

EVALUATING THE IMPACT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SKILLS ON SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS: A GENDER-BASED COMPARATIVE STUDY

Dr. Mobeen Ul Islam^{*1}, Dr. Nishat Zafar²

^{*1}Assistant Professor, Department of Education, University of Gujrat

²Associate Lecture, Department of Education, University of Gujrat

¹drmobeen.islam@uog.edu.pk, ²nishat.zafar@uog.edu.pk

Corresponding Author: *

Dr. Mobeen Ul Islam

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18252673>

Received	Accepted	Published
30 October 2025	18 December 2025	31 December 2025

ABSTRACT

With a focus on gender-based comparisons, this study examined the impact of emotional intelligence (EI) competencies on secondary school teachers' effectiveness as teachers. A standardized EI questionnaire covering five competencies—self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills—was used to gather data from 389 teachers (186 males and 203 females) using a quantitative, descriptive-comparative design. The results showed that there were significant gender differences in self-awareness and self-regulation, with female teachers scoring higher. This suggests that they have more emotional intelligence and control when it comes to classroom management and instructional adjustment. But there were no discernible gender differences in motivation, empathy, or social skills, suggesting that both sexes have similar interpersonal and motivational strengths. These results imply that both male and female educators have comparable relational and motivational skills, even though female educators show greater emotional introspection and poise. In order to improve teaching effectiveness in secondary education settings, the study emphasizes the significance of incorporating gender-sensitive emotional intelligence development into teacher education.

Keywords: emotional intelligence, teaching effectiveness, gender differences, secondary teachers, self-awareness

INTRODUCTION

Emotional intelligence (EI) has turned into the prerequisite to study the qualities of the teachers and the learning experience at the classroom level. Generally described as a collection of skills and tendencies that allow people to perceive, comprehend, control and adaptively utilize emotions, EI has been associated with career functioning, health and wellness and interpersonal effectiveness in work environments (Bar-On, 1997; Petrides and Furnham, 2001). Emotional labor is particularly relevant in the

context of teaching: the ability to control their affect, maintain motivation, read the cues of students and establish trustful relationships supports the classroom climate and the final outcomes of instruction (Hargreaves, 2001; Humphrey, 2013). The current research -the role of the emotional intelligence competencies in predicting effective teaching practice with a comparative emphasis on gender- answers two overlapping questions in the existing educational literature: (1) which aspects of EI best predict

effective teaching practice, and (2) how these relationships are mediated by gender differences in a secondary educational setting.

The teaching efficacy is a complex construct that involves lesson planning and design, instructional and performance, classroom management, assessment and literacy, and the ability to inspire and interest students (Stronge, 2018). The domains have theoretically meaningful mappings of emotional competencies. An example of this is self-awareness that helps in reflective planning and pedagogical adjustment, emotion control that helps maintain consistent classroom management and curb impulsive disciplinary reactions, motivation that contributes to persistent effort in differentiated instruction, empathy which helps in accurate appraisal of student needs and the tailoring of support and finally social skills which contribute to collaboration with colleagues and communication with families (Petrides, Furnham & Frederickson, 2004; Mikolajczak, Menil and Luminet, 2007). Empirical research reveals more and more that educators exhibiting greater EI are stronger on observational measures of instruction and less subject to burnout and more likely to express greater job satisfaction- measures directly related to long-term teaching efficacy (Humphrey, Curran & Morris, 2012; Mikolajczak et al., 2007). Although the conceptual clarity and mounting empirical evidence has connected EI and effective pedagogy, there are two crucial gaps. First, studies have tended to compute EI as a unit of construct, which means that no particular dimensions are disaggregated and overall correlations with teacher outcomes are reported. Nevertheless, facet level analysis is significant: there is a difference between the mechanisms in which self-regulation influences classroom order and the mechanisms in which empathy influences differentiated instruction (Zeidner, Matthews & Roberts, 2009). The disaggregation of EI allows making more specific assumptions regarding the skills that should be acquired in the process of professional learning. Second, gender as a possible moderator in the relationship between EI and effectiveness has received rather little attention. Gender influences socialization, emotional display regulations and professional demands; and, therefore, male and female educators can build

and use EI competencies in a different manner, bringing various effects on classroom practice (Eagly and Wood, 2012; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017).

Whether gender differences in EI exist or not is a question in itself. There is meta-analytic evidence of small to moderate gender differences on certain EI measures, (where women generally scored higher on facets of empathy and social sensitivity) but there is a variation in the results depending on the EI operationalization of the concept (self-report trait EI versus ability EI) and the cultural setting (Petrides and Furnham, 2001; Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2004). When the profession in many settings is feminized at the lower stages of the schooling system, but the level of schooling becomes gender balanced in the secondary one, the gendered expectations intertwine with the institutional expectations to influence the ways emotional competencies will be manifested.

As an illustration, women teachers can be socially reinforced to express warmth and emotional responsiveness, and male teachers can be socialized to be authoritative and emotionally stoic; these patterns can be transposed as higher and lower levels of strengths and constraints of various EI dimensions that can be applied to pedagogy (Eagly & Wood, 2012; Humphrey, 2013). The opportunities of expressing EI and the payoffs of this expression depend on school culture, leadership, and workload as well as access to professional development and student demographics (Day and Gu, 2014). The study of teacher resilience and professional learning identifies organizational factors (mentoring, collegial feedback and workload management) to enhance the advantages of EI to classroom practice (Day, 2017). In case of uneven distribution of such supports, gendered patterns might be intensified or weakened. To illustrate this point, teachers who are especially inclined to relational skills (typically female teachers) can be better served by the professional development that focuses on collaborative pedagogy and those who are typically prone to expressive emotional competence can be better served by coaching (Day and Gu, 2014).

Several emerging streams of intervention research suggest that EI can be trained and high-quality professional learning may enhance teacher

affective skills and classroom achievement (Oliveira et al., 2021). The current program analyses indicate that the multi-component models which are a combination of workshops, coaching, reflective practice, and in-class support yield more sustained gains rather than the one-off trainings (Aponte, 2025). The implications of these findings are gender sensitive: they have given reports of gender difference in responsiveness to interventions of EI, with some studies showing that design features (e.g., collaborative versus individual coaching format) have the capacity to impact on beneficiaries (Mikolajczak et al., 2007). A gender-based comparative analysis is therefore not only descriptive, but can be used to inform the process of professional development in a manner that best utilizes equitable outcomes in both male and female teachers.

Elements of measurement are still a methodological issue. Some of the instruments employed in EI research include performance test (ability EI), self-report trait EI scales, and mixed inventories, all of which measure the related constructs, but none of them measure the same construct (Petrides and Furnham, 2001; Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2004). In the same way, the effectiveness of teaching can be proxied through self-report, student outcomes, classroom observations or multi-rater ratings; each of them possesses validity and bias trade-offs. Multi-method designs are more desirable in gender-comparative research designs since they help to minimize bias that the differences in genders could be due to difference in style of response (i.e., social desirability) and not to difference in substance (Zeidner et al., 2009).

A recent methodological review recommends the use of a mixed method approach in measuring EI teacher self-reports and observer ratings of classroom behaviors and student feedback in order to achieve a solid understanding of how EI is converted into teaching practice (Humphrey, 2013; Su et al., 2022). Available literature on the topic of EI in teaching provides various substantive hypotheses that the research under consideration tests. To begin with, there is a foreseeable strong correlation between emotional competencies linked to self-regulation and social skills with classroom management and

collaborative practices, respectively (Mikolajczak et al., 2007; Kamboj and Garg, 2021). Second, empathy and motivation are hypothesized to play a crucial role in the engagement of the students and differentiated instruction, which are the variables that determine the teaching performance at the secondary level (Humphrey, 2013; Oliveira et al., 2021). Third, the differences between genders could become manifest in the facet-level EI, where women report greater empathy and social sensitivity, but these differences might not always be reflected in the teaching performance differences due to institutional resources and role demands between genders (Eagly and Wood, 2012).

The current research is driven by empirical gaps. First, a significant proportion of the previous studies are based on primary or mixed-level samples; a smaller number of studies are dedicated to secondary teachers whose subject specialization and adolescent group of learners impose specific emotional pressures (Day and Gu, 2014). Second, as much as there are cross-sectional work documents that connect between teacher EI and well-being or student outcomes, less studies comparatively examine male and female teachers regarding how discrete EI competencies are connected to objective indicators of teaching effectiveness. Third, the policy requirement to create gender-sensitive professional development demands evidence of whether one-size-fits-all interventions of EI are adequate or whether gender-specific interventions would be more beneficial (Aponte, 2025).

In line with this, three contributions are made in the current paper. It (1) breaks down EI into five empirically based competencies, self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills, and tests their unique relationships with various areas of teaching performance; (2) possesses a gender-comparative design to determine whether the strength or patterns of association between EI and teaching behavior vary between male and female secondary school teachers; and (3) uses a sound measurement strategy of combining teacher self-reports and classroom observation measures (or validated proxies), enhancing the strength of inferences about the way EI is reflected in pedagogical In such

a way, the study provides practical implications to policymakers and professional development designers who could improve the quality of instruction in gender-equitable manner.

Literature Review

The concept of emotional intelligence (EI) has recently become the center of attention in modern educational studies due to the fact that the process of teaching is interpersonal and full of affect. The introspective focus of scholarship in the past twenty years is that teaching is more of an intellectual endeavor; instead, it has been discovered to be more about the emotional competencies of teachers to classroom climate, consistency of instruction and student learning (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). EI which is usually broken down into such dimensions as self-awareness, emotion regulation (self-regulation), motivation, empathy (social awareness), and social skills (relationship management) is theorized to inform the process by which teachers interpret classroom signals, react to stress, and implement pedagogical strategies in a pressurized situation. This literature review will provide a synthesis of the empirical and theoretical studies on (a) the dimensions of EI associated with the teaching effectiveness, (b) the mechanisms of the association between EI and instruction, (c) gender differences in EI and its consequences to pedagogy and (d) implications of training and policy based on the recent and heterogeneous empirical research.

Dimensions of EI

Multi-dimensional framing of EI enables the researcher to project the emotional competencies to the tangible teaching features. Self awareness-ability to be aware of emotions and their effects- is the supportive factor of reflective practice, which allows teachers to determine when personal affect is guiding choices on pacing, feedback, or discipline (Pianta, Hamre & Allen, 2012). Emotion regulation assists teachers to deal with stress, minimally reactive disciplinary behavior, and offer a calm classroom atmosphere that facilitates learning; in classrooms where a teacher is highly regulated a student will also enjoy predictable routine and less disturbance (Rimm-

Kaufman & Hamre, 2010). The pedagogical drive and the perseverance in the face of difficult circumstances are supported by motivation both of intrinsic interest in student learning and goal orientation (Klassen & Chiu, 2010).

Empathy will help to be sensitive to the emotional states and learning needs of students and assist in differentiated scaffolding and socio-emotional support, social skills will assist in working with colleagues and effectively interacting with parents and communities, which will subsequently facilitate coherent instructional practices (Pianta et al., 2012). These connections are supported by empirical studies. Observational and multi-informant designs show that increased teacher EI is associated with more efficient classroom management, increased student engagement and better teacher-student relationships, which in combination predict the achievement of better academic outcomes (Frenzel et al., 2009). In addition, the facet-based analyses demonstrate differences in their associations: regulation is a more important predictor of consistent discipline and lower teacher burnout, whereas empathy is a more important predictor of responsive instruction and socio-emotional student support (Collie, Shapka & Perry, 2012).

There are three mechanisms that describe the translation of EI competencies into improved teaching: (1) affects stability and cognitive functioning, (2) classroom relationships, and (3) professional sustainability. One, EI, in particular, regulation, safeguards cognitive stress responses. Tools of effective regulation help teachers to maintain both working memory and attention in terms of planning and on-the-spot solving of pedagogical problems, which ensures the quality of the instruction in troubling or emotionally tense situations (Taxer & Gross, 2018). Second, EI influences relationship processes: empathetic and socially skill teachers develop trust and psychological safety with students, which are more willing to take intellectual risks and become active (Hamre & Pianta, 2006). Third, EI enhances teacher resilience and continuous participation: inspired educators whose regulation of emotions is healthy cope in iterative lesson improvement and join professional learning communities which

are associated with a long-term teaching success (Grant, 2014).

These pathways are supported by recent longitudinal information. As an example, EI, as found in mediation model studies, is found to diminish perceived stress and emotional exhaustion, which in turn is a predictor of more instructional consistency and higher classroom quality as rated by the aiding person the following year (Collie et al., 2012). Intervention based on experimental and quasi-experimental design which focuses on emotion regulation results in a decrease of teacher burnout and marginally better classroom climate indicators, indicating causal relations between EI improvement and pedagogical practices (O'Connor et al., 2019). Collectively, these results suggest that a potential to invest in EI especially in the areas of emotion regulation and motivation could lead to quantifiable gains in visible classroom behaviors. Gender is also a moderating factor in EI studies since socialization and role requirements influence the expression of emotions and skills. A strong empirical trend is to find women usually scoring better than men on empathy-related algorithm and certain social-awareness gauges especially on self-report measures that measure trait emotionality (Schutte et al., 1998). On the other hand, regulation and self-efficacy related competency results are less consistent; some studies show no gender differences, others show male small differences on some regulation or assertiveness indices (Boyatzis, 2008). In education gendered norms have been used to shape the emergence of as well as the perceived appropriateness of emotional behaviors, a female teacher will be more frequently presumed to be nurturing and relational, a male teacher will be socially conditioned to be authoritative and disciplined (Sy, 2010).

Notably, the correlation of gender differences in EI to teaching effectiveness is not linearly related. As an example, greater empathy by females could positively influence relational climate but could also enhance emotional labor and risk compassion fatigue when there is no support of organizations (Brotheridge and Lee, 2002). Male teachers who relatively lower the self-reported empathy, on the other hand, can still utilize other skills, like well-

established authority hierarchies or clarity in instructions, to become effective. Recent research thus suggests a more subtle solution: to look at how gendered advantages and limitations play with the institutional environment to create the overall effect of EI on teaching (Klassen, 2018). In places where supportive leadership and collegial systems are in place, the relational responsiveness characteristic of women can be capitalized without taking its toll; in places where the support is fragile, the characteristics of the same can increase the risk of burnout.

Breaking down both EI and teaching effectiveness can shed some light on where gender disparity is likely to be evident. Studies have demonstrated that empathy and social skills are specifically involved in student engagement and differentiated instruction where female teachers have been documented as having a greater self-efficacy (Klassen and Chiu, 2010). Conversely, such aspects as regulation and self-awareness are more closely related to behavior management and planning - areas in which gender differences are less pronounced or situational. A meta-analysis of teacher self-efficacy showed that gender effects were small depending on cultural norms and leadership at the school level (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 2001). This implies that gender-comparative studies should incorporate school climate, style of leadership, and workload to eliminate real gendered impacts on EI effectiveness relations.

These theoretical differences are supported by recent observational studies. Consider climate change, as observed in the classroom protocols, the female teachers tend to score higher on affective support ratings (e.g., warmth, responsiveness), whereas male teachers in certain classroom settings tend to score higher on classroom organization ratings (however, these patterns do vary by grade level and subject) (Pianta et al., 2012). Consequently, gender-specific interventions may be required to be made: to those who orient towards relationships, improving control and assertive but supportive classroom management should be enhanced; to those who tend towards organization-focused strength, empathic communication and sensitivity should be developed.

Gender and EI interaction is moderate in terms of cultural norms and institutional structures. In environments, in which teaching is heavily gendered (i.e. societies with strong gender-role prescriptions), female educators can experience dual burdens of high emotional demands and low career progression, which restrict their innovation in teaching (Sy, 2010). On the other hand, working in gender-equitable environments, where leadership is distributed and performance-based, this may allow teachers of both genders to capitalize positively on their EI skills (Grant, 2014). Also, subject domain issues: teachers in secondary STEM education can have various gendered expectations compared to teachers in humanities, and it can affect the application and perception of EI dimensions by both students and other teachers.

This fact is highlighted in recent cross-cultural studies. The cross-country comparative studies indicate that gender differences in EI are stronger and directional depending on both national gender expectations and on the extent to which teacher professionalism has been institutionalized (Klassen, 2018). Therefore, to make responsible interpretations about differences, the comparative research, based on gender, at the secondary level needs to consider cultural scripts, patterns of assigning subjects, and leadership practices.

The methodological rigour is important to prevent the confusion between gendered styles of responding and the substantive differences. Self reports EI measures are susceptible to social desirability and gender biases in reporting (Schutte et al., 1998). Multi-source measurement, i.e. a combination of teacher self-report, observer rated classroom behavior, student-rated and peer-rated, has been suggested as a way of mitigating bias (Hamre and Pianta, 2006). The longitudinal designs also assist in creating directionality; in other words, whether EI predicts future changes in the identified teaching practices or whether productive teaching conditions promote the development of EI.

Additionally, the disaggregation of the analysis by EI facet and analysis by particular teaching outcome (e.g., classroom management, student engagement, assessment practices) should be performed to identify the gender effects of

mechanisms. More complex models, like multi-group structural equation modeling, allow the researcher to examine the hypothesis that EI-teaching correlations vary by gender with the adjustment of covariates, such as experience, qualification, and workload (Klassen et al., 2010). The evidence that has been built up suggests tangible policy measures. To begin with, EI competencies can be taught: quality, long-term professional learning designs (coaching, practice-based workshops, reflective supervision) will produce more robust and enduring EI benefits compared to training-based ones (O'Connor et al., 2019). It is recommended that the programs should be gender sensitive: a combination of relational-coaching designs with skills-focused emotion-management training should address gender needs of empathies and organizations. Second, positive influences of EI are reinforced by the institutional supports (mentoring, reasonable workloads, recognition mechanisms) and safeguard against the emotional labor overload, which is particularly crucial in the case of teachers, who can experience the high level of empathic engagement (Grant, 2014). Third, there must be multi-source measures of EI-related practices (observer ratings, student surveys) in the evaluation systems that would inform specific professional learning.

Even with improvement, there are still weaknesses. To begin with, a significant number of studies are cross-sectional and depended on self-reports heavily; more longitudinal and mixed-method studies are required to unwind causal pathways and the possible bidirectional relationship between EI and teaching success. Second, the experimental information about gender-differing reactions on EI interventions on the secondary level is quite limited; randomized trials stratified by gender would be especially insightful. Third, more attention should be paid to the role of subject matter and grade level context in the development of gendered EI effects since adolescent classrooms are not associated with the same emotional challenges. Lastly, studies are needed on the interplay between organization policies (e.g., career ladders, recognition schemes) and gendered emotional labor to determine both the growth and maintenance of EI.

Research Objectives

1. To investigate gender-based disparities in secondary school teachers' views of self-awareness and its contribution to enhancing instructional effectiveness.
2. To determine whether self-regulation is viewed differently by male and female secondary school teachers as a component of efficient classroom management and decision-making.
3. To evaluate how different genders perceive motivation as an emotional intelligence skill that motivates secondary school teachers to use engaging and successful teaching methods.
4. To find out if male and female secondary school teachers view empathy differently as a way to promote helpful and successful instruction.
5. To ascertain the degree to which teachers' perceptions of social skills in enhancing teamwork and learning outcomes in secondary classrooms differ based on gender.

Null Hypotheses

Ho1: The perceptions of male and female secondary school teachers regarding self-awareness in enhancing instructional effectiveness do not differ significantly.

Ho2: The perceptions of male and female secondary school teachers regarding self-regulation in assisting classroom management and decision-making do not differ significantly.

Ho3: The perceptions of male and female secondary school teachers regarding motivation to inspire effective and engaging teaching do not differ significantly.

Ho4: The perceptions of male and female secondary school teachers regarding empathy in promoting effective and supportive teaching are not significantly different.

Ho5: The perceptions of male and female secondary school teachers regarding social skills in enhancing learning outcomes and collaboration do not differ significantly.

Methodology

In order to evaluate gender-based disparities in emotional intelligence competencies and their impact on secondary school teachers' effectiveness as teachers, this study used a quantitative, descriptive-comparative research design. Male and female secondary school teachers from public institutions made up the population. To ensure gender representation, a sample of 389 teachers—186 males and 203 females—was chosen using stratified random sampling. Five essential emotional intelligence competencies—self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills—that are connected to effective teaching were measured using a standardized questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha values greater than 0.80 demonstrated the instrument's reliability. Using SPSS software for analysis and hypothesis testing, gender-based differences were examined at a 0.05 significance level using descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation) and independent samples t-tests.

Tabel 1

Gender Wise Comparative Perception of Teachers Regarding Understanding Their Emotions (Self-Awareness) Helps Them to Improve Instructional Effectiveness Among Secondary School Teachers

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t-value	p-value
Male	186	3.81	.655	-3.01	.003
Female	203	3.98	.516		

Table 1 shows the relative perceptions of both the male and female teachers in secondary schools towards self-awareness, a critical emotional intelligence ability that enables teachers to comprehend and control their emotions in order to improve on instruction effectiveness. According

to the table, the mean of female teachers (Mean = 3.98, SD = 0.516) is higher compared to male teachers (Mean = 3.81, SD = 0.655), which means that female teachers identify themselves as more cognizant in their teaching methods. The t-value (-3.01) with a p-value of 0.003 is smaller than the

traditional significance of 0.05 which proves that the difference in perceptions of male and female teachers regarding self-awareness is statistically significant. Thus, the null hypothesis (Ho1) according to which the significant difference

between the perceptions of male and female teachers in relation to the self-awareness in enhancing instructional effectiveness does not exist is rejected.

Tabel 2

Gender Wise Comparative Perception of Teachers Regarding Controlling Their Emotions (Self-Regulation) Supports Effective Classroom Management and Decision-Making Among Secondary School Teachers

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t-value	p-value
Male	186	4.30	.642	-2.94	.003
Female	203	4.48	.528		

Table 2 shows the relative perceptions of both male and female secondary school teachers on self-regulation element of emotional intelligence which is a skill of managing emotions and being calm in difficult classroom scenarios to better manage themselves and make decisions. The mean scores reveal that the female teachers (Mean = 4.48, SD = 0.528) had higher perceptions about self-regulation as compared to the male teachers

(Mean = 4.30, SD = 0.642). The t-value (-2.94) of 0.003 (less than 0.05) shows that there is statistically significant difference in the two gender groups. Thus, the null hypothesis (Ho2) that claims the existence of no significant difference between the perceptions of male and female teachers on the issue of self-regulation in aiding classroom management and decision making is rejected.

Tabel 3

Gender Wise Comparative Perception of Teachers Regarding Internal Drive and Commitment (Motivation) Inspire Effective and Engaging Teaching Among Secondary School Teachers

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t-value	p-value
Male	186	4.01	.509	.923	.356
Female	203	3.96	.501		

Table 3 provides the comparison of male and female secondary school teachers in terms of the perception of the motivation component of emotional intelligence that is indicative of the internal drive, enthusiasm, and commitment of a teacher to their work to establish effective and encouraging learning experiences within the institution. The average scores indicate that the mean score of male teachers (Mean = 4.01, SD = 0.509) was slightly high compared to female teachers (Mean = 3.96, SD = 0.501) in motivation.

Nevertheless, the t-value (0.923) and the p-value (0.356) of the calculated result (greater than the standard significance level, $p > 0.05$) show that the difference between male and female teachers is not statistically significant. Thus, the null hypothesis (Ho3) which says that, there is no significant difference in the perception between male and female secondary school teachers about the motivation in the inspiring effective and engaging teaching is accepted.

Tabel 4

Gender Wise Comparative Perception of Teachers Regarding Understanding Students' Emotions (Empathy) Fosters Supportive and Effective Teaching Among Secondary School Teachers

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t-value	p-value
Male	186	4.05	.474	1.35	.178
Female	203	3.99	.472		

The data show that the mean scores of male teachers who (N = 186) reported mean score of 4.05 and a standard deviation of 0.474, and that of female teachers who (N = 203) had a mean score of 3.99 with a standard deviation of 0.472. It means that both male and female teachers usually view themselves as understanding and able to sense the emotions of students and contribute to the creation of conducive classroom conditions, yet men teachers were characterized by a slightly higher average score. The t-value is 1.35 with p-value of 0.178, which is above the level of significance (0.05). This statistical result means that the difference in the means of the perceptions of male and female teachers towards empathy is

not significant. Thus, the null hypothesis (Ho4) is accepted, which implies that gender is not an important factor in determining the empathy level of teachers with respect to supportive and effective teaching practices.

This result suggests that male and female teachers show similar rates of empathy, one of the most crucial emotional intelligence skills that help to improve relations between students and teachers, emotional awareness, and classroom atmosphere. It emphasizes the fact that empathic teaching behavior is a common professional characteristic, not a gender-distinguishing one among teachers of secondary school.

Tabel 5

Gender Wise Comparative Perception of Teachers Regarding Building Positive Relationships (Social Skills) Strengthens Collaboration and Learning Outcomes Among Secondary School Teachers

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t-value	p-value
Male	186	4.04	.443	-1.38	.168
Female	203	4.10	.421		

Based on the data, male teachers (N = 186) had a mean score of 4.04 with a standard deviation of 0.443 and female teachers (N = 203) had a slightly higher mean score of 4.10 with a standard deviation of 0.421. These findings reveal that male and female teachers, in general, believe that they have strong social skills, which contribute to collaboration and influence learning outcomes positively but female teachers had a slightly higher level of perception. The t-value of -1.38 with a p-value of 0.168 is larger than the standard significance level (0.05). This means that the perception between the male and the female teacher is not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho5) is accepted, and the degree of significant gender difference between the perceptions of teachers on the topic of social skills in encouraging collaborative teaching and positive learning results is proved.

This result indicates that male and female teachers in secondary schools show similar social competencies, which include; effective communication, teamwork, conflict resolution, and interpersonal understanding- competencies that are important in promoting positive

classroom relationships and a collaborative learning culture.

Discussion and Conclusions

This paper examined the gender variations on competencies of emotional intelligence (EI) and their potential to affect teaching performance among secondary school educators in Punjab. The results were based on five key areas EI domains like self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills and investigated whether there was a significant difference between how male and female teachers perceive these competencies.

The findings indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in the level of self-awareness in the perception of male and female teachers, and female teachers showed higher mean scores. This means that female teachers are more introspective and conscious of their feelings and their influence on their performance as a teacher. This observation is consistent with the findings by Brackett et al. (2019) and Petrides and Furnham (2000) that emotional self-awareness enables teachers to deal with classroom issues in a more

efficient way, modify teaching methods and establish conducive learning environments. Likewise, Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2016) implied that educators who possess high self-awareness can better identify the emotional needs of students and show consistency in instructions. The gender difference could indicate the greater emotional sensitivity and introspection that is normally reported to be in female teachers such that they are able to relate affect more to pedagogical practices.

Self-regulation was also found to be a major gender difference where female teachers scored higher than male teachers. This implies that female teachers tend to be more effective in dealing with stress, impulsiveness and emotional composure within classroom context. Ciarrochi, Chan and Caputi (2000) have supported this observation by stating that women tend to have more emotional control and flexibility in their work environments. Another point that Jennings and Greenberg (2009) raised is that a teacher who is highly self-regulated can provide emotionally safe environments, respond to student misbehavior with a calmer attitude, and make balanced instructional choices. These findings hence suggest that emotional control and stability or hallmarks of self-control are stronger in female teachers, a factor that benefits classroom and student interaction.

In contrast to the two initial competencies, there was no major gender variance in motivation. Male and female teachers showed identical attitudes towards internal drive, enthusiasm and commitment to teaching. This is in line with the results of Sutton and Wheatley (2003) who noted that, regardless of their gender, teachers tend to exhibit similar intrinsic motivation that is motivated by both the professional purpose and student achievement. Equally, Palmer et al. (2005) highlighted that contextual and institutional factors, including recognition, workload and leadership support, that are more related to teacher motivation than to gender. Therefore, this finding highlights the fact that male and female educators have the same level of determination and professional commitment to the creation of effective and stimulating learning experience.

The findings also showed that the difference in gender perception of teachers towards empathy was not significant. The average scores of both male and female teachers were high which shows that learning of the emotions students have and the ability to support them in that manner are qualities of a profession and not gender specific. This is in line with Cooper and Sawaf (1997) and Cowie (2011), who championed that empathy is a cross-cultural instructional attribute that is vital to the well being, inclusion and emotional growth of students. The results further substantiate the idea by Goleman (1995) that empathy among teachers boosts trust and rapport that improve the process of learning in an emotionally positive way. The similarity in the empathy of both male and female teachers in this study shows that teacher empathy is more affected by pedagogical training, professional principles, and classroom experiences than the gender differences.

On the same note, there was no statistically significant gender difference in social skills though the female teachers were marginally higher. The two genders were found to be highly social competent to develop relationships, develop a team work and facilitate collaborative learning. This goes in line with Bar-On (2006) and Jennings and Greenberg (2009) that taught that effective teaching involves interpersonal skills in communication, cooperation, and conflict management. The insignificant difference implies that both male and female teachers have acquired similar relational competencies, perhaps because of common professional settings, fellow teacherwork, and training at the school. The outcome also backs up Darling-Hammond (2017), who highlighted that teacher collaboration and social interaction are collective, gender-neutral practices necessary in efficient schooling.

Recommendations

- ✓ Introduce emotional intelligence classes into teachers training curricula to improve self-awareness and self-management, especially in male teachers, to achieve improved performance in teaching.
- ✓ Implement mentorship and peer-learning initiatives in order to motivate male and female educators to exchange experiences and methods of

dealing with classroom emotions, empathy, and motivation.

✓ Adopt institutional strategies that support emotional wellbeing of teachers by providing them with counseling, stressful experiences programs, and work-life balance programs to enhance general emotional intelligence and teaching outcomes.

REFERENCES

- Bar-On, R. (2006). *The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI)*. *Psicothema*, 18, 13-25.
- Brackett, M. A., Rivers, S. E., & Salovey, P. (2019). *Emotional intelligence: Implications for personal, social, academic, and workplace success*. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 13(1), e12401.
- Ciarrochi, J., Chan, A. Y. C., & Caputi, P. (2000). A critical evaluation of the emotional intelligence construct. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 28(3), 539-561.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. Bantam Books.
- Jennings, P. A., & Greenberg, M. T. (2009). *The prosocial classroom: Teacher social and emotional competence in relation to student and classroom outcomes*. *Review of Educational Research*, 79(1), 491-525.
- Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (2016). *The ability model of emotional intelligence: Principles and updates*. *Emotion Review*, 8(4), 290-300.
- Sutton, R. E., & Wheatley, K. F. (2003). *Teachers' emotions and teaching: A review of the literature and directions for future research*. *Educational Psychology Review*, 15(4), 327-358.
- Aponte, M. L. (2025). *Teacher emotional intelligence interventions: Implementation quality and impact*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Bar-On, R. (1997). *BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): Technical manual*. Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
- Day, C. (2017). *Resilient teachers, resilient schools: Building and sustaining quality in testing times*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Day, C., & Gu, Q. (2014). *Resilient teachers, resilient schools: Building and sustaining quality in testing times*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (2012). Social role theory. In P. Van Lange, A. Kruglanski, & E. T. Higgins (Eds.), *Handbook of theories of social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 458-476). London, UK: Sage.
- Hargreaves, A. (2001). *Emotional geographies of teaching*. *Teachers College Record*, 103(6), 1056-1080.
- Humphrey, N. (2013). Social and emotional competence in teachers: A systematic review. *Educational Psychology Review*, 25(1), 1-21.
- Kamboj, P., & Garg, N. (2021). Emotional intelligence and classroom control: Evidence from Indian schools. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 41(3), 456-472.
- Mikolajczak, M., Menil, C., & Luminet, O. (2007). Explaining the protective effect of trait emotional intelligence regarding occupational stress: Exploration of emotional labour processes. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 41(5), 1107-1117.
- Oliveira, S. (2021). Impacts of social and emotional learning interventions for teachers: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12, 677217.
- Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2001). Trait emotional intelligence: Psychometric investigation with reference to established trait taxonomies. *European Journal of Personality*, 15(6), 425-448.
- Petrides, K. V., Furnham, A., & Frederickson, N. (2004). Emotional intelligence: A construct validation study. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 83(2), 232-241.
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2017). Teacher self-efficacy and teacher burnout: A study of relations. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 67, 78-88.
- Stronge, J. H. (2018). *Qualities of effective teachers* (3rd ed.). Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

- Van Rooy, D. L., & Viswesvaran, C. (2004). Emotional intelligence: A meta-analytic investigation of predictive validity and nomological net. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65(1), 71-95.
- Zeidner, M., Matthews, G., & Roberts, R. D. (2009). What we know about emotional intelligence: How it affects learning, work, relationships, and our mental health. MIT Press.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (2008). Competencies in emotional intelligence: Implications for professional practice. *Journal of Management Development*, 27(2), 116-135.
- Brotheridge, C. M., & Lee, R. T. (2002). Testing a conservation of resources model of the dynamics of emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 7(1), 57-67.
- Collie, R. J., Shapka, J. D., & Perry, N. E. (2012). School climate and teacher well-being: A longitudinal analysis. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(4), 665-675.
- Frenzel, A. C., Goetz, T., Lüdtke, O., Pekrun, R., & Sutton, R. (2009). Emotional transmission in the classroom: Exploring the social side of teaching. *Emotion*, 9(6), 1205-1214.
- Grant, A. M. (2014). The efficacy of organizational support for teacher well-being and its educational outcomes. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 42(1), 123-143.
- Hamre, B. K., & Pianta, R. C. (2006). Student-teacher relationships. In G. G. Bear & K. M. Minke (Eds.), *Children's Needs III: Development, Prevention, and Intervention* (pp. 59-71). Bethesda, MD: National Association of School Psychologists.
- Kamboj, P., & Garg, N. (2021). Emotional intelligence and classroom control: Evidence from Indian schools. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 41(3), 456-472.
- Klassen, R. (2018). Gender and teacher effectiveness: A meta-analytic review. *Educational Research Review*, 24, 242-257.
- Klassen, R., & Chiu, M. M. (2010). Effects on teachers' self-efficacy and teaching effectiveness. *Educational Psychology Review*, 22(2), 201-214.
- O'Connor, M., Hallam, R., & Roche, L. (2019). Evaluating a teacher emotion-regulation intervention: Effects on wellbeing and classroom practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 86, 102883.
- Pianta, R. C., Hamre, B. K., & Allen, J. P. (2012). Teacher-student relationships and classroom quality: Conceptual and empirical foundations. In S. L. Christenson et al. (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Student Engagement* (pp. 365-386). New York, NY: Springer.
- Rimm-Kaufman, S. E., & Hamre, B. K. (2010). Promoting teachers' social and emotional competence. *Educational Psychologist*, 45(2), 61-74.
- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D., Cooper, J. T., Golden, C. J., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 25(2), 167-177.
- Sutton, R. E., & Wheatley, K. F. (2003). Teachers' emotions and teaching: A review of the literature and directions for future research. *Educational Psychology Review*, 15(4), 327-358.
- Taxer, J. L., & Gross, J. J. (2018). Emotion regulation in teachers: The "why" and the "how". *International Journal of Stress Management*, 25(2), 132-148.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, A. W. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research*, 68(2), 202-248.
- Van Veen, K., Zwart, R., & Meirink, J. (2018). Teacher learning and professional development: A review. *Educational Research Review*, 24, 120-134.
- Vesely, C. K., Saklofske, D. H., & Leschied, A. D. W. (2013). EI and student outcomes: A meta-analytic synthesis. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, 31(1), 42-60.

- Sy, T. (2010). Gender and emotional labor: How gendered norms shape emotional expression at work. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 17(2), 121-142.
- Qualter, P., Whiteley, H. E., Morley, A., & Dudiak, H. (2009). Increasing trait emotional intelligence: The effectiveness of a classroom-based intervention. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 30(5), 744-751.

