከተሉት **19 ጥያቄዎች** የእርስዎን የሥራ እርካታ ደረጃዎች ለመለካት የተዘጋጁ ጥያቄዎች ናቸው። ስለሆነም ለእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ (1 = በጣም አልስማማም፣ 2 = አልስማማም፣ 3 = እስማማለሁ፣ 4 = በጣም እስማማለሁ) ከሚሉት አማራጮች ውስጥ ትክክለኛ መልስ ይሆናል የሚሉትን ምርጫ በማክበብ መልስዎን ይስጡ።

ተ. ቁ	የጥያቄዎች : ዝርዝር	በጣም አልስማማም	አልስማማም	እስማማለሁ	በጣም እስማማለሁ
	የገንዘብ ሽልማቶች				
1	ደሞዜ ተመጣጣኝ ስለሆነ ረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4
2	ከደሞዜ አንፃር ሲታይ በማስተማር ሥራዬ ረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4
3	ደሞዜ ከምሰራው ሥራ ጋር ሲነፃፀር ተመጣጣኝ ወይም በቂ ስለሆነ ረክቻለሁ ።	1	2	3	4
4	ደሞዜ የእኔንና የቤተሰቤን ፍላጎት ለማሟላት በቂ ስለሆነ ረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4
5	ደሞዜ እራሴን ለማሻሻል እና ዕቅዶቼን ለማሳካት ስለሚረዳኝ ረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4
6	የበላይ ኃላፊዎቼ ደሞዜን ለመጨመር /ለማሻሻል/ የተቻላቸውን ሁሉ ስለሚያደርጉ ረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4
7	ደሞዜ በማስተማር ሥራዬ ላይ አሉታዊ ተፅዕኖ ስለሌለው ረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4
ከኃላፊዎችህ/ሽ/ ጋር ያለህ/ሽ/ ግንኙነት					
8	ኃላፊዎቼ በሥራ ላይ ምንም ስለማይጎዱኝ በአንፃሩም ሁል ጊዜ ስለሚደግፉኝ ረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4

9	ኃላፊዎቹ በሚሰጡኝ አስተያየት ወይም ግብረመልስ ረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4
10	በሥራ ላይ ያሉኝ አስተያየቶች በውሳኔ አሰጣጥ ጊዜ ከግምት ውስጥ ስለሚገቡ ረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4
11	ኃላፊዎቹ ለእኔ ባላቸው ክብር ረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4
12	ኃላፊዎቹ ግልፅ የሆኑ ሃላፊነቶችን ስለሚሰጡኝ ረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4
13	ኃላፊዎቹ ሁሉንም ሰራተኞች በእኩልነት ማስተዳደር ስለሚችሉ ረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4
	ከሥራ ባለደረቦች ጋር ያለው የእርስ በርስ መከባበር				
14	በመምህራን መካከል ጥሩ የሆነ ግንኙነት ስላለ ረክቻለሁ ።	1	2	3	4
15	መምህራን በሚያደርጉት የእርስ በርስ መረዳዳት እረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4
16	በመምህራን መካከል ባለው የእርስ በርስ መከባበር ረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4
17	መምህራን ለስራ ባለደረቦቻቸው ባላቸው አክብሮት ረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4
18	በሥራ ቦታ የቡድን ስራ በመኖሩ ረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4
19	የሥራ ባለደረቦቹ በእኔ ላይ የቅናት ስሜት ስለማይሰማቸው ረክቻለሁ።	1	2	3	4

በድጋሜ አመሰግናለሁ!!

Appendix 3: Psychometric Qualities of Instruments

Content Validity Assessment Result

Purpose of validation

The purpose of this validation is to adapt instruments or questionnaires used for higher education instructors to measure their emotional intelligence, communication effectiveness, job motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intentions. For all dimensions of the variables you are given with definitions about the construct to guide you during the content validity task.

Instructions for validation

You are requested to complete your socio-demographic information before you begin the item validation work.

Under each dimensions of the constructs with its description, there are many items that are listed below each subsection. Please determine each item whether the item is essential to measure the construct.

The last two column of the table invites you to make any additional comments or remarks about the items (e.g. suggested modification of the items and other items that you may suggest).

As soon as you completed your validation work please save it and attach the document via the email bantetegegne@gmail.com

I thank you very much for your willingness to participate in the validation process of these items!

Part 1: Socio-demographic Information

1. Name: -----
2. Gender: -----
3. Education Level – Highest Degree Earned: -----
4. Place of Residence: -----
5. Place of Current Occupation: -----
6. Title or Position: -----
7. Discipline/Field of Study: -----
8. Number of years in Discipline: -----
9. Population Focus (research area): -----
10. Have you ever been involved in instrument development before? -----

11. (Answer at End) how long did it take to complete this task? -----

How much essential and useful do you think is each item in measuring the supposed construct?
(To indicate the degree of relevance of an item, write 3 if the item is essential, 2 if the item is useful but not essential, and 1 if the item is non-essential in the first column). Please suggest a modified item or an additional item (for each item), if you think that the item is not essential to measure the supposed construct.

KEY NOTE (Item Relevance): **3** = the item is Essential; **2** = the item is Useful, but not essential; **1** = the item is Non-essential

Part II: Emotional Intelligence Scale Content Validation

Item relevance										
Items	Expert 1	Expert 2	Expert 3	Expert 4	Expert 5	Expert 6	Expert 7	Expert 8	Expert in agreement	CVR/I-CVI
1	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	7	0.75
2	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	7	0.75
3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	7	0.75
4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
5	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	7	0.75
6	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	7	0.75
7	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	7	0.75
8	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
9	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	7	0.75
10	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	7	0.75
11	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
12	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	7	0.75
13	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
14	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
15	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
16	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
17	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
18	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	7	0.75
19	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
20	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	7	0.75
21	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	7	0.75
22	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	7	0.75
23	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
24	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	7	0.75
25	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	7	0.75
26	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
27	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	7	0.75
28	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
29	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	7	0.75
30	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
	1	0.866	0.966	0.966	0.966	0.966	0.8	0.9		

$$S-CVI = (1+0.866+0.966+0.966+0.966+0.966+0.8+0.9)/8 = 0.928$$

S-CVI = Score Content Validity Index average proportion of relevance of items across experts.

Part III: Effective Communication Scale Content Validation

Items	Item Relevance									
	Expert 1	Expert 2	Expert 3	Expert 4	Expert 5	Expert 6	Expert 7	Expert 8	Expert in agreement	CVR/I-CVI
1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
4	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	7	0.875
5	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
	1	1	1	1	1	1	0.8	1		

$S-CVI = (1+1+1+1+1+1+0.8+1)/8 = 7.8/8 = 0.975$

S-CVI = Score Content Validity Index average proportion of relevance of items across experts.

Part IV: Job Motivation Scale Content Validation

Items	Item Relevance									
	Expert 1	Expert 2	Expert 3	Expert 4	Expert 5	Expert 6	Expert 7	Expert 8	Expert in agreement	CVR/I-CVI
1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
4	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	7	0.875
5	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
6	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	7	0.875
7	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	7	0.875
8	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
9	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	7	0.875
10	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
11	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	1	6	0.75
12	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	1	6	0.75
13	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	7	0.875
14	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
15	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
16	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1

17	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
18	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	7	0.875
19	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
20	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
21	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
22	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
23	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
24	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
25	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
26	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
27	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
28	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
29	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	7	0.875
30	3	1	3	3	3	3	2	3	6	0.75
31	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	1	6	0.75
32	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
33	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
34	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
35	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
36	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
37	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
38	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
39	1	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	6	0.75
	0.974	0.897	0.872	0.974	1	1	0.948	0.897		

$S-CVI = (0.974+0.897+0.872+0.974+1+1+0.948+0.897)/8 = 0.945$

S-CVI = Score Content Validity Index average proportion of relevance of items across experts.

Part V: Job Satisfaction Scale Content Validation										
Items	Item Relevance								Expert in agreement	CVR/I-CVI
	Expert 1	Expert 2	Expert 3	Expert 4	Expert 5	Expert 6	Expert 7	Expert 8		
1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
2	3	3	3	1	3	1	3	3	6	0.75
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
4	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	6	0.75
5	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
6	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
7	3	3	1		3	2	3	3	6	0.75
8	3	3	1	1	3	3	3	3	6	0.75

9	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	7	0.875
10	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	6	0.75
11	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
12	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
13	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
14	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
15	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
16	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
17	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
18	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
19	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
20	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
21	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
22	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
23	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	7	0.875
24	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
25	3	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	7	0.875
26	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
27	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
28	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	7	0.875
29	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
30	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
31	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
32	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	7	0.875
33	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
34	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
35	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
36	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
37	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
38	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	6	0.75
39	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
40	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
	1	0.975	0.9	0.95	0.9	0.925	0.975	0.925		

$$S-CVI = (1+0.975+0.9+0.95+0.9+0.925+0.975+0.925)/8 = 7.475/8 = 0.943$$

S-CVI = Score Content Validity Index average proportion of relevance of items across experts.

Part VI: Organizational Commitment Scale Content Validation

Items	Item Relevance									
	Expert 1	Expert 2	Expert 3	Expert 4	Expert 5	Expert 6	Expert 7	Expert 8	Expert in agreement	CVR/I-CVI
1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
5	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
6	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
7	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
8	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
9	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
10	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
11	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
12	3	3	1	1	3	3	3	3	6	0.75
13	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
14	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
15	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	7	0.875
16	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
17	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
18	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
	1	1	0.944	0.944	1	0.944	1	1		

$S-CVI = (1+1+0.944+0.944+1+0.944+1+1)/8 = 0.979$

S-CVI = Score Content Validity Index average proportion of relevance of items across experts.

Part VII: Turnover Intention Scale Content Validation

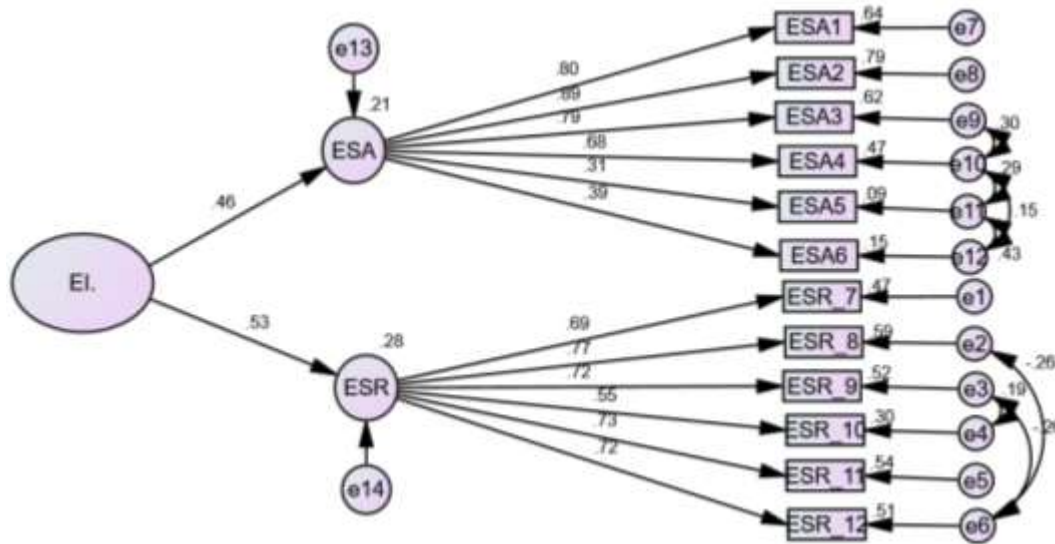
Items	Item Relevance									
	Expert 1	Expert 2	Expert 3	Expert 4	Expert 5	Expert 6	Expert 7	Expert 8	Expert in agreement	CVR/I-CVI
1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
2	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	7	0.875
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
4	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	7	0.875
5	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
6	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
7	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
8	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	8	1
9	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	7	0.875
	1	0.875	1	0.875	1	1	1	1		

$S-CVI \text{ Average} = (1+0.875+1+0.875+1+1+1+1)/8 = 0.859$

S-CVI = Score Content Validity Index average proportion of relevance of items across experts.

Appendix 4: CFA and SEM Measurement Models

CFA Measurement Model for Emotional Intelligence



CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	32	191.970	46	.000	4.173
Saturated model	78	.000	0		
Independence model	12	3194.008	66	.000	48.394

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.145	.953	.920	.562
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.931	.432	.329	.366

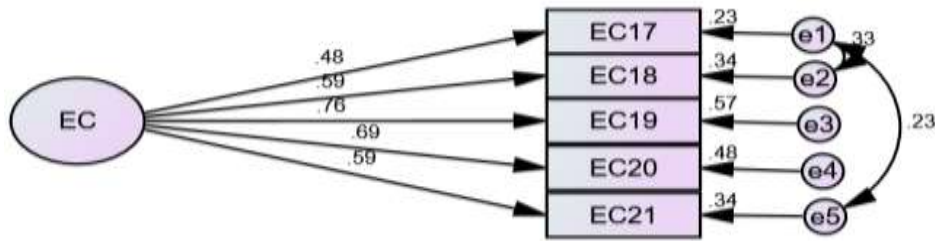
Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.940	.914	.954	.933	.953
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.072	.061	.082	.000
Independence model	.277	.269	.285	.000

CFA Measurement Model for Effective Communication



CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	12	4.210	3	.240	1.403
Saturated model	15	.000	0		
Independence model	5	814.185	10	.000	81.419

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.014	.997	.987	.199
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.408	.579	.369	.386

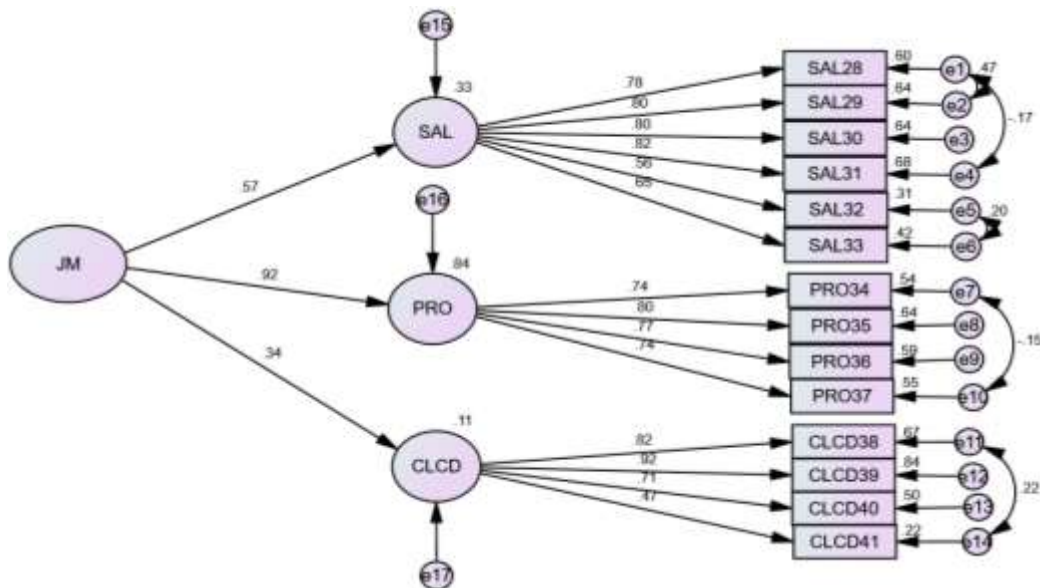
Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.995	.983	.999	.995	.998
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.026	.000	.077	.725
Independence model	.361	.340	.382	.000

CFA Measurement Model for Job Motivation



CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	36	251.094	69	.000	3.639
Saturated model	105	.000	0		
Independence model	14	4446.568	91	.000	48.863

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.041	.944	.915	.621
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.223	.371	.274	.322

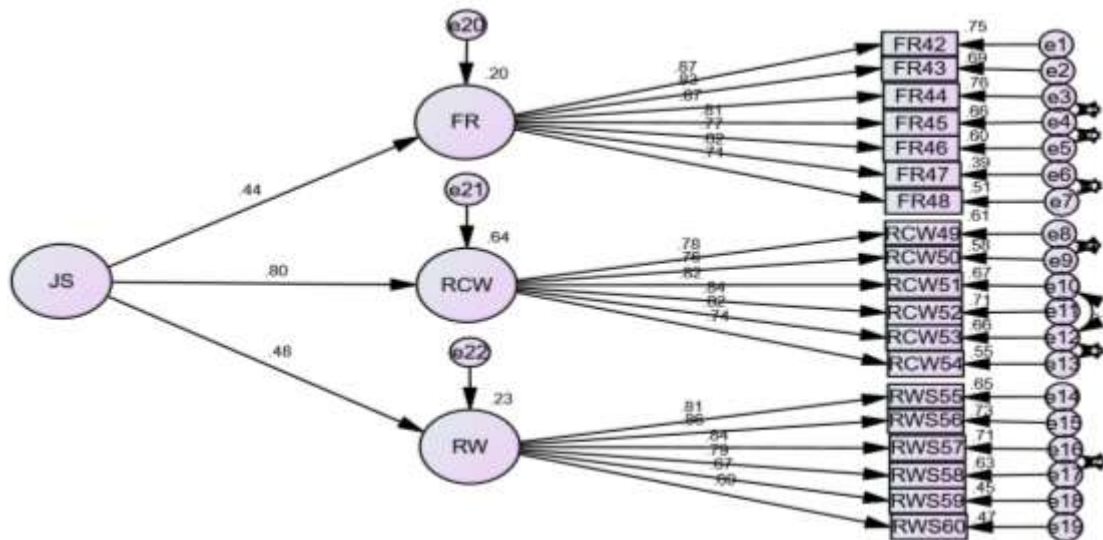
Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.944	.926	.958	.945	.958
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.065	.057	.074	.002
Independence model	.278	.271	.285	.000

CFA Measurement Model for Job Satisfaction



CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	48	401.840	142	.000	2.830
Saturated model	190	.000	0		
Independence model	19	8317.787	171	.000	48.642

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.032	.937	.916	.701

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.240	.267	.185	.240

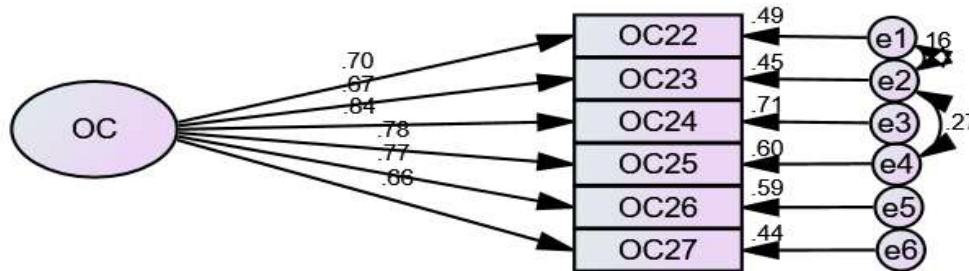
Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.952	.942	.968	.962	.968
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.054	.048	.061	.120
Independence model	.278	.273	.283	.000

CFA Measurement Model for Organizational Commitment



CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	14	26.801	7	.000	3.829
Saturated model	21	.000	0		
Independence model	6	1814.643	15	.000	120.976

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.030	.986	.959	.329
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.678	.390	.146	.278

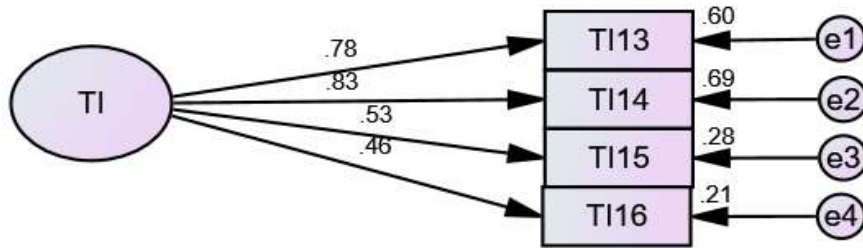
Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.985	.968	.989	.976	.989
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.068	.042	.096	.122
Independence model	.441	.424	.458	.000

FA Measurement Model for Turnover Intention



CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	8	3.946	2	.139	1.973
Saturated model	10	.000	0		
Independence model	4	605.327	6	.000	100.888

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.022	.997	.984	.199
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.482	.644	.406	.386

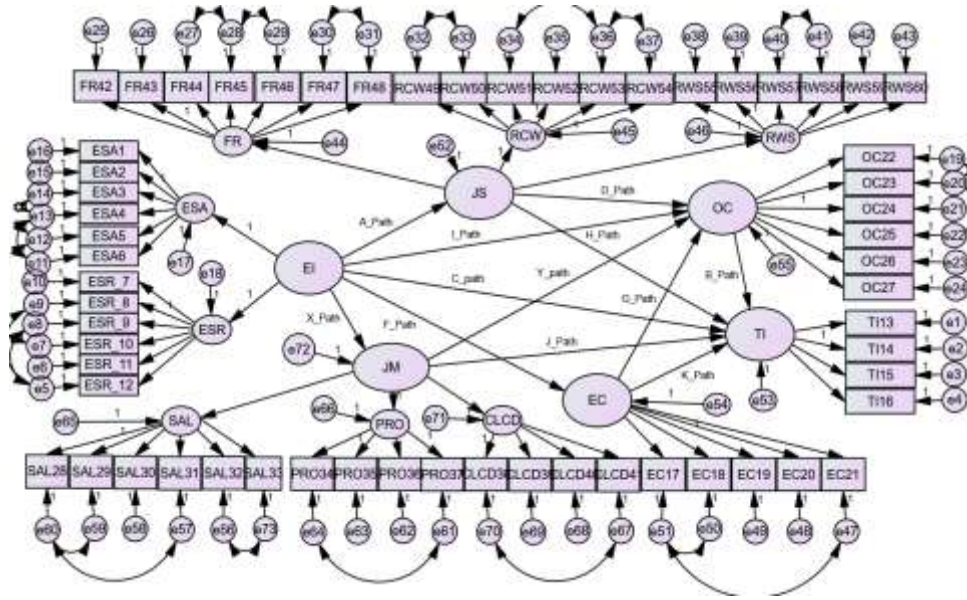
Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.993	.980	.997	.990	.997
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

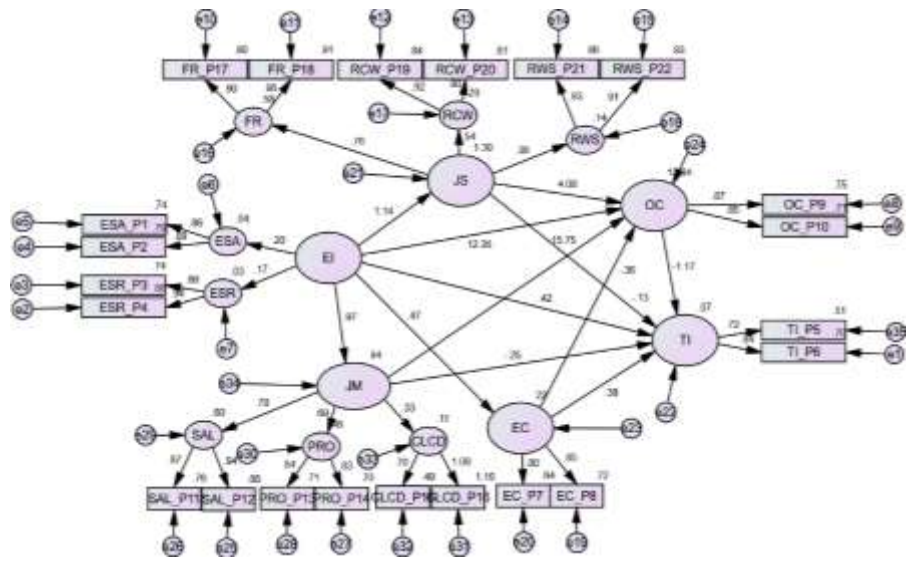
RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.040	.000	.098	.522
Independence model	.402	.375	.429	.000

Full Structural Equation Measurement Model



Parceled Structural Equation Measurement Model



CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	63	801.799	190	.000	4.220
Saturated model	253	.000	0		
Independence model	22	8446.001	231	.000	36.563

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.097	.890	.854	.669
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.241	.346	.284	.316

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.905	.885	.926	.909	.926
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.072	.067	.077	.000
Independence model	.240	.236	.244	.000

Path Model for Mediation Analysis

