

**IMPACT OF MODERN DAY EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TO THE
WORK PLACE**

BY

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ABSTRACT

The profitability of organizations largely depends on the success of its human capital as they seem to be an organization's greatest asset. Creating an evidenced based HR recruitment and employee retention strategy can therefore not be over emphasized. In this light, this paper assessed the role and influence of emotional intelligence on employee attitudes and behaviours in the form of commitment towards the organizations worked for. The study adopted a quantitative approach in carrying out the research and depended on a snowball approach in getting respondents to the two part pre-validated questionnaires utilized to obtain data. Findings from the analysis carried out revealed that other factors beyond emotional intelligence influence an employee's commitment to the organization worked for.

DECLARATION

I Mayowa Teniola Esan certify this research work was done by me and not someone else.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In today's world, the recruitment and management of the workforce in any organization or work environment is continually evolving, complex and remains multifaceted in its processes and sustainability of adopted models. However, one of the undeniable reoccurring factors considered by Human Resource teams in identifying and recruiting employees that can integrate and function effectively within teams irrespective of background and experience. In order to achieve this synergy, Human Resource scholars have over the years carried out researches to better understand and proffer ways to assess the soft or innate skill sets that allow for the cohesion of individuals from various backgrounds to work together and function as a team with fewer conflicts and improved overall performance. Researchers in the field of Psychology such as Salovey (2003), suggests individuals with divergent opinions, beliefs and backgrounds can work together and better in achieving common goals and interests if their emotions are properly and intentionally managed. Psychologists attribute the achievement of this statement to the Emotional Intelligence of a person (Salovey, 2003).

The term "Emotional Intelligence" in recent years have been deemed or acknowledged as an essential phenomenon to societal/people relation but sadly, has remained relatively an understudied element as regards competence in a work environment (Giardini & Frese, 2006). Krishnakumar (2016) defines "Emotional Intelligence" as a person's capability to recognize, exhibit consciousness of emotions felt and managing such emotions for productive purposes. While other scholars like Giardini & Frese (2008); Mayer *et al.* (2008) defined "Emotional Intelligence" in reference to abilities concerned with the acknowledgement and control of emotions in one's self and other people, and utilizing this perceived information in guiding one's thoughts and actions. According to Lakshmi & SekharRao (2018), emotions are represented by the state of one's mood or situation. An example of emotions includes the feeling of being happy, angry, sad, depressed or angry. Pathak (2013) in reference to work

environments suggests skills/attributes like empathy, self-regulation and socializing skills be the key components of Emotional Intelligence in a multifaceted work structure/environment. However, the linking of how emotional intelligence affects the workplace in terms of employee retention, loyalty and intention to quit (all of which represents factors that influence employee turnover) still remains understudied with the research by Asiegbu (2016) focusing on the relationship of Emotional Intelligence to the workplace in terms of its impact on employee job performance. Jaramillo, *et al.* (2005) assert the importance of some factors such as employee loyalty and intention to quit as critical in determining the organizational commitment of an employee, with Asiegbu (2016) buttressing this by linking the organizational commitment of members of staff to be an essential concern for the management of organizations. This could further be linked to the high cost associated with the frequent and continuous recruitment of staff in organizations that cannot afford to have the greater chunk of its recruitment targets as experienced hires, as the continuous exit of valuable/top-performing members of staff could potentially create inconsistency in an organization's performance and its core competence, therefore potentially reducing its market share and competitive advantage.

1.1. BACKGROUND ON RESEARCH FOCUS

It, therefore, becomes important for human resource managers/teams to understand how to come up with strategies and evidence/research-based policies that mitigate against the occurrence of employee turnover from the recruitment stage. In this case, the research aims to understand if and how emotional intelligence correlates with the various levels of organization commitment by employees. In assessing literature for this research, previous studies on emotional intelligence revealed divergent views with regards to linking emotional intelligence to organizational topics. For example, Shahzad *et al.* (2010) state “some topics in the study of organizational behavior and psychology have been as controversial as the study

of Emotional Intelligence”. On the other hand, Shahzad *et al.* (2010) attributed the exaggerated claims by other scholars on the importance of Emotional Intelligence on an employee’s job performance, organizational leadership and other areas of organizational life to have helped in fuelling the authenticity and study of Emotional Intelligence. Shahzad *et al.* (2010) therefore assert Emotional Intelligence (EI) to be conceptually important in predicting the work performance of employees, as every organization have the need for interpersonal interactions amongst its members of staff in order to achieve the set goals of the organization, they further cited a great number of job roles necessitate the capability of employees to better handle their emotions. The assertion of Shahzad *et al.* (2010) is buttressed by the research of scholars like Lam & Kirby (2002); Cote & Miners (2006); Semadar *et al.* (2006) who empirically established relationships between emotional intelligence and employee work performance. On the other hand, Kim *et al.* (2009) state that an employee simply being emotionally intelligent does not guarantee a superior performance at work except it affects how the employee utilizes/controls emotions at the work environment. This will, therefore, infer that employees who can manage their emotions proportionately and through exhibiting some type of behaviors at the workplace will allow them to harness better information, understand the behaviors of their colleagues and enable them to make better/guided decisions with reference to their activities, and all of which when combined will translate to achieving an improved job and organizational performance. Although this stated assertion does not directly feel useful to the research, it however presents and buttresses the importance of understanding the linking of emotional intelligence to topics in the field of organizational studies. For example, pressures and uncertainties emanating from social and personal activities which bother around and beyond financial stress, relationships and health, for instance, affects one's emotions, employees going through such forms of stress outside the workplace can be impacted by their emotions negatively while at work, which could further

influence their work commitment level and decisions to quit a job role or change the workplace.

■ 1.2 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVE

Aims and objective of this thesis revolves around the following;

- Assess the relationship of Emotional Intelligence to an employee's intention to quit.
- Assess if Emotional Intelligence affects an employee's commitment to the workplace/organization.
- Assess if high levels of emotional intelligence influences employee loyalty.

In achieving this, the research, therefore, adopted a quantitative approached study, which was guided by the adoption of the pre-validated and psychometrically evaluated questionnaire on organizational commitment developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) and the pre-validated and psychometrically evaluated questionnaire on emotional intelligence developed by Schutte *et al.* (1998) both in the forms of scales in collecting research data from working-class individuals. Combining and adopting the use of the two pre-validated scales in collecting the research data was aimed at utilizing psychometrically evaluated scales with high levels of reliability to aid in achieving an accurate analysis of the research data and presenting findings. Understanding the impact of the modern-day emotional intelligence to the workplace will avail knowledge that will guide recruitment assessments by Human Resource teams. The rationale for the chosen research topic was therefore aimed at gaining an insight into the impact of the modern-day emotional intelligence to the workplace. At the end of this research study, the findings present new hypotheses and theories. The hypotheses and theory presented at the end of this academic study will be added to the body of knowledge and available for other researchers to carry out quantitative analysis on the researcher's theory and hypotheses on the impact of the modern-day emotional intelligence to the workplace.

1.3 THESIS STRUCTURE

The thesis structure for the study on the impact of the modern-day emotional intelligence to the workplace is highlighted in this section. The thesis is organized into five (6) chapters, with the content for each highlighted as follows:

Chapter 1 presents an introduction/general overview, highlights the background on the research focus, highlights the aims and objectives of the research study. Chapter 1 also hints on the focus of the literature review as presented in its following chapter.

Chapter 2 presents an extensive literature review on papers related to emotional intelligence and organization commitment, the roles they play in the workplace, their impact on employees and organizations as well as the various validated methods of measuring emotional intelligence and organizational commitment.

Chapter 3 discusses the research methodology and makes justifications for the adopted research philosophy, research approach, the method of data sourcing, data collection instruments, analyzing the research data, the limitations to the research study and its mitigations as well as how good research ethics was imbibed.

Chapter 4 presents the quantitative analysis of the research data using the IBM SPSS tools and features. The chapter further interprets the quantitatively analyzed data to text by offering explanations.

Chapter 5 discusses findings from the quantitative analysis of chapter 6, presents new hypothesis/theories and draws conclusions from the research findings as well as proffer recommendations for future research/study on the impact of the modern-day emotional intelligence to the workplace.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Scholarly articles on Emotional Intelligence accessed are all inclined to the positivity of Emotional Intelligence in people relation and mental functioning. For example, the research by Lakshmi & SekharRao (2018) favours Emotional Intelligence to enhance work performance as it enables individuals' foster positive relationships with team members in carrying out job roles and in the development of societal prominence. The focal point of the finding of Lakshmi & SekharRao (2018) identified some links connecting the emotional elements and employee performance. The study conducted by Lakshmi & SekharRao (2018) asserts emotional intelligence has a direct impact on the job performance of an employee, as findings from their study showed a low level of emotional intelligence had an impact on the employees' level of performance on the job. They concluded their research by asserting emotional intelligence to being a vital variable in people relations which forms self-awareness, helps employees gain and share knowledge with their colleagues, foster trust and develop a genuine concern for others. Lakshmi & SekharRao (2018) submitted that Emotional Intelligence has a simultaneous influence on both the individual performance of employees and the organization worked for.



Figure 1: Lakshmi & SekharRao's proposed relationship between emotional factors and employee performance (Source: from Lakshmi & SekharRao, 2018)

Shahzad et al. (2010) argue that Emotional Intelligence ought to be given an elevated priority as per staff recruitment/development and beyond that, recognized and taught in higher education institutions as a strategy for developing and prospering the economy of a country.

2.1 FACTORS AND INDICATORS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The research by Shahzad et al. (2010) assessed the level of Emotional Intelligence of their surveyed participants in terms of Self-awareness, Self-management, Social-awareness and Relationship management. They classified self-awareness as recognizing the significance of personal feelings and how it affects one's personal performance on the job. They further suggest self-awareness to be vital in realizing personal weaknesses and strengths. They classified self-management as the capacity to handle/control one's values, resources, impulses and discipline. This is relatable to the positive handling of on the job stress emanating from dealing with irate customers, poor business/organization processes, work fatigue and its likes. Shahzad et al. (2010), classified social awareness as the ability for a person to understand and discern what is societally and socially acceptable or expected from him/her and how he or she acts in that way. They further suggested that empathic individuals are socially aware of the concerns and emotions of other people. They gave examples of workplace interactions amongst colleagues which they assert is critical and requires the competencies of individual empathy as a way of ensuring better performance. Shahzad et al. (2010) pointed out an example of an empathic team responsible for product development, utilizing the competence of empathy to read the needs of customers which results in developing products with superior performance and therefore fosters innovativeness. On social awareness, Shahzad et al. (2010) submitted that empathy is a tool for measuring the level of social awareness of any individual. They classified relationship management as possessing a sum-up of set competences which includes vital social skillsets, the capacity to analyse and influence other people as well as the capability to bring about desirable responses in other people.

2.2 MEASURING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Few psychometrically, predictive, incrementally validated and academically accepted EI measurement scales/tests are available for free. There also appears to be a remarkable similarity in measurement subsets of emotional intelligence, with almost all identified measurement subsets revolving around the four-branches of emotional intelligence, namely; perceiving emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions and managing emotions, as deduced by Mayer et al. (2002) the originators of the Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) which has critically been analysed by researchers such as Brackett and Salovey (2006) and Maul (2012).

A review on the academic work of O'Connor et al. (2019) offers a critical appraisal of the measurement of emotional intelligence. In their study, they carried out assessments on the emotional intelligence scales developed by Mayer et al. (2002) – Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Tests (MSCEIT), Schutte et al. (1998) – Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT), Boyatzis and Goleman (2007) – Emotional and Social competence Inventory (ESCI), Bar-On (1997) – Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), Petrides and Furnham (2001) – Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue), MacCann and Roberts (2008) – The Situational Test of Emotional Management (STEM) and The Situational Test of Emotional Understanding (STEU). This literature, however, takes specific interests in a few of this listed EI scales above as most of them have similar linking to the MSCEIT scale developed by Mayer et al. (2002).

Emotional Intelligence Measured by the MSCEIT			
Branch 1: (Perception of emotion)	Branch 2: (Use of emotion to facilitate thinking)	Branch 3: (Understanding of emotion)	Branch 4: (Management of emotion)
<i>Task 1: Faces</i> Participants view photographs of faces and identify the emotions in them	<i>Task 3: Sensation</i> Which tactile, taste, and color sensations are reminiscent of a specific emotion?	<i>Task 5: Blends</i> Which emotions might blend together to form a more complex feeling?	<i>Task 7: Emotion management</i> How effective alternative actions would be in achieving a certain outcome, in emotion-laden situations where individuals must regulate their feelings
<i>Task 2: Pictures</i> Participants view photographs of faces and artistic representations and identify the emotions in them	<i>Task 4: Facilitation</i> How moods enhance thinking, reasoning and other cognitive processes	<i>Task 6: Changes</i> How emotions progress and change from one state to another	<i>Task 8: Relationship management</i> Test-takers evaluate how effective different actions would be in achieving an emotion-laden outcome involving other people

Figure 2: The four branches of emotional intelligence measured by the MSCEIT

(Source: from Brackett and Salovey, 2006)

According to Brackett and Salovey (2006), the Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) measures the four-branch model of emotional intelligence (perceiving, using, understanding, and regulating emotions) with 141 items that are divided among 8 tasks (two for each branch). Where, the given test derives seven scores: one for each of the four branches, two area scores, and a total emotional intelligence score. The two area scores are termed: Experiential Emotional Intelligence (combining branches 1 – perceiving emotions and 2 – using emotions), and Strategic Emotional Intelligence (combining branches 3 – understanding emotions and 4 – managing emotions).

Branch name	Brief description of skills involved	Task name	Brief description of tasks
Perceiving Emotions	The ability to perceive emotions in oneself and others, as well as in objects, art, stories, music, and other stimuli	Faces	Identify the emotions expressed in pictures of faces
		Pictures	Identify the emotions expressed in pictures of artwork and landscapes
Using Emotions	The ability to generate, use, and to feel emotion as necessary to communicate feelings, or employ them in other cognitive processes	Facilitation	Rate the helpfulness of moods to activities
		Sensations	Generate an emotion on the basis of sensation words (cold, dark) and compare the feeling to emotion words
Understanding Emotions	The ability to understand emotional information, how emotions combine and progress through relationship transitions, and to appreciate such emotional meanings	Changes	Identify emotions that result from intensifications of other emotions
		Blends	Identify emotions that result from blends of other emotions
Managing Emotions	The ability to be open to feelings, and to modulate them in oneself and others so as to promote personal understanding and growth	Emotional management	Rate the effectiveness of actions to situations involving one's own emotions
		Emotional relations	Rate the effectiveness of actions to situations involving others' emotions

Note. Adapted from Mayer et al. (2002).

Figure 3: Layout of the Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Source: from Maul, 2012)

Maul (2012) in analyzing the work of Mayer et al. (2002) shed light on the skills involved in scoring high in the Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) as well as group the types of tasks assessment in the MSCEIT by emotional intelligence branch name as shown in Figure 3 above. Most recently, academic scholars like O'Connor et al. (2019) in their research pointed out some challenges they believe early emotional intelligence test

developers faced, one of which is the construction of emotion-focused questionnaires that can be scored with objective criteria i.e. when compared to measures of a person's cognitive ability which is assessed objectively by right or wrong answers such as in the case of mathematical problems. This phenomenon they suggest has led to current day scenarios where questions designed for the measurement of emotional abilities depending on an expert judgment in determining or defining correct answers and as such scholars like Maul, 2012 and O'Connor et al. (2019) see this as a problem. O'Connor et al. (2019) further cited the inability of earlier EI measures to differentiate between a person's typical and maximum performance which they believe to be responsible for the deviation of some EI test developers from utilizing purely ability-based questionnaires to utilizing self-reporting questionnaires (such as questionnaires that ask participants to rate behavioral tendencies/abilities as against objectively assessing the abilities of participants).

Literature accessed suggests two prevalent methods of classifying the measurement of emotional intelligence. The first identified the reoccurring method of categorizing was solely based on whether the measurement of emotional intelligence adopted for testing was based on ability EI (referred to as "maximal performance") or trait EI (referred to as "self-reporting"). Where the categorized ability EI tests/questions are said to measure concepts or ideas relating to a person's theoretical understanding of what emotion is and its functioning, while trait EI tests/questions are said to measure the usual behaviors in emotion relevant situations (an example of this, is when a person is faced with stress or an upset acquaintance) and also self-rated abilities (Pérez et al., 2005; O'Connor et al., 2019). The second prevalent method of classifying the measurement of emotional intelligence identified is in terms of the three EI "streams" proposed by scholars Ashkanasy and Daus (2005). By this proposed style of classification, stream one includes the ability EI measures based on the Mayer and Salovey's model (MSCEIT); with stream two including self-reporting (trait EI) measures based also on Mayer and Salovey's model (MSCEIT), while stream three comprises of the

expanded models of emotional intelligence that includes components absent in the given definition by Mayer et al. (2002). Scholars like Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) identified stream three to be referred to as “mixed” models as it consists of a combination of both personality and behavioral items. In the literature review of O’Connor et al. (2019) the term “mixed EI” was noticed to have been used when referring to emotional intelligence measures that assessed the combined components of traits, social skills and competencies while overlapping with other personality measures. O’Connor et al. (2019) in their research noted that the distinctions between trait EI and ability EI are adequate in categorizing the immense number of EI tests globally available. They further submitted that both streams two (self-reporting) and three (self-report mixed) are simply classified as “trait” measures, and summarized the classification of EI measures as follows; ability EI (stream one), trait EI (stream two), and mixed EI (stream three).

In the workplace, members of staff in leadership positions will have to effectively regulate how they and others feel as an efficient means of motivating their subordinates within the work environment (Humphrey et al., 2008). Staff working in organizations categorized as human service sectors such as healthcare and customer service, for example, will in order to please their patients or customers must be able to manage their own emotions and bodily expressions (Lopes, 2016). Beyond negatively impacting the performance of staff, the continuous failures of members of staff employed in such sensitive roles within an organization to regulate or manage their emotions within the workplace can be costly to the organizations they work for, as customers are continuously poached, sought after and lobbied for by competing organizations. Joseph and Newman (2010) submit that perceiving and understanding one's feeling contributes to the regulation of emotion and linked this as a contributor to job performance. Other scholars like Oginska-Bulik (2005) assessed and measured emotional intelligence in the workplace by analyzing its impact as relates to occupational stress and health outcomes in human service professions (the eligibility for

research sample included workers in the fields of nursing, teaching, physicians, probation officers and organization/people managers).

The results of the study by Oginska-Bulik (2005) indicated human service workers experienced elevated levels of stress (with the highest levels of stress detected amongst teachers). While the levels of stress experienced on the job by this work-related group seem to be higher than that experienced by bank workers, firefighters, prison officers or even journalists but lower when compared to actors and police officers. Oginska-Bulik (2005) identified work overload, the deficiency or absence of rewards and social relations to make up the most stressful work-related factors. The study by Kumarasamy *et al.* (2016) suggests that staying long hours (> 50 hours per week) at work is an indicator of a work-life imbalance and citing the inability for such individuals to allocate ample time to engage in other activities, while the study by Hilbrecht *et al.* (2008) supports this by stating that the work-life balance or imbalance of an individual is highly related to the quality of life of that individual and further stated the growing awareness on the importance of the topic amongst employees and employers. Studies by Hobson *et al.* (2001) and Bohle *et al.* (2004) attribute this growing awareness on work-life imbalance to the many negative consequences for employees and as such its indirect impact on their job performance. Although various occupations have their own individualistic unique stress factors, some job roles or occupations are rightly categorized as highly demanding jobs and are extremely stressful when compared to other occupations or job roles (Goodman, 1990; Karunanidhi and Chitra, 2013). The research by Oginska-Bulik (2005) for example, further examined the level of emotional intelligence of doctors, nurses, teachers, probation officers and managers and noticed a visible similarity to the levels detected in workers grouped as representing other human service occupations such as psychologists and clergies but noticed the level of emotional intelligence to be higher amongst some of the uniformed occupations such as the firefighters and security guards. This said higher levels of emotional intelligence witnessed amongst the uniformed occupations

could probably be linked or attributed to the professional training undertaken by them or their innate desire or such occupations attracting the similar-minded type of persons who desire to help others. From the research of Oginska-Bulik (2005), employees who showed to have had elevated levels of Emotional Intelligence, showed to be experiencing lower levels of job-related stress and suffered less from adverse health concerns and as such Oginska-Bulik (2005) therefore suggested that high levels of emotional intelligence act as a buffer that prevents employees from having or experiencing negative health outcomes, particularly with the symptoms of depression. This is supported in the research of Bar-On (2012). The research by Oginska-Bulik (2005) further recognized the importance of emotional intelligence in mutually perceiving job stress and avoiding mental health disorders (mostly with the signs of depression), as the research revealed that individuals who showed to have elevated levels of emotional intelligence, evident by the capability to recognize and express their emotions as well as having the ability to deal with and control them showed the capability to manage stress better and suffer less from adverse health outcomes. The study by Bar-On (2012) although concurring to these asserts of Oginska-Bulik (2005), however, has somewhat of an opposing opinion in terms of the factors that predict negative health outcomes, as his research asserts that the strongest emotional intelligence predictors of physical health are the levels of self-regard (defined as a person's ability to understand and accept oneself to be the strongest predictor of health), self-actualization, stress tolerance, optimism and happiness. It is also important to note that some of these factors stated by Bar-On (2012) such as 'stress tolerance' greatly correlates with the findings and assertions of Oginska-Bulik (2005). For example, the research by Oginska-Bulik (2005) indicated that respondents, who showed to be less emotionally intelligent in the study, were more likely to be engaging or involved in health-damaging activities and the findings in the study by Bar-On (2012) supported this assertion of Oginska-Bulik (2005) and suggested reasons/factors that influence divergent and opposing behaviors witnessed with persons with higher levels of emotional intelligence by stating that

individuals who are seen to have good levels of self-awareness, understand their weaknesses as well as their strengths, pursue activities that actualize their potential and manage their emotions well.

The review of literature on the research by Oginska-Bulik (2005) deduces that the capability to efficiently manage one's emotions as well as the emotional information in the workplace can aid such an employee handle work-related stress and maintain his or her psychological wellbeing.

Oginska-Bulik (2005) concluded by asserting that the reduction of stress and the protection of one's health could be achieved not only by lessening one's work demands or stress factors alone but by also improving on the personal resources of employees and their emotional intelligence, as improving emotional intelligence attributes in the form of empathy and the control of one's impulse, are critical to achieving successful/improved job performance and helps employees manage their feelings more effectively, which resultantly and invariably decreases the levels of work-related stress and indirectly protects the employees' health. This assertion by Oginska-Bulik (2005) is further supported by the findings of Bar-On (2012) which showed that people identified to be more emotionally intelligent felt healthier than their counterparts identified to be less emotionally intelligent. All reviewed articles from scholars on emotional intelligence seemed to greatly agree on its impact on health, but a further look at scholarly articles on emotional intelligence in terms of other aspects that affect the workplace/organizations seemed to be somewhat multidimensional with both similar and opposing views.

2.3. ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI) IN ORGANIZATIONS

The commitment levels of staff may be linked to the EQ (emotional intelligence measure) of their managers (Bhalerao and Kumar, 2016).

The relationship between trait-based emotional intelligence of the leaders of the organization showed a positive correlation with the commitment exhibited by subordinates. There was no correlation, however, between the EQ (emotional intelligence measure) of staff and their commitment to the organization. Bhalerao and Kumar (2016) therefore inferred that the result from their research casts doubts on several assumptions on the topic of 'Emotional Intelligence' and as such ended their research work with the conclusion that assessing the relationship of emotional intelligence to organizational commitment to be somewhat complicated. This conclusion by Bhalerao and Kumar (2016) reaffirms the submissions of critiques like Lindebaum, 2009; Harms & Credé, 2010 who argue that the claim of emotional intelligence having a direct impact on leadership outcomes in an organization is exaggerated and therefore urged that such studies adopt the use of multiple emotional intelligence rating sources. While a good number of studies accessed indicate a considerable linking between leadership style and organizational commitment, Afshari and Gibson (2016) agree its impact to vary across cultures. However, Dorfman et al. (2012) assert that the impact of value-based leadership behavior's/style as a concept is globally effective towards organizational commitment and as such supports other arguments that leadership across varying cultures have more similarities than differences. However, this study focused on the impact of emotional intelligence to the workplace.

In further assessing the relationship of emotional intelligence to the organizational commitment of employees as relates to the workplace, the reviewed scholarly literatures shed light on psychometrically validated as well as critiqued methods of carrying out assessments on organizational commitment. Bar-Haim (2019) suggested the use of two core instruments/tools by previous scholars in carrying out empirical research on the organizational commitment (OC) of employees. With one being the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday et al. (1979) and the second being the three-dimensional Organizational Commitment (OC) developed by Allen and Meyer

(1990). The Mowday et al. (1979) OCQ 15-itemed questionnaire was later streamlined to a shorted 9-itemed version scaled questionnaire by Cook and Wall (1980) designed for a working-class population, with its content intended to capture three of these interrelated dimensions; namely, acceptance of the organization's values (identification), willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization (involvement) and finally, the desire to remain an employee of the organization (loyalty). However, the literature of Bar-Haim (2019) pointed out the failure of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday et al. (1979) to validate the theoretically three-derived dimensions mentioned above.

On the other hand, the literature of scholars like Rhoades et al. (2001) acknowledged other researchers to have previously utilized the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS) of Allen and Meyer (1990) and reported it to form a single factor with high reliability. Bar-Haim (2019) further validated this and the use of the three-dimensional Organizational Commitment (OC) scale developed by Allen & Mayer (1990) by stating that the best acknowledged tool for measuring the Organizational Commitment (OC) of employees is that of Alan and Meyer (1990). Further reading by the author revealed the approach/survey utilized by Allen and Meyer (1991; 1997) in their publications/work is referred to as the Three-Component Model (TCM) of commitment. The said model/framework assesses three forms of employee commitment to an organization, with the first being or referred to as desire-based (termed "Affective Commitment" – AC), the second obligation-based (termed "Normative Commitment" – NC), while the third is referred to as cost-based (termed "Continuance Commitment" – CC). Their model/framework in the form of a survey includes three currently well used and validated scales, classified as ACS (Affective Commitment Scale), NCS (Normative Commitment Scale and CCS (Continuance Commitment Scale), with each of these listed scales being scored independently and in application, utilized in identifying what scholars like Allen and Meyer (1997) tagged the "commitment profile" of an employee. This

framework has been referred to by so many other scholars as “Commitment Scale”. Researchers like Jaros (2007) also acknowledged the Meyer and Allen’s three-component model of organizational commitment as a prevailing model/framework in the study of employee commitment in the workplace. While researchers like Asnawi et al. (2014) utilized the Allen and Meyer’s three-component model of organizational commitment in their research, they also linked Emotional Intelligence to the workplace by suggesting that the aspect of emotional intelligence to the workplace presents a vital competence and skillset required by most employees in confronting their everyday experiences and decisions within the workplace environment. Their examples cited employees becoming anxious to face changes that occur within the workplace; as such these changes can be or are sometimes perceived as threatening by employees and are evident in their emotions. Their research indicated a relationship of advanced levels/active emotional intelligence to gaining commitment towards implementing change. Asnawi et al. (2014) defined a “committed employee” to be a person who remains with an organization or employer through thick and thin; comes to work regularly, gives in a full day and more, protects the organization’s resources and shares in the organization’s goals. While Allen & Meyer (1997) defined commitment as a psychological way/state of thinking which influences an employee’s retained attachment to an organization.

Although a large number of studies on organizational commitment accessed utilized the Three-component Commitment Model (TCM), a few like Solinger et al. (2008) critiqued the Three-component Commitment Model (TCM) and cited the assertion of Allen and Meyer (1990), “Employees with strong affective commitment remain because they want to, those with strong continuance commitment because they need to, and those with strong normative commitment because they feel they ought to do so”. Solinger et al. (2008) argued that organizational commitment can best be understood as an attitude regarding the organization, while normative and continuance commitment are attitudes regarding staying or leaving.

Solinger et al. (2008) therefore utilized the attitude – behavior model of Eagly and Chaiken (1993) in demonstrating that the Three-component Commitment Model (TCM) combines fundamentally different attitudinal phenomena. They asserted that TCM represents only a specific model for predicting turnover and therefore proposed a re-conceptualization of the TCM based on standard attitude theory. In supporting the assertions of Solinger et al. (2008), Wasti (2016) stated that scholars who utilized the Three-component Commitment Model (TCM) frequently failed to extend their cross-cultural comparisons to commitment profiles and were limited to comparing and contrasting the individual components of the commitment model. Meyer & Herscovitch (2001) in reformulating the Three-component Commitment Model (TCM) retained its main concepts and ideas but proposed a motivational—rather than attitudinal— interpretation.

The accessed literatures reviewed thus far have influenced the intention to adopt a strategy that seeks to assess the linking of Emotional Intelligence to the commitment of employees to their workplace.

2.4. CONCLUSION

For the purpose of this research the combination and adoption of the validated questionnaires of Schutte *et al.* (1998) – Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT) and the Allen and Meyer (1991; 1997) framework on assessing employee commitment. The study will combine both validated survey scales into a two sectioned research questionnaire that will be answered by respondents on a 5-point Likert-type scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Results from these distinctive questionnaire sections was then analyzed and compared for correlations in achieving the research objectives. The study does not have a preferred sector or profession to sample and as such the research data will therefore sample respondents across various sectors and professions.

CHAPTER 3

3.0. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In administering a methodological approach synonymous to this research, a quantitative method is considered for the primary research as a way of ensuring a correlated and professional approach to understanding the impact of modern day emotional intelligence to the work place. This section therefore illustrates the considered and adopted research paradigm, philosophy, strategy and methodological approach for the research.

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

The following sub-sections below describes and discusses academic research methods and approaches considered and adopted in planning and structuring this academic research work (thesis).

3.1.1 RESEARCH PARADIGM

Burrell and Morgan (1979) defined paradigm as a set of essential and commonly neglected assumptions which influence the form of theorizing, outlining of reference and methods of working in which a group (organization or people) operate. Kelemen and Rumens (2008) explored the significance of paradigms within management research and explained the concept of “Paradigm” in simple terms as an “example or pattern”. They stated the use of the term “Paradigm” in sciences to also refer to theoretical framework. Saunders et al., (2019) on the other hand relates it to the political or ideological orientation of a researcher in relation to the social world being investigated by the researcher and further likened them to the dimension of objectivism–subjectivism, in which their ideological dimension is referred to as divergent extremes or ascribed to having two opposing poles. Burrell and Morgan (1979) defined the said divergent extremes ‘sociology of regulation’ (referred to as regulation) and

‘sociology of radical change’ (referred to as radical change). Were a researcher that adopts the regulation perspective is said to be primarily concerned with the need for the regulation of societies and human behavior. And that such a researcher assumes a fundamental unity and cohesiveness of societal systems and structures. With Saunders et al., (2019) stating that a good number management and business research could be categorized as ‘regulation’ research seeking to suggest ways in which the affairs of organizations can be improved or made better within its current framework as against radically challenging its statuesque. Kelemen and Rumens (2008); Saunders et al., (2019) cite several discussions and arguments on the topic of paradigm by earlier scholars on the subject matter and in particular analyzed the 1979 publication of Burrell and Morgan's “two-by-two matrix maps out four research paradigms that represent the major ‘belief systems’ of academics and others who practice management and organisational research”. Kelemen and Rumens (2008) suggest that depending on the nature of science (objective or subjective) and the nature of society (stability or change), there can be four paradigms of the social world. Saunders et al. (2019) agrees with this as they assert that the research on business and management can be understood better in terms of four social research paradigms, namely; functionalist, interpretive, radical structuralist and radical humanist. Kelemen and Rumens (2008) stated that if a researcher/scholar subscribes to the thought of social science as an objective enterprise (i.e. that knowledge is ‘true’) and the result of the rigorous application of methodology, then such a scholar situates between the functionalist or the radical structuralist paradigm. Kelemen and Rumens (2008) further suggested an alternative that categorizes scholars subscribing to the school of thought that science is a social and political process whose outcomes reflect the interests and agendas of the powerful intellectual elite class, then such scholars situate between the interpretivist and a radical humanist paradigm. They state that to differentiate the position of scholars further, the scholars will have to answer questions about the nature of society. E.g. “Is society (or the ideal of a society) a stable, orderly and

coherent entity (an output)?" Or "Is society always in a state of fluctuation and transformation (a process), on its way to be constituted but not quite there?" Kelemen and Rumens (2008) state that if the answer to the first exemplified question is "yes", then the researcher is considered to be an interpretivist or a functionalist, and if the answer to the second exemplified question is "yes", then the scholar is considered to a radical humanist or a radical structuralist. Kelemen and Rumens (2008) concluded that paradigm influences a researcher's engagement and perceptive of the world of management. While Saunders et al. (2019) correlate with this, they however cited the Social Paradigms and Organizational Analysis on the four paradigms for organizational analysis developed from Burrell and Morgan (1982), where the matrix's four paradigms was pictorially presented to represent the four alternate ways to viewing the social and organizational world.

This research adopts and utilizes/combines validated and psychometrically evaluated questionnaires/scales on emotional intelligence and organizational commitment as a means to assessing how the factors that influence them correlate within actual happenings within the workplace. This is likened to a regulation perspective styled functionalist paradigm for organizational analysis as defined by Saunders et al. (2019) and as such forms a functionalist paradigm approach. The adopted functionalist paradigm is said to influence rational explanations and in developing sets of recommendations within the current structures or statuesque. This therefore interprets that this research would not be adopting a radical change perspective in researching the impact of emotional intelligence in the workplace, as "radical change research approaches organizational problems from the viewpoint of overturning the existing state of affairs" (Saunders et al., 2019). This research therefore seeks to assess the current statuesque in terms of the relationship of emotional intelligence to employee commitment to organization worked for, intention to quit and employee loyalty. Hence, the adoption and combining of the two validated and psychometrically evaluated scales in collecting research data for analysis. Functionalist paradigm styled research is frequently and

greatly influenced by the positivist research philosophy (Saunders et al., 2019). And as defined by Saunders et al. (2019), the philosophy of positivism relates to the stance of the natural scientist. This entails working with an observable social reality and the end product can be law-like generalizations similar to those in the physical and natural sciences.

Saunders et al. (2019) defined research philosophy as a “system of beliefs and assumptions about the development of knowledge”. This definition is relatable in reality to researchers for example making various assumptions before embarking on a given research topic or even making new assumptions in the cause of carrying out a research. This is also relatable in understanding the intricacies at play in the formation of critiquing or supporting scholarly articles or papers by academics and researchers alike. These phenomena/examples are referred to by Saunders et al. (2019) to be epistemological (assumptions about human knowledge), ontological assumptions (realities encountered by a researcher in the cause of research) and axiological (the extent and ways the personal values of a researcher influences the research process). It is therefore inevitable to imply that these types of assumptions forms how an academic or scholar understands research questions, chooses methods and how the findings from the research is interpreted. Saunders et al. (2019) buttressed this by stating that a consistent and well thought through set of assumptions constitutes a trustworthy and reliable research philosophy, which further influences the choice of methodology, research strategy and data collection techniques as well as the procedures of analysis. Alvesson and Sköldbberg (2000) advised the need for researchers to develop a reflexivity skill set (ability to question one’s thinking and actions or examining one’s own beliefs the same way such a person scrutinizes the beliefs of others) to stay aware and keenly deduce the relationship between one’s philosophical position to how a research is undertaken.

While comparing the adoption and use of the various styled philosophies, it was observed that scholars who critiqued the values of positivism asserted that the concept of objective reality cannot be considered or measured frankly, as “reality” is observed contrarily by

individuals based on their understanding, knowledge, expectations as well as their past experiences. Some of these critiques argue and suggest “reality” to be prejudiced and not intentional as proposed by the philosophy of positivism. An approach to mitigate against this is the adoption of reflexivity as advised by Alvesson and Sköldberg (2000) and the utilization of the HARP (Heightening your Awareness of your Research Philosophy) a reflexive tool in the form of a self-assessment questionnaire designed by Bristow and Saunders (2015) which covers and assesses the five types of philosophies discussed by Saunders et al. (2019). The HARP reflexive tool helps in the thinking process/assessment of one’s values and beliefs to the topic of research. The self-assessment carried out on the Heightening your Awareness of your Research Philosophy (HARP) reflexive tool largely influences the adoption of the philosophy of positivism for this research. Guided by the assessment on HARP, the axiological assumption for this research adopts a detachment and value-free approach to self-value as well as that of research participants. This research will therefore be influenced by the philosophy of positivism.

3.1.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

The research in consistency to the influence of the philosophy of positivism, adopts a deductive approach (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). The research also adopts a deductive research approach for other reasons. One of which is the need for the research to analyze a range of data to be obtained from the combined survey scales of emotional intelligence and organizational commitment, which entails the scoring of the survey participants from the likert scale total. The deductive approach is also appropriate for quantitative methods of analysis, measurement and the testing of developed hypotheses (Saunders et al., 2019). The deductive approach beyond its linking to quantitative styled methods enables a reflection on different perspectives on knowledge, behaviors and relationship (Bryman and Bell 2003). The deductive approach fosters a balance between varying variables and conceptualization of statistical figures and allows for the acceptance or rejection of hypotheses logically and

consistently (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 2007). Analyzing alternatives to the adopted deductive approach for the research revealed inductive methods (an alternative approach) to research correlates with the paradigm of critical realism (which is divergent to the adopted research philosophy). Dudovskiy (2019) asserts that inductive reasoning is achieved by gaining knowledge from experiences in the structure of semblance and identified consistencies in varying practical based experiences (.i.e. observations) to draw informed conclusions. In contrast to this, Bradford (2017) defined the deductive research approach to start first or be initiated with making a generalist statement and then the researcher tests the given generalist statement to determine its trueness which forms a resultant conclusion. This perspective suggests that the concept of a deductive research approach is suitable for testing suggested or the already recognized theories/hypotheses. Analyzing the research work of Herr (2007) shed light on the utilization of an inductive approach by researchers and scientists in formulating hypothesis and theories, and indicated the utilization of deductive reasoning to be adopted when hypothesis and theories apply to particular circumstances. This approach is supported by Herr (2007) in inferring a hypothesized view on the impact of modern day emotional intelligence to the work place.

3.1.3 SOURCING AND COLLECTION OF RESEARCH DATA

The sourcing of data for the research adopts the combination of two sets of pre-validated and psychometrically evaluated self-assessment styled research questionnaires in the form of survey scales as against the use of non-validated or non-psychometrically evaluated questionnaires or engaging in interviews or focus groups as an alternative to the adopted approach. The chosen method for data sourcing also mitigates the shortfalls and stressors attached to sourcing for data physically by engaging person to person within the same space. The desired approach is achievable by utilizing internet based resources and leveraging on social network/connections which comprises of friends, family, acquaintances, colleagues,

former colleagues and schoolmates. The desired sample population included persons currently employed within an organization and depends on the same organization for income. The research acquired data directly from all employee tiers with no preferences on years of experience, gender, age, race and region as they have no explicit significance to the study. The sourcing for the data analyzed in the given study involved the collection of responses to a survey scaled style questionnaire from a total of eighty-two (82) respondents working across varying professional sectors, of which only responses from fifty (50) respondents were deemed usable for analysis. The sampling of the research data adopted the snowballing technique. Goodman (1961) defined snowball sampling to entail a process where random sampling of individuals are drawn from a given set population. Goodman (1961) further inferred the snowball sampling method to be ideal for mathematical representation as its method is utilized in deducing statistical inferences about various aspects of the relationships present in a sample population. Goodman (1961) discussed binomial sampling as an alternative and complementary to snowballing sampling. He discussed a significant difference between them to revolve around the binomial sampling ratio being a random variable whose expected value is p , with the variance of its ratio approaching zero as the sample population becomes infinite. The research adopts a non-probabilistic approach in collecting data for this research (in this case, snowball sampling). This infers to the strategy adopted to seek help amongst the social network of friends and family in sharing the research questionnaire hosted online to the desired sample population of working class individuals.

In snowball sampling, the initial participants can help in identifying additional participants who meet/fit into the desired sample population for a study (Orcher, 2005). This entails recommendations/referrals from participants to other respondents who meet the desired criteria. For this research, the adopted snowball sampling approach has helped in identifying more respondents (Goh, 2006).

3.2 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS AND ETHICS

The data collection instrument for the current research work entails the use of an online designed survey in the form of an anonymous questionnaire hosted on an online web application called PsyToolkit (PsyToolkit, 2019) which can be accessed from both mobile and computer devices. The chosen/adopted method will eliminate the challenges associated with the difficulty in gaining physical access to respondents during the official/business hours and the fear expressed by employees on being quarried or sanctioned by their employers for disclosing what is perceived to be company sensitive information to the academic researcher by respondents. In expressing an understanding towards the ambiguity related with the non-disclosure agreements usually signed by employees who handle or come across sensitive information or data while working in some organizations and the need for such employees to uphold the confidentiality policies of the organizations they work for. This study therefore adopted the use of a two sectioned brief, anonymous and concise academically validated questionnaire that is easy to understand and clearly states that the participation of all respondents is voluntary.

3.3 APPROACH TO DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis for the research entailed the adoption of a descriptive statistics approach to analyzing the data obtained from the combined self-assessment scales of emotional intelligence and employee commitment survey. The research data was exported, tabulated, analyzed/correlated and graphically represented by use of Microsoft Excel (Microsoft, 2020) and the SPSS Software (IBM, 2020). The descriptive statistics approach enabled the summarization of data obtained from all participants and in presenting cohesive and relevant information obtained from the research data as a means of buttressing the research findings. A shortfall of utilizing the SPSS software for data analysis in the presently is the time being spent in effectively learning how to use the software. However, a great advantage of using the

SPSS software in the analyzing of the quantitative data from the research would be its ability to analyze the data quickly, in different ways with a variety of statistical techniques. The data obtained from respondents was firstly downloaded into a Microsoft excel viewable format and then exported into the SPSS platform for further statistical analysis.

3.4 PERCEIVED METHODOLOGICAL LIMITATIONS

The first limitation identified in the cause of carrying out this study, was the unavailability of ample time to cohesively put together a well detailed research on the chosen research topic. An ideal situation for this research topic will be to sample and group individuals by the organizations they work for to deduce the impact of underlining factors of individual organizations that influence the responses of the research population and thus will require a good sample size for each organization that would be included in the study. Such an approach will need ample time and will require the validation of designed questionnaires aimed at obtaining data on organizational factors that influence the anticipated responses of the sample population. In mitigating this, a quantitative approach was adopted for the research and the use of the IBM SPSS software in carrying out mathematically styled analysis was utilized in deducing correlations and trends from the usable data obtained from fifty (50) respondents who completed the given two (2) tier pre-validated and psychometrically evaluated questionnaire.

However, the absence of a channel to validate responses provided by respondents in the research survey presents another form of limitation to this research, as the research has no means to validate factors that could influence the responses of the sample population to the employee commitment survey as the research approach does not entail researching specific or selected organizations. Hence, the impossibility to compare responses to grouped population sizes by the organizations they work for to infer the organization climate. In mitigating this, analyzing the research data adopted the utilization of the factor analysis feature on the SPSS software in regrouping the questionnaire responses into several mathematical factor-like

groupings and then further eliminated some questions and responses that no longer fitted or could not load into the subscales of the adopted pre-validated and psychometrically evaluated two tier questionnaire.

The mitigated approach stated above however does not mitigate against the limitation presented by the lack of a controlled and use of ideal sample size in the research. A controlled and ideal sample size referred to here, entails carrying out this research on an individual organization bases and selecting the same number of respondents across the units or departments of the individual organization or a population. A further limitation the mitigation approach stated above could not mitigate against was the research's collection of data and sample from a younger age bracket (22 – 32 years) with an average to low professional/work experience. This could affect the outcome of the overall finding of the research, as the snowball sample method utilized for the research entails somewhat of a referral system of a social network or peers which in this case could averagely span across a ten year age range and even if a percentage of the sample population were to fall under the category of being above 32 year old the number will be negligible as the majority of the sample population would be Masters students and their peers.

CHAPTER 4

4.1. ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

In adopting and utilizing the Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) scale to access the levels of emotional intelligence of participants, the analysis process of this study adopted the recommendation by Schutte *et al.* (1998) in using the scale to assess only one factor by totaling all 33 items on the SSEIT to achieve a one factor/dimension for the measurement of emotional intelligence. The online PsyToolkit software utilized for the dissemination and hosting of the survey questionnaire allowed for the automatic reverse coding of items (questions) 5, 28, and 33 on the Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) scale and items (questions) 3, 4, 5 and 13 on the Allen and Meyer Organizational Commitment test scale by substituting a respondent's selection of 1 to equal 5, 2 to equal 4, 4 to equal 2, 5 to equal 1 and 3 remaining as 3. The summation of the Likert responses from the two independent scales was carried out on a Microsoft Excel sheet (*attached as an appendix*) to get EI scores and organizational commitment (OC) scores for the fifty participants that completed the questions on both scales. However, because the Allen and Meyer Organizational Commitment test scale is made up of three subscales (Affective Commitment (AC), Normative Commitment (NC), and Continuance Commitment (CC)) a further summation of items grouping was carried out to obtain respondent scores on all the three subscales of the Allen and Meyer Organizational Commitment test to ascertain the level of correlation between the EI scores of participants to the three subscale scores of the Organizational Commitment test. It is important to note that the original dataset downloaded from the elapsed survey questionnaire hosted on the PsyToolkit online platform was at a value size of n=82 but was cleaned and reduced to the value size of n=50 for ease of analysis, as 32 of the 82 respondents failed to complete the second part of the survey. This was deemed problematic as the first part/section of the survey (the Emotional Intelligence scale) recorded responses from all 82 respondents while the second part/section (the Organizational

Commitment scale) recorded responses from only 50 respondents. This could be attributed to the exhibition of impatience by respondents in carrying out surveys they deem to be time-consuming. The collection of data for this study intentionally did not consider grouping the sample population by demography or work sector. This was partly done to reduce the total time taken or required to complete the two-part survey and also to avoid having an unequalled grouping of the sample population (as unequalled grouping could potentially create a level of complexity in comparing the analysis carried out on grouped populations).

4.1.1. ANALYSIS

To ascertain the level of internal consistency of participant responses to the adopted Allen and Meyer Organizational Commitment test scale, a test for reliability was firstly carried out using the Cronbach's Alpha feature on the IBM SPSS software.

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	No of Items
.835	.839	18

Table 1: Reliability Statistics of the Organization Commitment Scale

From table 1 above, it is seen that the Cronbach's alpha is 0.835. This score indicates a high level of internal consistency for the utilized and adopted 18 questions from the Allen and Meyer Organizational Commitment test scale.

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
OC_Q1	50.38	104.485	.537	.643	.821
OC_Q2	49.58	108.983	.354	.396	.830
OC_Q3	49.14	107.388	.404	.639	.828
OC_Q4	49.22	108.991	.326	.781	.832
OC_Q5	49.10	110.459	.278	.583	.834
OC_Q6	49.28	112.083	.258	.519	.834
OC_Q7	49.62	111.751	.232	.511	.836

OC_Q8	50.00	106.694	.409	.552	.828
OC_Q9	50.24	103.125	.550	.719	.820
OC_Q10	49.84	108.015	.382	.455	.829
OC_Q11	50.28	109.593	.364	.499	.830
OC_Q12	49.82	106.926	.339	.628	.832
OC_Q13	50.00	108.245	.380	.812	.829
OC_Q14	49.90	107.112	.462	.600	.825
OC_Q15	49.98	106.347	.498	.825	.823
OC_Q16	49.24	106.023	.637	.591	.818
OC_Q17	49.94	103.119	.667	.624	.815
OC_Q18	49.66	100.596	.710	.730	.811

Table 2: Cronbach's alpha Item-Total Statistics

1.1.1. Table 2 above shows possible and potential values the Cronbach's alpha could have if a particular item/question was to be deleted from the scale. From the table, it reads that the removal of any question except for question 7 would produce a lesser Cronbach's alpha score. However, the removal of question 7 would only result in having a negligible improvement of about 0.001 in Cronbach's alpha score shown in table 1. Therefore no consideration was made to remove any of the 18 items/questions.

4.1.2. DESCRIPTIVE MEASURES OF OC SCALE

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
OC_Q1	2.28	1.196	50
OC_Q2	3.08	1.175	50
OC_Q3	3.52	1.216	50
OC_Q4	3.44	1.248	50
OC_Q5	3.56	1.215	50
OC_Q6	3.38	1.067	50
OC_Q7	3.04	1.195	50
OC_Q8	2.66	1.272	50
OC_Q9	2.42	1.279	50
OC_Q10	2.82	1.207	50
OC_Q11	2.38	1.086	50
OC_Q12	2.84	1.434	50
OC_Q13	2.66	1.189	50
OC_Q14	2.76	1.117	50
OC_Q15	2.68	1.115	50

OC_Q16	3.42	.928	50
OC_Q17	2.72	1.089	50
OC_Q18	3.00	1.195	50

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
52.66	119.045	10.911	18

Table 3: Summary Mean and Standard Deviation of OC_Score

	Mean	Min.	Max.	Range	Max. / Min.	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	2.926	2.280	3.560	1.280	1.561	.163	18

Table 4: Breakdown of Mean and Standard Deviation Scores for responses to all Questions

Table 5: Mean Score of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Table 3 presents the mean (52.66) of the overall Organizational Commitment score of fifty respondents, where the highest overall score cannot exceed 90. The high variance score is shown in Table 3 indicates that all the 18 data points are well distanced from the mean and each other. Table 4 presents the mean and standard deviation breakdown for all responses to the 18 questions on Allen and Meyer's organizational commitment scale adopted for this research. Table 5 shows that the mean score values for the responses to the organizational commitment scale ranged from as low as 2.280 to 3.560 which therefore amounted to a mean score of 2.926.

4.1.3 ANALYSIS OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE

Utilizing the dimension reduction feature on the SPSS software, factor analysis was carried out on the responses to the organizational commitment scale. This was aimed at identifying if the subscales and measures of the adopted pre-validated Allen and Meyer's organizational commitment questionnaire used for this research are different from each other, discriminately valid and comparatively free of measurement error. In carrying out the factor analysis, a correlation matrix was first deduced using the principal component method and extracting

based on 3 fixed numbers of factors (this option was chosen given that the organizational commitment questionnaire has 3 subscales). The factor analysis is important in ensuring the organizational commitment scale variables aptly measures the levels of organizational commitment amongst the sample population.

	OC_Q1	OC_Q2	OC_Q3	OC_Q4	OC_Q5	OC_Q6	OC_Q7	OC_Q8	OC_Q9	OC_Q10	OC_Q11	OC_Q12	OC_Q13	OC_Q14	OC_Q15	OC_Q16	OC_Q17	OC_Q18
OC_Q1	1.000	0.376	0.221	0.285	0.353	0.267	0.063	0.346	0.402	0.177	0.199	0.217	0.384	0.143	0.191	0.315	0.406	0.314
OC_Q2	0.376	1.000	0.242	0.296	0.225	0.366	0.143	0.073	0.262	0.111	-0.056	0.093	0.122	0.093	-0.058	0.287	0.289	0.291
OC_Q3	0.221	0.242	1.000	0.720	0.517	0.096	0.098	0.222	0.001	0.093	-0.029	-0.045	0.379	0.094	0.020	0.327	0.251	0.365
OC_Q4	0.285	0.296	0.720	1.000	0.669	0.040	-0.122	0.070	-0.156	-0.055	-0.156	-0.085	0.543	0.048	-0.058	0.295	0.258	0.342
OC_Q5	0.353	0.225	0.517	0.669	1.000	0.116	-0.156	0.007	-0.141	-0.166	-0.010	0.017	0.347	0.056	-0.106	0.276	0.214	0.295
OC_Q6	0.267	0.366	0.096	0.040	0.116	1.000	-0.108	-0.098	0.165	0.007	0.137	0.067	0.023	0.181	-0.084	0.372	0.462	0.400
OC_Q7	0.063	0.143	0.098	-0.122	-0.156	-0.108	1.000	0.224	0.443	0.430	0.177	0.457	-0.235	0.053	0.224	0.095	0.197	0.000
OC_Q8	0.346	0.073	0.222	0.070	0.007	-0.098	0.224	1.000	0.378	0.199	0.140	0.227	0.246	0.286	0.570	0.124	0.180	0.363
OC_Q9	0.402	0.262	0.001	-0.156	-0.141	0.165	0.443	0.378	1.000	0.433	0.397	0.605	-0.025	0.358	0.454	0.381	0.350	0.454
OC_Q10	0.177	0.111	0.093	-0.055	-0.166	0.007	0.430	0.199	0.433	1.000	0.365	0.360	0.099	0.149	0.396	0.269	0.303	0.198
OC_Q11	0.199	-0.056	-0.029	-0.156	0.010	0.137	0.177	0.140	0.397	0.365	1.000	0.354	-0.040	0.430	0.322	0.385	0.316	0.330
OC_Q12	0.217	0.093	-0.045	0.085	0.017	0.067	0.457	0.227	0.605	0.360	0.354	1.000	-0.296	0.090	0.210	0.190	0.271	0.274
OC_Q13	0.384	0.122	0.379	0.543	0.347	0.023	-0.235	0.246	-0.025	0.099	-0.040	-0.296	1.000	0.383	0.502	0.299	0.319	0.417
OC_Q14	0.143	0.093	0.094	0.048	0.056	0.181	0.053	0.286	0.358	0.149	0.430	0.090	0.383	1.000	0.626	0.355	0.397	0.413
OC_Q15	0.191	-0.058	0.020	-0.058	0.106	-0.084	0.224	0.570	0.454	0.396	0.322	0.210	0.502	0.626	1.000	0.310	0.379	0.460
OC_Q16	0.315	0.287	0.327	0.295	0.276	0.372	0.095	0.124	0.381	0.269	0.385	0.190	0.299	0.355	0.310	1.000	0.644	0.644
OC_Q17	0.406	0.289	0.251	0.258	0.214	0.462	0.197	0.180	0.350	0.303	0.316	0.271	0.319	0.397	0.379	0.644	1.000	0.596
OC_Q18	0.314	0.291	0.365	0.342	0.295	0.400	0.000	0.363	0.454	0.198	0.330	0.274	0.417	0.413	0.460	0.644	0.596	1.000

Figure 4: Organizational Commitment Correlation Matrix

The figure above shows how all 18 items/questions correlate with its self and others, with each item correlating with its self perfectly with a value of 1 were item number 18, for example, like every other item correlates perfectly with its self with the value of 1 and correlating with other items at varying ranges. A close look at the figure above will show that none of the determinants of the correlation matrix ranges up to or above .80. This, therefore, indicates that multi-collinearity would not be an issue (Field, 2018). In order to further ensure that the data obtained from the fifty respondents are adequate for the factor analysis the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test functionality was utilized in checking if the assumptions of equal variances of continuous or interval-level dependent variable exist across the 3 subscale groups is true.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.701
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	439.665
	df	153
	Sig.	.000

Table 6: KMO and Bartlett's Test

The result from the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure and Bartlett's Test above indicates the statistical significance of the obtained research data. The KMO result of 0.701 indicates the data obtained is well suited to be analysed for the purpose of this study as the KMO value of 0.701 is above 0.50 (IBM, 2020). The significance value of 0.000 indicated at the bottom of the table above depicts that the correlation matrix shown in figure 1 is factorable.

	Initial	Extraction
OC_Q1	1.000	.400
OC_Q2	1.000	.447
OC_Q3	1.000	.512
OC_Q4	1.000	.736
OC_Q5	1.000	.593
OC_Q6	1.000	.408
OC_Q7	1.000	.387
OC_Q8	1.000	.431
OC_Q9	1.000	.718
OC_Q10	1.000	.399
OC_Q11	1.000	.396
OC_Q12	1.000	.571
OC_Q13	1.000	.802
OC_Q14	1.000	.523
OC_Q15	1.000	.880
OC_Q16	1.000	.578
OC_Q17	1.000	.604
OC_Q18	1.000	.658

Figure 5: Communalities Result for the Organizational Commitment Scale

The values of the extraction communalities shown on the right-hand side of the table above indicate the proportion of variance in each of the 18 variables that can be explained by the 3 factors/subscales of the organizational commitment test/scale. As seen these values range from approximately 0.4 to 0.9 and therefore acceptable although the three items approximated (items/questions 7, 10 and 11 have the lowest values and indicate that they do not fit in as well as the other fifteen items) are slightly < 0.4 but approximate to 0.4.

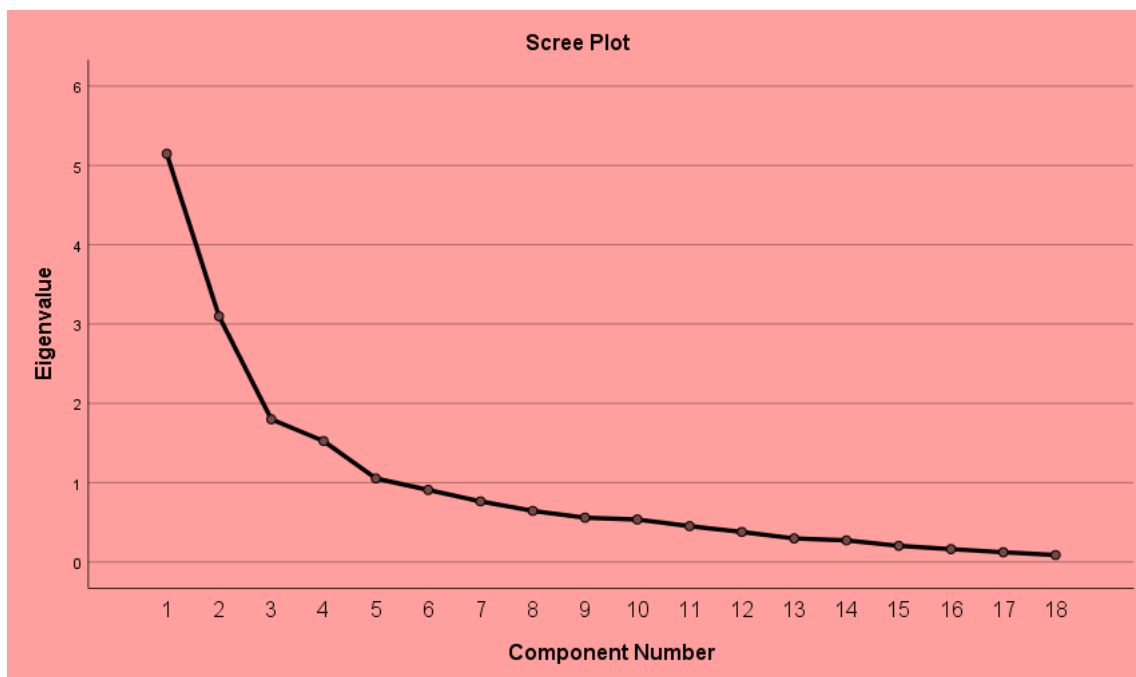


Figure 6: The Scree Plot shows that a maximum of five (5) factors can be derived

	Component		
	1	2	3
OC_Q1	.594	.156	.151
OC_Q2	.409	.227	.477
OC_Q3	.441	.562	.030
OC_Q4	.376	.771	.010
OC_Q5	.328	.682	.140
OC_Q6	.370	.145	.499
OC_Q7	.273	-.513	.222
OC_Q8	.491	-.180	-.397
OC_Q9	.634	-.539	.159
OC_Q10	.457	-.435	.015
OC_Q11	.475	-.413	.010

OC_Q12	.410	-.517	.369
OC_Q13	.494	.503	-.553
OC_Q14	.585	-.130	-.404
OC_Q15	.617	-.334	-.623
OC_Q16	.736	.107	.159
OC_Q17	.759	.040	.162
OC_Q18	.801	.126	-.010

Table 7: Component Matrix (Initial Factor loading matrix)

	Component		
	1	2	3
OC_Q1	.555	.211	.216
OC_Q2	.612	.214	-.161
OC_Q3	.654	-.228	.181
OC_Q4	.730	-.429	.136
OC_Q5	.698	-.324	.013
OC_Q6	.545	.270	-.193
OC_Q7	-.042	.620	.039
OC_Q8	.051	.188	.627
OC_Q9	.158	.774	.305
OC_Q10	.043	.551	.305
OC_Q11	.067	.540	.317
OC_Q12	.109	.748	.003
OC_Q13	.409	-.412	.682
OC_Q14	.142	.188	.684
OC_Q15	-.055	.266	.898
OC_Q16	.624	.316	.299
OC_Q17	.599	.380	.318
OC_Q18	.609	.257	.471

Figure 7: Rotated Component Matrix (Rotated Factor loading matrix)

Analyzing the factor matrix, the items did not load onto a single factor and none of the factors explained the majority of the variance. Therefore, Common Method Variance is not an issue for the data under consideration. Table 6 on the left-hand side of the page above represents the initial factor loadings for the three commitment scales of Affective, Continuance and Normative scales items, while figure 4 on the right-hand side of the page above presents the rotated factor loadings for the three subscales of the organizational commitment questionnaire. The purpose of the rotation is to transform an initial solution into a final solution which is as close to the simple structure as possible. The SPSS software achieves this by rotating the axes by mathematical computation. In the initial solution, the factors are completely mixed and all items load on both factors, whereas the rotated solution is a good approximation to a simple structure. As clearly shown in figure 4 in the previous page the rotated factor loading matrix presents new values from its previous/initial form before being

rotated as shown in table 6. The components of the rotated factor loading matrix were therefore adopted and placed into the organizational commitment questionnaire as shown in the table below.

		Factors		
	Questionnaire Items	1	2	3
Affective Commitment Scale Items:				
OC_Q1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	.555	.211	.216
OC_Q2	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	.612	.214	-.161
OC_Q3	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (R)*	.654	-.228	.181
OC_Q4	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)*	.730	-.429	.136
OC_Q5	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)*	.698	-.324	.013
OC_Q6	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.545	.270	-.193
Continuance Commitment Scale Items:				
OC_Q7	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	-.042	.620	.039
OC_Q8	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	.051	.188	.627
OC_Q9	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.	.158	.774	.305
OC_Q10	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	.043	.551	.305
OC_Q11	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.	.067	.540	.317
OC_Q12	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	.109	.748	.003
Normative Commitment Scale Items:				

OC_Q13	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)*	.409	-.412	.682
OC_Q14	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.	.142	.188	.684
OC_Q15	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	-.055	.266	.898
OC_Q16	This organization deserves my loyalty.	.624	.316	.299
OC_Q17	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	.599	.380	.318
OC_Q18	I owe a great deal to my organization.	.609	.257	.471

Table 8: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire filled with the newly Rotated Component Matrix

Factor	Eigenvalues	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.784	21.022	21.022
2	3.264	18.132	39.154
3	2.994	16.635	55.789

Table 9: Eigenvalues, Percentage of Variance and Cumulative Percentages for the Rotated Factors of the 18-Items Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

The table above shows the percentage of variance accounted for by the three factors. The three factors with the highest eigenvalues greater than 1 as shown in the scree plot figure were selected as a representation of the 3 subscales of the organizational commitment test/scale after the extracted factors were rotated by use of the Varimax method. The three factors selected cumulatively account for about 56% of the variance after the rotation of the extracted factors.

The table below shows only the highest factor loadings for the three factors. It can be seen from the table that all six items for affective commitment converged under factor 1. For the continuance commitment subscale, five out of six items converged under factor 2 (except item number 8). While the normative commitment subscale shows that only three out of six items converged under factor 3. Hence, the items for affective commitment and continuance commitment are found to be stable (except item number 8 in the continuance commitment scale). The normative commitment scale shows that three of the items did not converge or load onto factor 3.

		Factors		
	Questionnaire Items	1	2	3
Affective Commitment Scale Items:				
OC_Q1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	.555		
OC_Q2	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	.612		
OC_Q3	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (R)*	.654		
OC_Q4	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)*	.730		
OC_Q5	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)*	.698		
OC_Q6	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.545		
Continuance Commitment Scale Items:				
OC_Q7	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.		.620	
OC_Q8	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.			.627
OC_Q9	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.		.774	
OC_Q10	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.		.551	
OC_Q11	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working		.540	

elsewhere.				
OC_Q12	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.		.748	
Normative Commitment Scale Items:				
OC_Q13	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)*			.682
OC_Q14	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.			.684
OC_Q15	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.			.898
OC_Q16	This organization deserves my loyalty.	.624		
OC_Q17	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	.599		
OC_Q18	I owe a great deal to my organization.	.609		

Table 10: Factor Loadings for Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment Scales

Based on the above findings, the creation of three new variables can be done and labelled as New Affective (comprising of item numbers 1 - 6), New Continuance (comprising of item numbers 7, 9, 10, 11, and 12) and New Normative (comprising of item numbers 13, 14 and 15) Commitment Variables. Items numbers 8, 16, 17 and 18 can be dropped since they did not load onto proper factors. The factor loading from the principal component analysis above therefore indicates the various subscales greatly load together with the exceptions of Items numbers 8, 16, 17 and 18. However, for the purpose of carrying out further analysis to determine the relationship and influence the levels of emotional intelligence (EI) has on the choices of the respondents as shown on the organizational commitment scale/test. The

analysis focuses on correlating the summed up EI scores of all 50 respondents to their organizational commitment subscale scores in order to deduce hypothesis.

4.1.4. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE OC SUBSCALE SCORES

This section describes the statistical components of the organizational commitment subscale scores of all fifty respondents.

Organizational Commitment		N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation
Variables/Subscale of Organizational Commitment	Affective Commitment Score	50	10	28	19.36	4.754
	Continuance Commitment Score	50	6	30	16.16	5.068
	Normative Commitment Score	50	6	26	17.24	4.880
Perception of Organizational Commitment		50	7.33	28	17.59	14.702

Table 11: Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Commitment Subscale Scores

This table depicts that the mean score values of the organizational commitment and its subscales are reasonably high and reached values that ranged from about 16 to 19 where the possible total on each subscale cannot exceed a 30 score on each of the three organizational commitment subscales, with the affective commitment subscale having the highest mean. The study by Luchak & Gellatly (2007); Singh & Gupta (2015) affirm this as they asserted Affective Commitment (AC) to be the most consistent and strongest predictor of positive organizational outcomes, such as work effort and performance. The research will, therefore, seek to correlate the influence of emotional intelligence on these subscales as Affective commitment (AC) for example is achieved by the personal choice of an employee to remain committed to the organization worked for through some form of emotional identification with the organization (Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019). Before carrying out the correlation analysis between the organizational commitment subscales and EI scale it is important to show the frequencies of scores for both the EI scale and the organizational commitment scale to determine how many respondents scored below average.

		EI_SCORE			
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	96	2	4.0	4.0	4.0
	102	1	2.0	2.0	6.0
	112	4	8.0	8.0	14.0
	113	1	2.0	2.0	16.0
	116	3	6.0	6.0	22.0
	117	1	2.0	2.0	24.0
	118	3	6.0	6.0	30.0
	119	2	4.0	4.0	34.0
	120	2	4.0	4.0	38.0
	121	1	2.0	2.0	40.0
	122	1	2.0	2.0	42.0
	123	2	4.0	4.0	46.0
	124	2	4.0	4.0	50.0
	125	1	2.0	2.0	52.0
	127	1	2.0	2.0	54.0
	128	1	2.0	2.0	56.0
	129	3	6.0	6.0	62.0
	130	1	2.0	2.0	64.0
	132	1	2.0	2.0	66.0
	133	2	4.0	4.0	70.0
	135	2	4.0	4.0	74.0
	139	1	2.0	2.0	76.0
	141	1	2.0	2.0	78.0
	143	3	6.0	6.0	84.0
	144	2	4.0	4.0	88.0
	146	1	2.0	2.0	90.0
	151	1	2.0	2.0	92.0
	152	2	4.0	4.0	96.0
	153	1	2.0	2.0	98.0
	161	1	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Table 12: Frequency of EI Scores

The table above shows that the lowest EI score from the survey is 96 with a frequency of two and the highest EI score being 161 with a frequency of one. The table also reveals that the score of 112 has the highest frequency of four. Noting that the highest possible EI score from the 33 item questionnaire is 165 and its average being 82.5 it is, therefore, visible that none of the 50 respondents scored below

the said average score. This, therefore, depicts that all 50 respondents have relatively to highly emotionally intelligent.

Organizational Commitment Score					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	22	1	2.0	2.0	2.0
	26	1	2.0	2.0	4.0
	35	2	4.0	4.0	8.0
	36	2	4.0	4.0	12.0
	41	2	4.0	4.0	16.0
	42	1	2.0	2.0	18.0
	44	2	4.0	4.0	22.0
	46	3	6.0	6.0	28.0
	47	1	2.0	2.0	30.0
	49	1	2.0	2.0	32.0
	50	1	2.0	2.0	34.0
	51	2	4.0	4.0	38.0
	52	2	4.0	4.0	42.0
	54	5	10.0	10.0	52.0
	55	4	8.0	8.0	60.0
	57	2	4.0	4.0	64.0
	58	1	2.0	2.0	66.0
	59	2	4.0	4.0	70.0
	60	2	4.0	4.0	74.0
	61	1	2.0	2.0	76.0
	62	2	4.0	4.0	80.0
	63	2	4.0	4.0	84.0
	64	3	6.0	6.0	90.0
	65	2	4.0	4.0	94.0
	67	1	2.0	2.0	96.0
	70	1	2.0	2.0	98.0
	71	1	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Table 13: Frequency of Organizational Commitment Score

The table above shows that the lowest Organizational Commitment score from the survey is 22 with a frequency of one and the highest Organizational Commitment score being 71 with a frequency of one. The table also reveals that the score of 54 has the highest frequency of five. Noting that the highest

possible Organizational Commitment score from the 18 item questionnaire is 90 and its average being 45 it is, therefore, visible that 11 of the 50 respondents scored below the said average score.

Interpreting tables 12 and 13, therefore, depicts that although all 50 respondents are showed to be relative to highly emotionally intelligent not all 50 respondents showed relatively high levels of organizational commitment. Figures 8 – 10 show the scatter plot representation of the EI scores to the scores of the three subscale measurements of the organizational commitment.

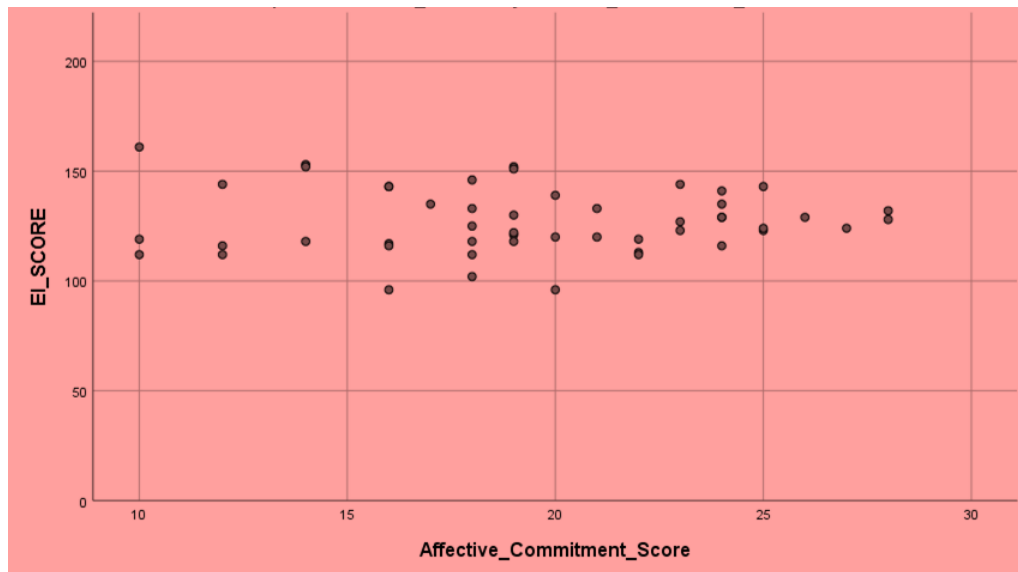


Figure 8: Scatter Plot Representation of EI Score by Affective Commitment Score

In analyzing the correlative relationship between the levels of emotional intelligence and the affective commitment of the respondents as shown in figure 8 above, it is suggestive to state that the exhibition of high levels of emotional intelligence by an employee does not transcend to a high level of affective commitment and as stated by Allen and Meyer (1990), “Employees with strong affective commitment remain because they want to”. A further look at the results from the other two subscales of organizational commitment to emotional intelligence will further cast an insight to understand the

level of influence EI has on employee's level of organizational commitment.

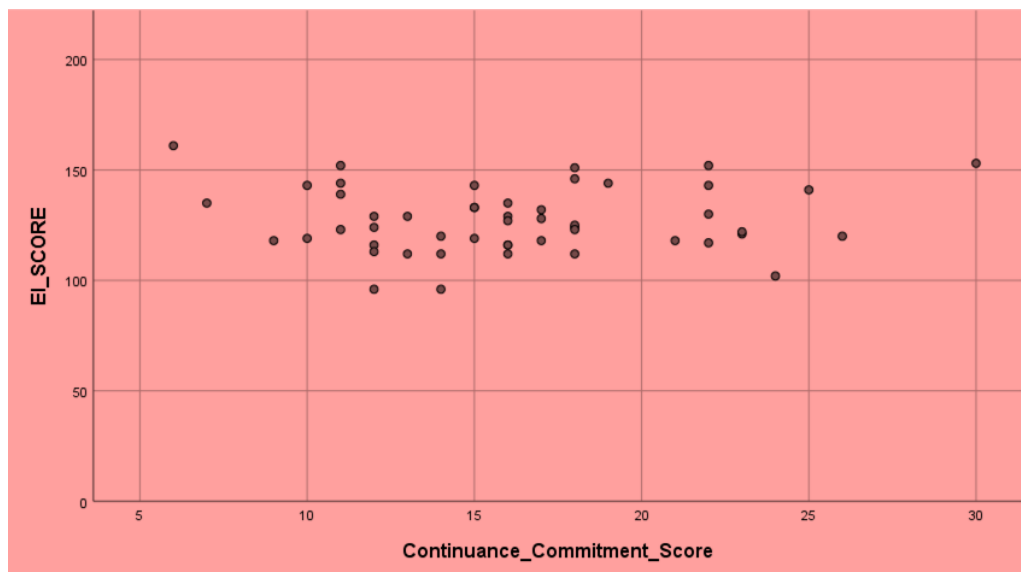


Figure 9: Scatter Plot Representation of EI Score by Continuance Commitment Score

Analysing the result shown in figure 9 above on the correlative relationship between the levels of emotional intelligence and the continuance commitment of the respondents suggests that an employee's exhibition of a high level of emotional intelligence does not guarantee a high level of continuance commitment. Employees who show to have strong or high levels of continuance commitment is solely based on their desire to meet their needs which are in most cases financially related (Allen and Meyer, 1990). This will mean that the exhibition of high or low levels of EI does not influence such needs.

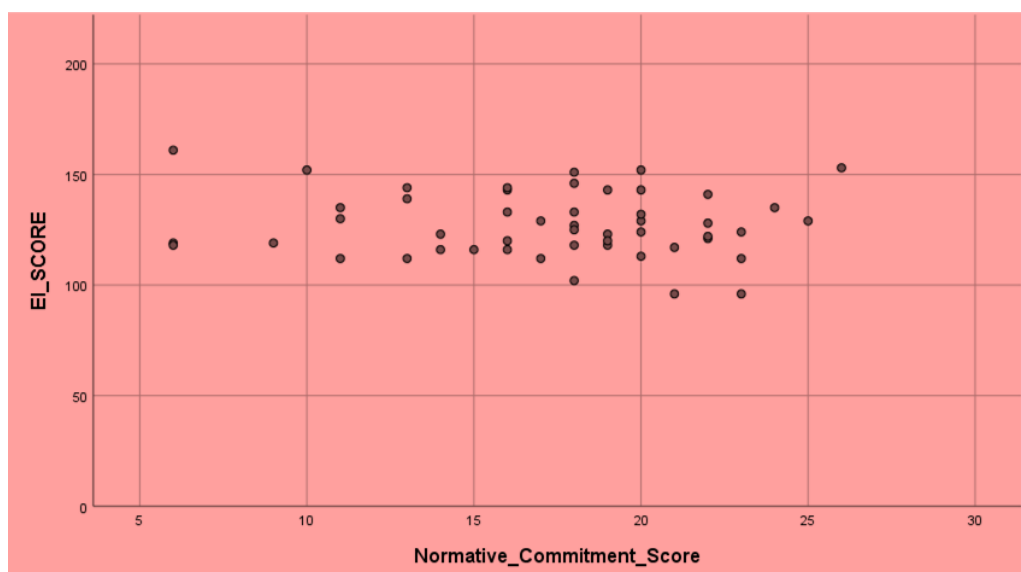


Figure 10: Scatter Plot of EI Score by Normative Commitment Score

The result shown in figure 10 above on the relationship between the levels of emotional intelligence to the normative commitment of respondents indicates an interesting similarity with the other two subscales of organizational commitment based on their relationship to emotional intelligence. The core test of the normative commitment scale is the loyalty of an employee to the organization worked for and as stated by Allen and Meyer (1990), “Employees with strong normative commitment because they feel they ought to do so”. The findings from the analysis of the relationship of emotional intelligence to the three subscales of organizational commitment, therefore, supports the argument of Solinger et al. (2008) that organizational commitment can best be understood as an attitude regarding the organization employees work for, (with the normative and continuance commitments being attitudes relating to the intention to stay or leave an organization). Solinger et al. (2008) therefore asserted that Allen and Meyer’s Organizational Commitment scale represents only a specific model for predicting employee turnover.

The next section below critically deduces and explains the findings from the quantitative analysis carried out on the research data in a bid to ascertain if a relationship exists between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment.

4.2 FINDINGS

The table below presents the given result from the Pearson correlation carried out on the EI scores of all 50 respondents to their organizational commitment sub-scaled scored to determine if and how emotional intelligence influences the items measured by the three subscales of organizational commitment.

		EI_Score	Affective Commitment Score	Continuance Commitment Score	Normative Commitment Score
EI_SCORE	Pearson Correlation	1	-.028	.025	-.091
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.847	.863	.528
Affective Commitment Score	Pearson Correlation	-.028	1	.084	.465**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.847		.562	.001

Continuance Commitment Score	Pearson Correlation	.025	.084	1	.433**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.863	.562		.002
Normative Commitment Score	Pearson Correlation	-.091	.465**	.433**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.528	.001	.002	

Table 14: Pearson Correlation of EI Scores to the three Organizational Commitment Subscales (n=50)

Given that the ** append/suffix indicates a statistically significant correlation in output at alpha = 0.01 level (2-tailed), where a negative correlation of -1 corresponds to a decreasing relationship (a perfect negative linear relationship), 0 corresponds to no relationship and a +1 corresponds to an increasing relationship (a perfect positive linear relationship). It becomes evident from the table above that no relationship can be established between levels of EI to any of the organizational commitment subscales of Affective, Continuance and Normative commitments as its correlation values range from -.028 for affective commitment, .025 for continuance commitment and -.091 for normative commitment. This finding in part achieves the objectives of this research to assess the relationship of Emotional Intelligence to an employee's intention to quit, if Emotional Intelligence affects an employee's commitment to the workplace/organization and if high levels of emotional intelligence influence employee loyalty. Interpretation from the table above further achieves the objective of this research and presents a hypothesis/theory by revealing how the factors of Affective Commitment and Continuance Commitment both significantly correlate with Normative Commitment (a measure of employee loyalty). Where the Affective Commitment Subscale measures the comfortable feeling of an employee's relationship with their work role and the organization worked for, Continuance Commitment Subscale measures an employee's recognition of the costs associated with leaving/quitting an employer (which forms and influences the intention to quit) and the Normative Commitment Subscale is used to measure the feeling of obligation to remain with an employer (this transcends to the measurement of employee loyalty). It can, therefore, be inferred from the findings of this study that an employee being happy/proud to be associated with an organization he or she works for can influence or correlates with such an employee being loyal to the organization. Also, that an organization that adequately finances an employee's needs will influence or correlates with such an employee being loyal to the organization. This type of loyalty can probably be influenced by the fear

of losing one's source of livelihood/consistent income. The analysis result is shown in Table 14, therefore, supports the argument of Solinger et al. (2008) which asserted that the Allen and Meyer's Organizational Commitment scale represents only a specific model for predicting employee turnover. This will mean that the exhibition of high or low levels of emotional intelligence by employees will have no influence on their decision to quit or leave an employer/organization as evident in the research findings. The next chapter critically discusses this by comparing the research findings in this chapter to the research literature.

CHAPTER 5

5.1. DISCUSSION

Putting in perspective the non-significant correlation of EI to the organizational commitment shown in table 14 from the previous chapter tables 15 and 16 below were created to show and compare the EI scores and organizational commitment scores for the eleven respondents who scored below the average score of 45 on the organizational commitment test.

PARTICIPANTS	EI_SCORE	OC_SCORE
Respondent_17	152	35
Respondent_22	112	41
Respondent_23	135	35
Respondent_31	143	42
Respondent_32	161	22
Respondent_33	119	26
Respondent_36	144	36
Respondent_42	118	41
Respondent_43	112	36
Respondent_45	139	44
Respondent_50	116	44

Table 15: EI Scores and OC Scores of the eleven respondents with low OC Scores

Table 15 shows for example that respondents 17, 23, 31, 32, 36, and 45 who scored very high (above 130) on the emotional intelligence test scored lowly in the organizational commitment test. To understand this further, a look at the breakdown of their summative score spread in the organizational commitment test is necessary.

PARTICIPANTS	EI_SCORE	AC_Score	CC_Score	NC_Score
Respondent_17	152	14	11	10
Respondent_22	112	10	14	17
Respondent_23	135	17	7	11
Respondent_31	143	16	10	16
Respondent_32	161	10	6	6
Respondent_33	119	10	10	6
Respondent_36	144	12	11	13
Respondent_42	118	18	17	6
Respondent_43	112	12	13	11
Respondent_45	139	20	11	13
Respondent_50	116	12	16	16

Table 16: Breakdown of EI Scores and OC Subscale Scores of the eleven respondents with low OC Scores

It came to be inferred from the information presented in tables 15 and 16 that underlining/independent factors could greatly influence an employee's organizational commitment level over and beyond a single dependent factor such as emotional intelligence. For example, an employee can be happy being associated with the organization, be emotionally intelligent but unhappy working under his or her line manager who consistently makes the workplace feel toxic for subordinate employees. Such an employee if young and single without pressing responsibilities can easily decide to look elsewhere for employment and may be classified or seen as not loyal. Also, a lot of employees who are happy to identify with the organizations they work for do so or are influenced by the people and the organization culture of their place of work. This research work was largely confined to assessing the impact of emotional intelligence to the workplace based on the use of the pre-validated scales of emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. An expansion of the research scope by means of an expanded data collection of variables such as items/questions that measure other alternate factors that influences an employee's desire to quit (such as remuneration and organizational climate) will be ideal but unrealistic for this research due to time constraint.

In linking the findings from this study to literature, it would not be out of place to state or reiterate the importance of emotional intelligence as a prerequisite for employee requirement in sectors or roles that deal primarily with customers or people requiring empathy (examples include the health care sector and the customer service role) as getting this right ensures customer loyalty, which in turn translates to the profitability of the organization. However, this phenomenon of a required high level of EI in such a sector or role does not guarantee that such persons/employees whose recruitments into organizations or roles were greatly influenced based on their high levels of EI will wish to remain within the same organization for a long time. This assertion is buttressed by the interpretation of the quantitative analysis carried out in the cause of the research study. Findings from this research study disagree with the assertions of Shahzad et al. (2010) which suggested the need to elevate the priority of Emotional Intelligence in staff recruitment /development as a strategy. The suggestion by Shahzad et al. (2010) for recruiters to prioritize EI in staff recruitment is somewhat too generalist and greatly flawed as their findings were largely based on assessing the impact of EI on job performance at the workplace. The results from the analysis carried out on the three subscales of the organizational

commitment survey utilized for this study casts doubts on the validity of the claim by Shahzad et al. (2010) as findings from the analysis of this study suggests that other factors beyond high levels of EI influences the pattern of decisions and behaviours of employees working across different organizations. The factors of elevated levels of stress as mentioned by Oginska-Bulik (2005) and work-life imbalance suggested by Kumarasamy et al. (2016) in the literature could be a contributing factor to the disparity shown in the analysis charts of the three subscales of organizational commitment, as elevated levels of stress/stressors and work-life imbalance can potentially influence an employee's decision to seek less stressful job roles or work environments that encourages work-life balance and as suggested by Oginska-Bulik (2005) in the literature, high levels of emotional intelligence only help in managing the factor of work-related stress. If the assertion of Shahzad et al. (2010) on the impact of EI on job performance were to hold, for example, it will mean that employees with high levels of EI would be willing to remain with their employers and foster collective organizational growth through continuous work/organizational commitment. Findings from this study, however, suggests otherwise. On the other hand, the submission of Bhalerao and Kumar (2016) on the relationship of EI to employee commitment correlates with the finding of this study. Although the research of Bhalerao and Kumar (2016) showed that a positive relationship/correlation existed between trait-based emotional intelligence of leaders with the commitment levels exhibited by subordinates. They, however, asserted that no correlation existed between the levels of EI of staff to their commitment towards the organizations they worked for. Bhalerao and Kumar (2016) therefore inferred that the result from their research casts doubts on a number of assumptions on the topic of 'Emotional Intelligence' and as such ended their research work with the conclusion that assessing the relationship of emotional intelligence to organizational commitment to be somewhat complicated. The stated complication in assessing this relationship is true, as the findings from the study showed that some respondents who scored less on the EI scale scored higher or presented to be more committed to the organization worked for over some other respondents who scored higher on the EI scale.

CHAPTER 6

6.1. CONCLUSION

From this study, it can be suggested that factors of needs supersede the influence of emotional intelligence on an employee's loyalty to an organization. In ascertaining the factors of needs of an employee, future research can focus on identifying and grouping these factors of need. An example would be grouping a research population by their marital status, the number of children, estimated yearly expenditure to income, etc. The analysis and findings from this research work deduced two new hypothesis/theories;

Employee Loyalty is influenced by the recognition of costs associated with leaving an employer/quitting job.

Employee Loyalty is influenced by how much the employee is happy being associated with the organization worked for.

This research work contributes to the body of knowledge on the topic of the impact of emotional intelligence to the workplace and in organizational studies by showing emotional intelligence has no significant correlation or influence to the organizational commitment levels of employees.

6.2 FUTURE RESEARCH AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Future research can be carried out at PhD level on the topic with more focus on determining how factors affecting human need/want (e.g. social and economic factors) correlate or influence the levels of organizational commitment of employees to the workplace. Further research can also be carried out at a postgraduate level to support or disprove the newly derived hypothesis/theories from this research.

Recommendations from this study to human resource teams/professionals as well as to organizations will be to foster and promote the need to build and maintain a good organizational culture while focusing on recruiting emotional intelligent individuals into the organization or carrying out training on emotional intelligence to staff, as levels of EQ can be improved on through training or conscious practice. The cost of the said emotional intelligence training can be reduced or very negligible for big

organizations if the organization recruits/hires on the human resource team personnel certified as an EI trainer. Such HR personnel will be responsible for assessing and carrying out EI training internally.

6.3 IMPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS

As a strategy, organizations through its human resource department should foster a culture of work-life balance, create a work environment that provides components/facilities or avenues to reduce the factors of stressors (an example will be the option of taking intermittent short breaks to play video games, a walk, have soft music play in the launch area or an after-work gym). While setting up a work environment such as this will incur some level of setup costs (normally a minor cost when compared to the cost of employee turnover) which will be determined by the number of staff and the types of stressor components adopted, it will, however, encourage an organizational culture of work-life balance which can potentially foster employee loyalty to the organization. Human resource teams that function in technology or consulting organization can also explore availing some members of staff the option to work remotely from home post the COVID-19 pandemic (especially nursing mothers) as a strategy to boosting organizational commitment. These stated options are proffered owing to the acknowledgement of the fact that there is no one size fit all approach in boosting how an organization is perceived by its employees. This is also in consideration of the varying cost of employee turnover for organizations based on how much employees earn.

Implementing some of these recommended activities as part of a modification to workplace policies and employee benefits will help boost employee retention and will further ensure the maintenance of a stable workforce through the reduction of employee turnover which in turn significantly saves cost for the organization. For example, a research carried out by Boushey & Glynn (2012) for the Centre for American Progress (CAP) revealed that employee turnover cost organizations 21% of such an employee's salary per annum when assessed across twenty-seven case studies for jobs that are skilled specific (with the exception of job roles for business executives and physicians). This will imply that it will cost an organization about €8,400 to replace an employee with an annual salary earning of €40,000 based on the study for CAP.

Their study also revealed that for low paying job roles (usually referred to as high turnover job roles) it cost organizations about 16% of such an employee's salary per annum to replace. This will imply that it will cost an organization €2,611 to replace an employee who earns €8.50/hour and booked on a 40-hour weekly shift. In Ireland, the survey carried out on 260 organizations with cumulative staff strength of 46,000 in 2018 by Adare Human Resource Management, reported that it cost such organizations an average of €13,000 to replace an employee (Woods, 2018).

REFLECTIVE PIECE

This research work has on a personal level exposed how a chosen methodological approach and strategy greatly influences the outlook of a thesis/research. The methodological approach and strategy adopted for this thesis influenced how the research data was analysed using the IBM SPSS software and how the results from the analysis were presented, which in turn guided the derivation of the research findings.

While embarking on this research work the researcher had a different approach map out, but with guide and continuous attentiveness to corrections given and more research work being carried out, the approach took a different turn. It started from the aims and objectives which was different from the current one to the questionnaire which took several sleepiness nights to work on

The most challenging part of the research work would be chapter 4, which turned out differently from what was imagined by the researcher, at some point the researcher became a bit confused and lost track of the research work but with guidance more understanding came and scaled through the chapter.

Research work has added to the learning style of the researcher by improving on his writing skills and research skills, these are skills that would be very helpful in a long run.

On the other hand, this study could have been undertaken more effectively if follow up interviews (one on one) was conducted after responses were obtained from the two-part survey utilized for this research, as it would have presented an opportunity to better understand the factors that influence the attitudinal behaviour of the respondents towards their levels of organizational commitment.

On a final note, the adopted quantitative approach influenced the need to have learned how to use the SPSS software, which cumulates to a tangible skill set for academic research participation.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A – Raw Survey Data Exported from the Online PsyTool Platform

[illegible]

Appendix B – EI Score and Organizational Commitment Subscale Scores for 50 Respondents

PARTICIPANTS	EI_SCORE	Affective_Commitment_Score	Continuance_Commitment_Score	Normative_Commitment_Score
Respondent_1	146	18	18	18
Respondent_2	135	24	16	24
Respondent_3	129	24	12	17
Respondent_4	117	16	22	21
Respondent_5	96	16	12	21
Respondent_6	128	28	17	22
Respondent_7	116	24	12	15
Respondent_8	123	25	11	19
Respondent_9	119	22	15	9
Respondent_10	152	19	22	20
Respondent_11	112	18	16	13
Respondent_12	130	19	22	11
Respondent_13	118	14	21	19
Respondent_14	153	14	30	26
Respondent_15	129	26	13	20
Respondent_16	124	25	18	20
Respondent_17	152	14	11	10
Respondent_18	113	22	12	20
Respondent_19	102	18	24	18
Respondent_20	120	20	26	16
Respondent_21	141	24	25	22
Respondent_22	112	10	14	17
Respondent_23	135	17	7	11
Respondent_24	129	24	16	25
Respondent_25	133	18	15	18
Respondent_26	112	22	18	23
Respondent_27	133	21	15	16
Respondent_28	132	28	17	20
Respondent_29	116	16	16	14
Respondent_30	127	23	16	18

Respondent_31	143	16	10	16
Respondent_32	161	10	6	6
Respondent_33	119	10	10	6
Respondent_34	143	16	22	19
Respondent_35	121	19	23	22
Respondent_36	144	12	11	13
Respondent_37	96	20	14	23
Respondent_38	125	18	18	18
Respondent_39	123	23	18	14
Respondent_40	144	23	19	16
Respondent_41	124	27	12	23
Respondent_42	118	18	17	6
Respondent_43	112	12	13	11
Respondent_44	151	19	18	18
Respondent_45	139	20	11	13
Respondent_46	120	21	14	19
Respondent_47	143	25	15	20
Respondent_48	122	19	23	22
Respondent_49	118	19	9	18
Respondent_50	116	12	16	16

