Emotional intelligence and workplace stress of Albanian academic staff

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Abstract
Emotional intelligence is a very important aspect of human life. It has implications at many areas of life including educational and professional ones. On the other side, stress has become an important feature of our day to day lives. Occupational stress occurs when the employees experience aversive or unpleasant emotional states in their work place. Occupational stress among university employees is a global phenomenon and has traditionally been regarded as low. In recent years, the Albanian university sector has undergone large-scale organizational changes. The current study investigate the overall level of emotional intelligence and work stress among the academic staff of Higher Education Institutions in Albania, and the relationship between these two variables. The data are collected during September 2019, through an on-line questionnaire, including Schuttle Scale of Emotional Intelligence and Workplace Stress Scale. A total of 183 academic staff of Albanian Higher Education Institutions participated in this study. The study findings indicate that almost half of academic staff experience a moderate level of workplaces stress and the other half a low level of workplace stress. The majority of academic staff have a high level of emotional intelligence. There is a significant negative relationship between emotional intelligence and workplace stress of academic staff. Implications, limitations and recommendations of this study are discussed.

***Keywords**: Intelligence; emotion; emotional intelligence; stress; workplace stress; academic staff.*

1. Introduction

Emotional intelligence has implications at many areas of life including educational and professional ones. On the other side, stress has become an important feature of our day to day lives and also the occupational stress. The higher education sector in Albania continues to experience significant change. On the focus of this study are academic staff working at the higher educational institutions in Albania.

The policies of higher education ask for high performance in teaching, research, innovation and creativity. Almost all higher institutions in Albania, during the recent years

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has undergone to the institutional accreditation process, and also programs accreditation process.

Higher education institutions are also among the organizations that are moving forward in dealing with issues of globalization. Therefore, to produce the workers who can display high performance in any situations, emotional intelligence is one of the factors that should be emphasized by the higher education institution. This is because individual performance has become an important issue to the higher education institutions in their preparations for the realization of the mission towards world-class university. In order to be successful in implementing this mission, higher education institutions must have employees who are well both physically and mentally (Al Kahtani 2013: p. 80).

The aim is to examine the level of emotional intelligence and the level of workplace stress of academic staff working at the higher educational Institutions in Albania. This study is designed to investigate the possible relationship between the level of emotional intelligence and workplace stress. One of the objectives of the study is exploring the possible differences on workplace stress and on emotional intelligence among academic staff according different demographic variables like: gender, age, work experience, academic title or scientific degrees etc.

2. Literature review

Emotional intelligence

The term "emotional intelligence" implies something to do with the intersection of emotions and intelligence. Intelligence is a set of abilities to adapt better to the environment through experience (Matsumoto 2009: p. 259). It is the ability to derive information, learn from experience, adapt to the environment, understand, and correctly utilize thought and reason (American Psychological Association 2015: p. 548). Emotion is a transient, neurophysiological response to a stimulus that excites a coordinated system of bodily and mental responses that inform us about our relationship to the stimulus and prepare us to deal with it in some way (Matsumoto 2009: p. 179). It is a complex reaction pattern, involving experiential, behavioral, and physiological elements, by which an individual attempts to deal with a personally significant matter or event (American Psychological Association 2015: p. 362)

The term emotional intelligence" was used on an occasional basis at least from the 1960s forward. An incidental use of the term can be found in some literary criticism describing the character of Jane Austen. A few additional mentions arose in the psychological literature. The term was employed, however, as a rhetorical device-a mere suggestion that such an intelligence might exist-moreso than in any serious, formally defined, sense (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso 2008: p. 268). The term emotional intelligence was introduced to the scientific literature in two articles published in 1990. The first article, by Peter Salovey at Yale University and John (Jack) D. Mayer at the University of New Hampshire, formally defined emotional intelligence as the ability to monitor one`s own and other`s feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use emotion-laden information to guide one`s thinking and actions. The second articles presented an empirical demonstration of how emotional intelligence could be tested as a mental ability. This study demonstrate that emotion and cognition could be combined to perform sophisticated information processing (Baumeister and Vohs 2007: p. 293).

The public and academia were mostly unaware of emotional intelligence until 1995, when Daniel Goleman, psychologist and science writer for the *New York Times*, popularized the construct in his book *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More*

Than IQ. Emotional intelligence quickly captured the attention of the media, general public, educators, and researchers (Matsumoto 2009: pp. 179-180). Since being popularised by Goleman's (1995) best-seller by the same name, emotional intelligence as a construct, has permeated circles in both lay and academic psychological communities. This construct has been broadly applied to address health, education, and business concerns (Geher 2004).

Some theorists believe that a person`s ability to recognize and manage emotions represents a form of intelligent behavior, called emotional intelligence (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso 2008). A problem with emotional intelligence (like general intelligence) is that there is no clear definition of what emotional intelligence is (Armour 2012: p. 4). Emotional intelligence is a type of intelligence that involves the ability to process emotional information and use it in reasoning and other cognitive activities (American Psychological Association 2015: p. 364). It refers to the processes involved in perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions to solve emotion-laden problems and to regulate behavior (Matsumoto 2009: p. 179). Emotional intelligence involves the ability to carry out accurate reasoning about emotions and the ability to use emotions and emotional knowledge to enhance thought (Mayer, Roberts and Barsades 2008: p. 511). Intelligence quotient and emotional intelligence are not opposing competencies, but rather separate ones. We all mix intellect and emotional acuity; people with high intelligence quotient but low emotional intelligence (or low intelligence quotient and high emotional intelligence) are, despite the stereotypes, relatively rare. Indeed, there is a slight correlation between intelligence quotient and some aspects of emotional intelligence-though small enough to make clear these are largely independent entities (Goleman 1995: p. 44).

Since the introduction of the Bologna Process, the goal of education has been not only to acquire technical skills but also to master other skills, such as teamwork, effective communication skills, time optimization, and the ability to manage one's emotions (Gilar-Corbi et. al. 2018). Despite these criticisms, there has been a growing interest in the application of emotional intelligence to higher education (Armour 2012: p. 5). Emotional intelligence serves as a significant tool that helps the teachers to adjust their emotions and meet the societal challenges that disturbs the balance of their emotions (Asrar-ul-Haq, Anwar and Hassan 2017). In the classroom, a professor high in emotional intelligence might be more likely to adopt a humanitarian (as opposed to a more controlling or dictatorial) teaching style, which nurtures the development of their self-esteem and encourages students to take a more active approach to learning (e.g., ask more questions, develop a personal stance on controversial issues rather than automatically adopt the professor's position, apply relevant concepts to everyday life). Active learning has been shown to facilitate the learning process and enhance student achievement (Public Education Network 2004).

Four-branch ability model of emotional intelligence

There are two general approaches to emotional intelligence in the literature: ability models and mixed model. Ability models view emotional intelligence as a standard intelligence and argue that emotional intelligence meets traditional criteria for an intelligence. Mixed model, which arose mostly after initial popularization of the construct, are so-called because they combine the ability conception of emotional intelligence with numerous self-reported attributes including optimism, self-awareness, self-esteem, and self-actualizations (Brackett et. al. 2004: p. 177). The mainstream model of Emotional Intelligence as an ability is the four-branch model introduced by Mayer and Salovey (1997), which has received wide acknowledgment and use and has been foundation in the

development of other emotional intelligence models and measures (Fiori and Vesely-Maillefer 2018: p. 25).

According to Mayer and Salovey's 1997 model, emotional intelligence comprises four abilities: to perceive and appraise emotions accurately; to access and evoke emotions when they facilitate cognition; to comprehend emotional language and make use of emotional information; and to regulate one's own and others' emotions to promote growth and well-being. Their ideas were popularized in a best-selling book by U.S. psychologist and science journalist Daniel J. Goleman, who also altered the definition to include many personality variables (American Psychological Association 2015: p. 364). Emotionally intelligent people (a) perceive emotions accurately, (b) use emotions to accurately facilitate thought, (c) understand emotions and emotional meanings, and (d) manage emotions in themselves and others (Mayer and Salovey 1997). Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004) developed the four-branch ability model of emotional intelligence. They suggest that the abilities and skills of emotional intelligence can be divided into 4 areas – the ability to: Perceive emotion; Use emotion to facilitate thought; Understand emotions; and Manage emotion (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso 2004). Each branch represents a group of skills that proceeds developmentally from basic tasks to more challenging ones. The Perceiving Emotions branch leads off with the "ability to identify emotions in one's physical states, feelings, and thoughts," and proceeds to such developmentally advanced tasks (as we saw them then) as the ability to discriminate between truthful and dishonest expressions of feeling. The parallel developmental progression in the Understanding branch begins with the ability to label emotions and progressed to more challenging tasks such as understanding "likely transitions among emotions," such as from anger to satisfaction (Mayer, Caruso and Salovey 2016: p. 293).

Perceiving emotion refers to the ability to identify emotions in oneself and others, as well as in other stimuli, including voices, stories, music, and works of art. Using emotion refers to the ability to harness feelings to assist in certain cognitive activities such as problem solving, decision making, creative thinking, and interpersonal communication. Understanding emotions involves knowledge of both emotion-related terms and the manner in which emotions combine, progress, and transition from one to the other. Managing emotions includes the ability to employ strategies that alter feelings, and the assessment of the effectiveness of these regulation strategies (Matsumoto 2009: p. 179)

Workplace stress

Stress is the physiological or psychological response to internal or external stressors. It involves changes affecting nearly every system of the body, influencing how people feel and behave (American Psychological Association 2015: p. 1036). It is a prolonged state of psychological and physiological arousal leading to negative effects on mood, cognitive capacity, immune function, and physical health (Matsumoto 2009: p. 524). Occupational stress is a physiological and psychological response to events or conditions in the workplace that is detrimental to health and well-being. It is influenced by such factors as autonomy and independence, decision latitude, workload, level of responsibility, job security, physical environment and safety, the nature and pace of work, and relationships with coworkers and supervisors (American Psychological Association 2015: p. 727). Occupational stress is a prolonged state of physical and mental arousal resulting from demands from one's job, which can lead to prolonged fatigue, loss of motivation, burnout, stress disorders, and the general adaptation syndrome (Matsumoto 2009: p. 346). Occupational stress is defined as the interaction of work conditions with

characteristics of the worker such that the demands of the work exceed the ability of the worker to cope with them (Ross and Altmaier 1994: p. 12).

Job stress in academia is due to imbalance between job demands and their ability to respond. Academic staff involved in research and teaching may give rise to a conflicting situation as both need energy and concentration. The symptoms found among lecturers are tiredness, sleeping problem and concentration. These are more visible when more workload is expected to attract external research funds (Winefield et. al. 2003). Traditionally university teaching has been perceived as a stress-free profession, particularly by those who are not related to this profession (Fisher 1994). But, now research on stress among academic and general staff of universities from across the globe indicates that the phenomenon of occupational stress in universities is alarmingly widespread and increasing. Academics are increasingly vulnerable to "burnout," that quality of teaching and research may decline, and that academics may become increasingly unattractive to able young people (Winefield 2000). Work stress in any profession is likely to be experienced by the employees employed there and university teachers are no exceptions in this regard (Usman et. al. 2011).

In the research on "occupational stress among university teachers", authors found out that two third of the university faculty reported that they perceived job stress at least half of the scheduled time. Faculty also expressed burnout, health problems caused by job stress (Blix et. al. 1994). Five major sources of stress were identified for academic staff including: insufficient funding and resources; work overload; poor management practice; job insecurity; and insufficient recognition and reward. The majority of groups reported that job-related stress was having a deleterious impact on their professional work and personal welfare (Gillespie et. al. 2001). According to the study of Tytherleigh (2005) most significant source of stress for all higher education staff (irrespective of category of employee) was job insecurity. In comparison to the normative data, staff also reported significantly higher levels of stress relating to work relationships, control, and resources and communication, and significantly lower levels of commitment both from and to their organization (Tytherleigh et. al. 2005).Academics reported higher levels of stress relating to pay and benefits, overload and work-life balance (Barkhuizen and Rothmann 2008). Stress in general and work stress in particular is said to cause people and employees in all types of businesses and industries the fatigue, depression and tension which is of psychological and physiological in nature. This is a universal problem almost every employee encounters with (Usman et. al. 2011). In recent years, a number of substantial changes in the Albanian higher education sector have significantly impacted the organizational structure of higher educational institutions and the work of academic staff.

3. Method

The study used a descriptive correlational design. The data of the study were collected from different public and private Higher Educational Institutions in Albania. 182 academic staff working at higher educational institutions in Albania during the academic year 2019-2020 participated at this study. From which 136 working at public higher educational institutions and 45 at private ones. The data are collected during September 2019, through an on-line questionnaire. Three tools were used in this study: Questionnaire about demographic data, Emotional Intelligence Scale, and Workplace stress scale.

The questionnaire about demographic data was intended to collect data about personal characteristics of participants. These included gender, age, scientific degree or

academic title, years of experience in teaching, marital status, scientific field of qualification, institution.

Emotional Intelligence Scale was developed at 1998 by Schutte and his colleagues (Schutte et. al. 1998). The Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale, is based on Salovey and Mayer`s original model of emotional intelligenc (Salovey and Mayer 1990). This model proposed that emotional intelligence consists of appraisal of emotion in the self and others, expression of emotion, regulation of emotion in the self and others, and utilization of emotion in solving problems. The Assessing Emotions Scale is a 33-item self-report inventory focusing on typical emotional intelligence. Respondents rate themselves on the items using a five-point scale. Scores can range from 33 to 165, with higher scores indicating more characteristic emotional intelligence (Schutte, Malouff and Bhullar 2009). All 33 items are included in one of four subscales: Perception of Emotion, Managing Own Emotions, Managing Others` Emotions and Utilization of Emotion. The scale was translated in Albania language. Internal consistency of the scale, as measured by Cronbach`s alpha was .884. Internal consistency for subscales were: Perception of Emotion .756; Managing Own Emotions, .772; Managing Others` Emotions, .674 and Utilization of Emotion, .676.

Workplace Stress Scale. Work stress was assessed using the Workplace Stress Scale developed by the Marlin Company, North Haven, CT, USA, and the American Institute of Stress, Yonkers, NY, USA (2001). The workplace stress scale consists of eight items describing how often a respondent feels an aspect of his or her job. The scale is in the five-point Likert response format, ranging from never (scored 1) to very often (scored 5). High scores are indicative of higher levels of job stress. Respondents' total scores are interpreted as follows: Scores of 15 and below are interpreted as relatively calm, 16–20 is interpreted as fairly low in work stress, 21–25 is interpreted as experiencing moderate levels of work stress, 26–30 is interpreted as experiencing severe levels of work stress and 31–40 is interpreted as experiencing a potentially dangerous level of work stress. We assessed the validity of the scale by seeking opinions of nurses as experts. Internal consistency of the scale, as measured by Cronbach`s alpha was .762.

Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages, standard deviations). They were analyzed by SPSS statistical package version 24. Some variables were compared using t-test or analysis of the variance (ANOVA) test, and for assessment of the relationships between variables is used Pearson correlation analysis.

4. Results

Table 1 displays the characteristics of the participants. A total of 183 academic staff of Albanian Higher Education Institutions participated in this study. The majority of participants were female (70.3%). The minimum age of participants was 24 years and the maximum was 70, with a mean age of 40.78 ± 9.46. Less than half (48.4%) had Phd degree. Majority of participants were married (70.3%) and had the educational qualification on social science (69.2%) The average years of experience teaching was 12.13 ± 7.72 years.

Table 1. Characteristics of Participants (No = 183)

Items	No	%
Gender		
Female	128	70.3
Male	54	29.7
Age in years:		
>29	15	8.2
30-34	36	19.8
35-39	37	20.3
40-44	42	23.1
45-49	16	8.8
50-54	19	10.4
55+	17	9.3
Scientific degree/academic title		
Master of science	46	25.3
PHD	88	48.4
Associate professor	40	22
Professor	8	4.4
Experience in teaching (years)		
>4	25	13.9
5-9	40	22.2
10 -14	56	31.1
15-19	32	17.8
20+	27	15
Civil status		
Married	128	70.3
Single	32	17.6
Divorced	4	2.2
Widow	2	1.1
Cohabitation	16	8.8
Scientific field of qualification		
Natural science (Physic, chemistry, biology, engineer, agricultural sciences etc.)	29	15.9
Social science (Economics, political science, sociology, psychology, jurisprudence, pedagogy etc.)	126	69.2
Formal science (Mathematics; computer science etc.)	21	11.5
Sports science	6	3.3

Table 2 represents components of overall level of emotional intelligence of participants. The highest percentage of the participants (80.8%) obtained high level of emotional intelligence, while few of them (19.2%) obtained a moderate level of emotional

intelligence. The highest percent is for managing own emotions, (81.9%), and the lowest percent is for perception of emotions (67.6%).

Table 2. Components and overall level of emotional intelligence of participants (No 182)

Components of emotional intelligence	Low level		Moderate level		High level	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Perception of emotions	1	0.5	58	31.9	123	67.6
Managing own emotions	1	0.5	32	17.6	149	81.9
Managing others emotions	1	0.5	50	27.5	131	72
Utilization of emotions	1	0.5	46	25.3	135	74.2
Total emotional intelligence	0	0	35	19.2	147	80.8

Table 3 indicates that almost half 45.6 % (n = 83) of the academic staff reported experiencing low levels of workplace stress. 24.7% (n = 45) were experiencing a moderate workplace stress, 9.9% (n = 18) were experiencing severe level of stress and only 1 teacher reported experiencing high levels of workplace stress.

Table 3. Level of workplace stress (No 182)

Workplace stress	Stress isn`t much of an issues		Fairly low level		Moderate stress		Severe		Stress level is potentially dangerous	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
	35	19.2	83	45.6	45	24.7	18	9.9	1	0.5

There are examined the relationships between the two study variables (workplace stress & emotional intelligence) and demographic characteristics of participants. Table 4 shows these statistics.

Table 4. Correlations between the two study variables (emotional intelligence & workplace stress) and age and professional experience

		Emotional Intelligence	Workplace stress	Age	Professional experience
Emotional Intelligence	Pearson Correlation	1	-.210**	.158*	.153*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.004	.033	.040
	N	182	182	182	180
Workplace stress	Pearson Correlation		1	-.087	.049
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.244	.512

	N	182	180
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	.717**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N		180

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Statistically significant negative correlation was detected between emotional intelligence and workplace stress (r = - .210; p = .004). There was no significant correlation between workplace stress and personal characteristics of participants related to age (p = .244) and years of experience in teaching (p = .512). But there was a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and personal characteristics of participants related to age (r = .158; p = .033) and years of experience in teaching (r = .153; p = .040).

Table 5. Correlations between the two study variables (emotional intelligence & workplace stress) after controlling the effect of age and professional experience

Control Variables			Emotional Intelligence	Workplace stress
Age & Professional experience	Emotional Intelligence	Correlation	1.000	-.222
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	.003
		df	0	176

Even after controlling the variables like age and years of professional experience, there was again a significant negative relationship between emotional intelligence and workplace stress (r = - .222; p = .003).

Table 6 shows the frequency, percentage and stress levels of respondents across gender. Among 183 respondents, 64.1% of female respondents and 66.7% of male respondents reported a low and very low level of workplace stress. While 24.2% of female respondents and 25.9% of male respondents reported a moderate level of workplace stress. Severe level of workplace stress was reported by 10.9% of female respondents and 7.4% of male respondents.

Table 6. Frequency, percentage and stress levels of respondents across gender

Gender	Level of workplace stress									
	Stress isn`t much of an issues		Fairly low		Moderate stress		Severe		Stress level is potentially dangerous	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Female	27	21.1	55	43	31	24.2	14	10.9	1	0.8
Male	8	14.8	28	51.0	14	25.9	4	7.4	0	0

T-test is applied to test the statistical difference among the respondents with different gender. There was no statistically significant difference on workplace stress across the gender of participants ($p > .05$).

Table 7. Relation between workplace stress and gender of participants.

Independent Sample Test

	Gender	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
Workplace stress	Female	128	19.03	4.89	-.131	.896
	Male	54	19.12	3.89		

Table 8 shows the frequency, percentage and emotional intelligence levels of respondents across gender. Among 183 respondents, 17.2% of female respondents and 24.1% of male respondents reported moderate level of emotional intelligence. While 82.8% of female respondents and 75.9% of male respondents reported a high level of emotional intelligence.

Table 8. Frequency, percentage and emotional intelligence levels of respondents across the gender

	Level of emotional intelligence					
Gender	Low level		Moderate level		High level	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Female	0	0	22	17.2	106	82.8
Male	0	0	13	24.1	41	75.9

T-test is applied to test the statistical difference among the respondents with different gender. There was statistically significant difference on emotional intelligence across the gender of participants ($p = .002 < .05$). Female teachers had e tendency to have a higher emotional intelligence than male teachers.

Table 9. Relation between emotional intelligence and gender of participants.

Independent Sample Test

	Gender	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
Emotional Intelligence	Female	128	131.43	12.01	3.226	.002
	Male	54	126.20	9.01		

Table 10 shows the frequency, percentage and stress levels of respondents across the civil status. Among 183 respondents, 67.2% of married respondents, 62.5% of single respondents, 75% of divorced respondents, 100% of widow respondents, and 43.8% of cohabitations respondents reported a low and very low level of workplace stress. While

25% of married, 28.1% of single, 25% of cohabitation respondents reported a moderate level of workplace stress.

Table 10. Frequency, percentage and stress levels of respondents across the civil status

Civil status	Level of workplace stress									
	Stress isn`t much of an issues		Fairly low		Moderate stress		Severe		Stress level is potentially dangerous	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Married	21	16.4	65	50.8	32	25	9	7	1	0.8
Single	8	25	12	37.5	9	28.1	3	9.4	0	0
Divorced	1	25	2	50	0	0	1	25	0	0
Widow	1	50	1	50	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cohabitation	4	25	3	18.8	4	25	5	31.3	0	0

The One-way analysis of variance is applied to test the statistical difference among the respondents with different civil status. The hypothesis is formulated as no significant difference in the means score of faculty member having different civil status regarding their stress levels and One Way ANOVA is used. Table 11 shows the relation between workplace stress and civil status of participants. There was no statistically significant difference on workplaces stress across the different marital status of participants ($p > .05$).

Table 11. Relation between workplace stress and civil status of participants.

Civil status		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	ANOVA	
					F	**Sig.**
Workplace stress	Married	128	18.99	4.17	1.554	.189
	Single	32	19.00	4.74		
	Divorced	4	18.50	6.13		
	Widow	2	12.50	4.94		
	Cohabitation	16	20.68	6.64		
	Total	182	19.06	4.60		

Table 12 shows the frequency, percentage and emotional intelligence levels of respondents across the civil status. Among 183 respondents, 19.5% of married, 18.8% of single, and 25% of cohabitation respondents reported a moderate level of emotional intelligence. While 80.5% of married, 81.3% of single, 100% of divorced, 100% of widow and 75% of cohabitation respondents reported a high level of emotional intelligence.

Table 12. Frequency, percentage and emotional intelligence levels of respondents across the civil status

Civil status	Level of emotional intelligence					
	Low level		Moderate level		High level	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Married	0	0	25	19.5	103	80.5

Single	0	0	6	18.8	26	81.3
Divorced	0	0	0	0	4	100
Widow	0	0	0	0	2	100
Cohabitation	0	0	4	25	12	75

The One-way analysis of variance is applied to test the statistical difference among the respondents with different civil status. The hypothesis is formulated as no significant difference in the means score of faculty member having different civil status regarding their emotional intelligence levels and One Way ANOVA is used. Table 13 shows the relation between emotional intelligence and civil status of participants. There was no statistically significant difference on emotional intelligence across the different marital status of participants ($p > .05$).

Table 13. Relation between emotional intelligence and civil status of participants.

Marital status		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	ANOVA	
					F	**Sig.**
Emotional Intelligence	Married	128	129.92	10.36	1.704	.151
	Single	32	127.31	12.97		
	Divorced	4	138.25	11.58		
	Widow	2	143.50	27.57		
	Cohabitation	16	130.87	13.60		
	Total	182	129.88	11.43		

Table 14 shows the frequency, percentage and stress levels of respondents across the educational qualification. Among 183 respondents, 71.7% of staff with Msc, 60.2% of staff with Phd, 60% of associate professors and 100% of professors reported a low and very low level of workplace stress. While 10.9% of staff with Msc, 30.7% of staff with Phd, and 32.5% of associate professors reported a moderate level of workplace stress.

Table 14. Frequency, percentage and stress levels of respondents across the educational qualification

Scientific degree/academic title	Level of workplace stress									
	Stress isn`t much of an issues		Fairly low		Moderate stress		Severe		Stress level is potentially dangerous	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Master of science	15	32.6	18	39.1	5	10.9	8	17.4	0	0
Phd	13	14.8	40	45.5	27	30.7	7	8	1	1.1
Associate professor	6	15	18	45	13	32.5	3	7.5	0	0
Professor	1	12.5	7	87.5	0	0	0	0	0	0

The One-way analysis of variance is applied to test the statistical difference among the respondents with different educational qualification. The hypothesis is formulated as no significant difference in the means score of faculty member having different educational qualification regarding their stress levels and One Way ANOVA is used. Table 15 shows

the relation between the workplace stress and educational qualification of participants. There was no statistically significant difference on workplaces stress across the different educational qualification of participants ($p > .05$).

Table 15. Relation between the workplace stress and educational qualification of participants.

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	ANOVA F	ANOVA Sig.
Workplace stress	Master of Science	46	18.45	5.32		
	Phd	88	19.37	4.64		
	Associate professor	40	19.37	3.95	.765	.515
	Professor	8	17.50	2.13		
	Total	182	19.06	4.60		

Table 16 shows the frequency, percentage and emotional intelligence levels of respondents across the educational qualification. Among 183 respondents, 23.9% of staff with Msc, 19.3% of staff with Phd, 17.7% of associate professors reported a moderate level of emotional intelligence. While 76.1% of staff with Msc, 80.7% of staff with Phd, 82.5% of associate professors, and 100% of professors reported a high level of emotional intelligence.

Table 16. Frequency, percentage and emotional intelligence levels of respondents across the educational qualification

Scientific degree/academic title	Level of emotional intelligence					
	Low level		Moderate level		High level	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Master of science	0	0	11	23.9	35	76.1
Phd	0	0	17	19.3	71	80.7
Associate professor	0	0	7	17.5	33	82.5
Professor	0	0	0	0	8	100

The One-way analysis of variance is applied to test the statistical difference among the respondents with different educational qualification. The hypothesis is formulated as no significant difference in the means score of faculty member having different educational qualification regarding their emotional intelligence levels, and One Way ANOVA is used. Table 17 shows the relation between emotional intelligence and educational qualification of participants. There was no statistically significant difference on emotional intelligence across the different educational qualification of participants ($p > .05$).

Table 17. Relation between emotional intelligence and educational qualification of participants.

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	ANOVA F	ANOVA Sig.
Emotional Intelligence	Master of Science	46	127.28	13.29	1.478	.222
	Phd	88	130.00	10.55		

Associate professor	40	132.40	11.26
Professor	8	131.00	8.55
Total	182	129.88	11.43

Table 18 shows the frequency, percentage and stress levels of respondents across the scientific field of qualification. Among 183 respondents, 62.1% of staff with the qualification on natural science, 64.3% of staff with the qualification on social science, 66.7% of staff with qualification on formal science, 83.3% of staff with qualification on sports science reported a low and very low level of workplace stress. While 24.1% of staff with qualification on natural science, 25.4% of staff with qualification on social science, 23.8% of staff with qualification on formal science and 16.7% of staff with qualification on sports science reported a moderate level of workplace stress.

Table 18. Frequency, percentage and stress levels of respondents across the scientific field of qualification

Scientific field of qualification	Level of workplace stress									
	Stress isn`t much of an issues		Fairly low		Moderate stress		Severe		Stress level is potentially dangerous	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Natural science	4	13.8	14	48.3	7	24.1	4	13.8	0	0
Social science	22	17.5	59	46.8	32	25.4	12	9.5	1	0.8
Formal science	5	23.8	9	42.9	5	23.8	2	9.5	0	0
Sports science	4	66.7	1	16.7	1	16.7	0	0	0	0

The One-way analysis of variance is applied to test the statistical difference among the respondents with different scientific field of qualification. The hypothesis is formulated as no significant difference in the means score of faculty member having different scientific field of qualification regarding their stress levels and One Way ANOVA is used. Table 19 shows the relation between workplace stress and scientific field of qualification of participants. There was no statistically significant difference on workplaces stress across the different scientific fields of qualification of the teachers ($p > .05$).

Table 19. Relation between workplace stress and scientific field of qualification of participants.

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	ANOVA **F**	**Sig.**
Workplace stress	Natural science	29	19.58	4.77		
	Social science	126	19.27	4.53		
	Formal science	21	18.28	4.65	2.282	.081
	Sports science	6	14.66	3.55		
	Total	182	19.06	4.60		

Table 20 shows the frequency, percentage and emotional intelligence levels of respondents across the scientific field of qualification. Among 183 respondents, 17.2% of staff with qualification on natural science, 17.5% of staff with qualification on social science, 38.1% of staff with qualification on formal science reported a moderate level of emotional intelligence. While 82.81% of staff with qualification on natural science, 82.5% of staff with qualification on social science, 61.9% of staff with qualification on formal science and 100% of staff with qualification on sport science reported a high level of emotional intelligence.

Table 20. Frequency, percentage and emotional intelligence levels of respondents across the scientific field of qualification

Scientific field of qualification	Level of emotional intelligence					
	Low level		Moderate level		High level	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Natural science	0	0	5	17.2	24	82.8
Social science	0	0	22	17.5	104	82.5
Formal science	0	0	8	38.1	13	61.9
Sports science	0	0	0	0	6	100

The One-way analysis of variance is applied to test the statistical difference among the respondents with different scientific field of qualification. The hypothesis is formulated as no significant difference in the means score of faculty member having different scientific field of qualification regarding their emotional intelligence levels and One Way ANOVA is used. Table 21 shows the relation between emotional intelligence and scientific field of qualification of participants. There was no statistically significant difference on emotional intelligence across the different scientific fields of qualification of participants ($p > .05$).

Table 21. Relation between emotional intelligence and scientific field of qualification of participants.

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	ANOVA **F**	**Sig.**
Emotional Intelligence	Natural science	29	128.86	10.37		
	Social science	126	130.97	11.43		
	Formal science	21	124.28	11.74	2.221	.087
	Sports science	6	131.50	11.84		
	Total	182	129.88	11.43		

5. Conclusion

The main finding of this study was the fact that between emotional intelligence and workplace stress exist a significant negative relationship. Teacher with higher emotional intelligence, report less workplace stress and teacher with higher workplace stress report a lower emotional intelligence.

The majority of academic staff (80.8%) participated on this study had a high level of emotional intelligence. From the all components of emotional intelligence, the component "managing own emotions" has the higher percentage. Majority of academic staff (45.6%) experience fairly low level of workplace stress. There was relatively low percentage (9.9%) of participants that experience severe workplace stress.

There was no significant correlation between workplace stress and the age and years of experience of teachers. There were not statistically significant difference on workplace stress across the gender, different marital status, different educational qualification, and different scientific fields of qualification of the teachers.

There was no statistically significant difference on emotional intelligence across the different marital status, different educational qualification, and different scientific fields of qualification of participants. Female academic staff, older academic staff, and more experienced academic staff, had higher emotional intelligence than male, younger and less experienced academic staff.

Higher education institutions have to manage and protect their staff from increasing levels of stress and also they have to take measure to enhance the emotional intelligence of the academic staff.

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