Chapter-II

Review of Literature

Emotional Intelligence

Research on EI is focused on establishing EI as a distinct and independent intelligence, its relationship with job performance and on how EI influence effective leadership specifically transformational and transactional leadership behavior. EI has been undoubtedly established as an independent intelligence satisfying the criteria for intelligence. However, the relationship of EI with performance is often contradictory with one research concluding a strongly significant relationship to the other finding a weak relationship between EI and job performance and same trend is reflected for EI’s effect on leadership effectiveness.

About EI

Salovey & Mayer (1990) documented a framework for EI. They traced the roots of EI to social intelligence and highlighted how the concept of emotion had been used in traditional intelligences. They explained that EI is associated with positive mental health and emotionally intelligent people are a pleasant company whereas those lacking in EI are generally maladjusted to their environment.

Mayer & Salovey (1997) explained the evolution of the concept of EI and put forth their 4 branch ability model of EI. They cited the role of EI in schools, at home, workplace and in other work settings. They also purported that EI skills can be acquired through education like other skills.

George (2000) explained the role of EI through description of four aspects of Mayer & Salovey’s model (1990) in effective leadership. The four components of EI i.e. the appraisal & expression of emotion, use of emotion to enhance cognitive processes & decision making, knowledge about emotions and management of emotions and five essential elements of effective leadership i.e. development of collective goals & objectives; instilling in others an appreciation of the importance of work activities; generating and maintaining enthusiasm; confidence, optimism cooperation and trust; encouraging flexibility in decision
making and change and establishing and maintaining a meaningful identity for an organization were studied.

**Mayer, Caruso & Salovey (1999)** conducted a research in order to identify whether EI conforms to the criteria for it to be considered as an intelligence i.e. EI must measure mental performance in terms of correct and incorrect answers, EI abilities should be correlated yet distinct from the already existing intelligences and EI must develop with age. Two studies were conducted as part of this research using Multifactor EI Scale (MEIS). Study 1 was conducted on 503 adults from diverse sources i.e. college students, corporate employees, executives etc. Results from study 1 confirmed that EI can be considered a new type of intelligence and EI was found to moderately correlate with a measure of verbal intelligence. Study 2 was conducted on 229 adolescents and the results were compared with the scores in study 1. The findings from study 2 revealed that adults scored higher on EQ than adolescents. Therefore it was concluded that EI can be considered as a full-fledged Intelligence satisfying the three point criteria.

**Sherlock (2002)** reviewed the literature and suggested the incorporation of EI into the curriculum of international education. Based on Goleman’s notion that EI can be taught and arguments and researches supporting the need for both intellectual and emotional development of students through education, the study recommended that values like open-mindedness, inclusion, respect and tolerance can be developed by propagating the development of EI in students.

**Emotional Intelligence and Performance**

**Goleman (1998)** analyzed the competency models developed by psychologists in 188 large and global organizations. He calculated the ratio of technical skills, Intelligence Quotient and EQ as contributing factors to excellent performance and found that ‘EI proved to be twice as important as others for jobs at all levels’. He also discussed the role of five components of EI (self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills) in the success of leaders.

**Cavallo (2001)** conducted the famous study at Johnson & Johnson consumer and personal care group involving 358 managers and 1about 1400 employees in offices across
the globe with an objective to identify the competencies that make a difference between high and average performers. He concluded that managers with greater ‘emotional competence’ were best performing leaders as compared to those with low EQ.

**Barchard (2003)** studied the role of EI in academic success (measured through grades achieved) of undergraduate psychology students. The study found that EI does not predict academic success and although a measure of emotional understanding was found to be related with academic success but this relationship lost ground when relevant cognitive abilities and personality characteristics were considered.

**Abraham (2004)** put forth five propositions based on the relationship between emotional intelligence competencies (self-control, resilience, social skills, conscientiousness, reliability, integrity and motivation) and performance on the job. These propositions are based on the notion that weak relationship between EI and performance reported in the past literature is because it is some of the competencies rather than the overall EQ that predict performance.

**Law, Wong & Song (2004)** conducted a study in order to identify the relationship of EI with Big Five Personality dimensions, life satisfaction, feelings of powerlessness and job performance. Two studies were conducted- study 1 examined 202 undergraduate students at a large university in Hong Kong and in study 2 216 business undergraduates were administered the measures for the aforementioned variables. The study concluded that though EI was related with Big Five Personality dimensions but was distinct from them. EI was found to be positively associated with life satisfaction and job performance but negatively associated with feelings of powerlessness.

**Nel & Villiers (2004)** studied the relationship between EI and job performance of 135 call center agents working in client services, sales and administration in a life insurance company in Western Cape, South Africa. The study confirmed a strong positive relationship between EI and job performance in call center. Further, out of all emotional competencies, self-management and self-confidence contributed largely to the effective job performance.

**Zeidner, Mathews & Roberts (2004)** reviewed the empirical research which supports the claims regarding importance of EI in the workplace. The study largely
considered the role of EI in personnel selection, placement, job performance and job satisfaction. They concluded that though EI does contribute to the performance and other affective outcomes but there is dearth of empirical evidence supporting the same and the claims regarding the positive relationship of EI with performance measures are generally unsubstantiated. The research regarding the role of EI is generally contradictory and the predictive validity of measures of EI may be attributed to their resemblance with personality measures.

Van Rooy, Alonso & Viswesvaran (2005) studied the role of gender differences and age in EI of 275 undergraduate students studying in a large South-eastern university. They found that females had higher levels of EI than males and age had a positive and significant association with EI.

Fariselli, Ghini & Freedman (2006) conducted a research on 405 people in USA in the age group of 22 to 70 years. They found that age has a positive and significant association with EI but the relationship is weak. They asserted that the older people have slightly higher EI.

Lopes et al. (2006) researched the relationship between EI and job performance (through factors like salary, percent merit increase, company rank), EI and ratings of interpersonal facilitation and affect and attitudes at work. Results revealed a positive and significant association between EI and percent merit increase and company rank and no link between EI and salary. EI was related to peer rated and supervisor rated indicators of interpersonal facilitation and except few these associations were found to be significant after controlling other predictors one at a time (age, gender, education, verbal ability, Big Five traits and trait effect).

Rode et al. (2007) studied direct and moderating effect of EI (measured by ability based MSCEIT) on individual performance among business undergraduates. The study concluded that controlling mental ability and personality factors, EI was found to determine only one measure of interpersonal effectiveness i.e. public speaking effectiveness. The study supported that EI has indirect effect on performance and mere possession of EI skills does not guarantee effective performance, there should be an impulse to use it also.
Ayiro (2009) examined the impact of EI of school principals and their performance among 100 principals. The schools were profiled on the basis of high or low performance. The study found a positive correlation between total EI scores and performance ratings and experiential EI was found to be the strongest predictor of performance.

Gryn (2010) studied the relationship between EI traits of 268 call center leaders and their job performance in a medical aid administration organization in Johannesburg, South Africa. The study found no significant association between overall EI and job performance of the call center leaders.

Mishra & Mohapatra (2010) researched the relationship between EI and job performance of 90 executives employed in different organizations in Delhi NCR. The results found a significant positive relationship between EI and job performance. The study also confirmed the concurrent validity of EI scale (EI test by Chadha and Singh, 2001). Also, out of various demographic variables, only work experience was found to be positively correlated with EI.

Platsidou (2010) studied the relationship between perceived EI and burnout syndrome and Job Satisfaction in 123 primary special education teachers in Greece. The findings showed that overall EI was moderately but significantly related to burnout syndrome (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment). Optimism and social skills were found to be highly correlated with burnout variables highlighting their importance in relieving burnout. However, no relationship was found between overall EI or any of EI dimensions and job satisfaction.

Zampetakis & Moustakis (2010) examined the impact of managers’ trait EI on group job satisfaction of 51 managers and 158 team members working in 11 public and semi-public organizations (hospitals, universities, research & higher education institutions) in Crete, Greece. The findings showed that managers’ trait EI was not directly related to group job satisfaction. However an indirect relationship was concluded based on positive correlation between managers’ trait EI and groups’ evaluative statements of managers’ trait EI.
O’Boyle Jr., et al. (2011) conducted meta-analysis of empirical research concerning relation among EI, Five Factor Model (FFM), cognitive ability and job performance. The study focused on identifying the association of three streams of EI (ability based models adopting objective test items, self-report measures based on four-branch model of EI and mixed models of emotional competencies) with FFM, cognitive ability and job performance. The results confirmed a positive correlation (approximately same level) between EI measured by three streams and job performance. EI and cognitive ability and four FFM were positively associated and neuroticism (one of the FFM factors) was negatively associated with EI.

Berrocal, Cabello, Castillo & Extremera (2012) investigated the role of gender differences in EI and whether age acted as a mediator in the relationship between gender and EI among university students and adults in the community. They observed that age completely mediated the relationship between gender and EI. Therefore, the role of age is more pronounced.

Bii, Lucas, Mwengi et al. (2012) investigated the relationship between age and EI of managers and whether the relationship is moderated by gender and managerial experience in educational institutions including primary, secondary and tertiary institutions. They observed that age had a positive and significant influence on EI and moderating effects of gender and managerial experience were mild and non-significant.

Kumar & Muniandy (2012) studied the EI of lecturers in a polytechnic in Malaysia and examined the impact of demographic factors like age, gender, occupational grade, work experience in the present as well as in the past job in industry. They concluded that age, experience, occupational grade and education had a significant positive influence on EI but gender and previous work experience had no impact on level of EI of lecturers.

EI and Leadership

Barling, Slater & Kelloway (2000) studied the association between EI and use of transformational leadership in managers using self-reporting measures of EI and attributional style and ratings on their transformational leadership were provided by their subordinates. They concluded that EI is associated with three dimensions of
transformational leadership i.e. idealized influence, inspirational motivation and individualized consideration. But no relationship was found between EI and transactional leadership and EI and lassiez faire style.

**Palmer et al. (2001)** in their study examined the relationship between EI and transformational leadership and observed that the ability to monitor and manage emotions in oneself as well as in others are significantly associated with inspirational motivation and individualized consideration dimensions of transformational leadership.

**Gardner & Stough (2002)** in their study proved that the five components of Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (Emotional recognition and expression, emotions direct cognition, understanding of emotions external, emotional management and emotional control) are positively correlated with four components of transformational leadership. Strong correlation between Transformational leadership and total EI scores was found and the strongest correlation between Individualized Consideration and understanding of emotions was observed.

**Sivanathan & Fekken (2002)** assessed the relationship of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning of university residence staff (as leaders) with their leadership style and effectiveness. It was found that emotionally intelligent leader were considered to be transformational in their leadership style by their subordinates and they were also more effective. However, moral reasoning was related with effectiveness rather than EI.

**Trabun (2002)** in his doctoral research studied the association between EI and leadership performance of 104 male and female US Naval Academy (USNA) midshipmen. The study found no evidence of relationship between EI and effective leadership performance. However, the study recommended that the EI abilities which formed the basis of this investigation represent an elementary framework which should guide effective leadership.

**Hayward (2005)** examined the relationship between employee performance, leadership and EI in a South African parastatal. The results varied according to two different statistical techniques employed. With linear regression analysis, a significant relationship between employee performance and emotionally intelligent and transactional leader
emerged but no significant relationship between EI and emotionally intelligent transformational leader was concluded. Simple correlation analysis revealed a weak linear relationship between EI and transactional leadership and a strong relationship between EI and Transformational leadership.

Bradberry & Su (2006) examined EI of leaders in order to identify the relationship between EI of leaders and their job performance. They used two measures of EI- one skill based i.e. Emotional Intelligence Appraisal (EIA) and other ability based i.e. MSCEIT. The study was conducted for 212 employees in three organizations- a homebuilder, a telecom company and an irrigation systems manufacturing company. The findings indicated that scores on EIA and MSCEIT were positively but not significantly related with each other. Leader EI scores on MSCEIT did not exhibit a significant relationship with their job performance whereas EI scores on EIA were found to have strong association with performance. Relationship management dimension of EI emerged a stronger predictor of leader job performance than other components and social awareness was the only EI skill that did not have any association with performance of leaders.

Kerr et al. (2006) studied relationship between EI of managers and their leadership effectiveness measured through subordinate ratings. Employing MSCEIT for measuring EI, the study found that half of the MSCEIT scores strongly predicted leadership effectiveness especially the branches in experiential EI domain but relationship between reasoning EI domain and subordinate ratings was insignificant.

Modassir & Singh (2008) investigated the relationship between EI and Transformational leadership of managers and Organizational Commitment Behavior (OCB) of followers in different industries in Goa and Daman. The study found no significant relationship between subordinates’ perception of their leader as transformational and their OCB. EI was observed to be associated with conscientiousness and altruism. However, no significant link between EI and Transformational leadership was found.

Zafra, Retamero and Landa (2008) stated that emotionally intelligent individuals are likely to emerge as leaders in a group because their leadership style is largely transformational in nature. Further they cited that for effective leadership, EI and
transformational leadership style go hand in hand i.e. one would be irrelevant without the other.

Wong, Wong & Peng (2010) examined the impact of school middle-level leaders’ (senior teachers with official leadership roles) EI on teachers’ job satisfaction in Hong Kong. Two studies were conducted- in study 1, 107 teachers were inquired about the characteristics of middle level leaders and it was concluded that majority of teachers supported the importance of EI of school middle level leaders in the success of schools. In study 2, 3866 teachers and middle level leaders were surveyed and findings revealed a significant impact of middle level leaders’ EI on teachers’ Job satisfaction.

Mwangi, Mukulu and Kabare (2011) concluded that EI has a significant role in transformational leadership in a study conducted for Kenyan public universities. They found that eight out of fifteen EI skills (in Bar-On EQi) were related with transformational leadership behavior.

Mir & Abbasi (2012) for academic leaders in higher education sector in Pakistan established that EI forms the core of transformational leadership behavior and all the components of EI are significantly related to transformational leadership. Self-awareness and motivation emerged the strongest predictors of transformational leadership.

Teaching Effectiveness

Considerable research has been done regarding effective teaching in the field of education. Majority of the research on teaching effectiveness is regarding factors influencing effective teaching and student ratings. A new perspective of practice of transformational leadership behaviour by teachers in the class as an approach to effective teaching has also been explored. However, contrasting results have been found regarding impact of transformational leadership by teachers and their effectiveness.

About Teaching Effectiveness

Marsh (1987) researched students’ evaluations of TE in higher education and conducted construct validity and factor analysis of students’ evaluations and self-evaluations
by faculty members. The study led to the development of Students’ Evaluations of Educational Quality (SEEQ) scale.

Cashin (1995) based on the review of literature from 1971 to 1995 regarding student ratings highlighted the reliability, validity, generalizability and stability of student ratings. He supported that the data about teaching can be obtained only through student ratings and they form an integral part of evaluation of teaching effectiveness.

Jackson et al. (1999) examined whether TE factors in SPTE (Students’ Perception of Teaching Effectiveness), developed in 1975 by liberal Arts & Science Teaching Improvement Committee at Wichita State University, hold for the data in 1999. The results of Confirmatory factor analysis supported the existence of same factors as those in SPTE (1975) i.e. six primary and two second order factors (rapport with students, course value, course organization & design, fairness of grading, difficulty, and workload). Also, the comparisons with other measures of TE confirmed SPTE to be comprehensive and applicable in variety of university settings.

Kulik (2001) based on review of research work regarding student ratings concluded that student ratings overlap other measures of TE namely, learning measures, student comments, and expert observations and alumni ratings. He also suggested high correlation among student ratings, examination scores and classroom observations and student ratings must be consulted with respective teachers in order to improve effectiveness in teaching. He also highlighted some studies related to the criticism of student ratings.

Faranda & Clarke III (2004) conducted in-depth interviews with students aimed at exploring the characteristics of an excellent professor. The study found 5 leading features-rapport, delivery, fairness, knowledge & credibility, organization & preparation. The study also revealed some attributes highlighted by students; these include empathy, communication, personal style, approachability and accessibility.

Berk (2005) reviewed 12 possible sources for measuring TE i.e. peer ratings, self-evaluation, videos, student interviews, alumni ratings, employer ratings, administration ratings, teaching scholarship, teaching awards, learning outcome measures and teaching portfolios. He concluded that student ratings are by far the most commonly used measure of
TE and TE cannot be accurately depicted by a single method. Therefore, he suggested using a combination of techniques for measuring TE accurately.

Gursoy & Umbreit (2005) studied the dimensions of students’ evaluations of TE at School of Hospitality Business Management, Washington State University. They identified four underlying factors in the rating scale i.e. organization, workload, instruction and learning. The study concluded that three factors (students’ perception of instructors’ organization, workload and instructional abilities) had the strongest impact on students’ perception of learning.

Bartram & Bailey (2009) studied the perceptions and expectations regarding ‘effective teaching practice’ among international and national students in UK at a single university. The study found that students from both backgrounds converge on similar views on what constitutes effective teaching i.e. teaching skills, personal attributes, and relationship with students and knowledge. Teaching skills was the most preferred characteristic for effective teaching followed by personal attributes and relationship with students, but knowledge was not much emphasized. Students were found to stress upon the mentor/guide role of the teacher.

Delaney et al. (2010) conducted an open-ended online survey of 17000 undergraduate and graduate students enrolled in both regular and distance courses at Memorial University of New Foundland in 2008. The students were asked to shortlist the characteristics they believe are important for effective teaching. The study found nine characteristics reflected in students’ answers and were consistent across on-campus and distance means of delivery- respectful, knowledgeable, approachable, engaging, communicative, organized, responsive, professional and humorous. The only difference for two modes was in greater emphasis by distance course students for communication attributed to lack of face to face interaction with the instructor. It was established that these nine factors were in accordance with the nine ethical principles in university teaching by Murray. The study revealed the implication of relationships in teaching and learning as students stressed upon the respectful quality of instructors.

Kelly (2012) suggested that since effective teaching is multi-faceted, students’ evaluations of teaching are dependent on many factors which may not necessarily be directly
related with teaching such as length of the course, class size, age & gender of instructor and even factors like student perceptions of what their final grade will be. The study concluded from review of past research that SET scores and student grades are positively related (Marsh & Roche, 2000; Olivares, 2001; Griffin, 2004). The study also highlighted the probability that the correlation between grades and SET scores may be attributed to student behavior reflected in their interest in the subject, motivation to work hard, give higher evaluations and earn better grades.

**Teaching Effectiveness and Leadership**

Crowther & Olsen (1997) as part of research project titled ‘Teachers as Leaders’ sponsored by Australian government conducted a study with an objective of identifying the distinctive qualities of 15 teachers working in socioeconomically disadvantaged schools and have proved to be highly effective. The results supported the notion of transformational leadership practices by those teachers and led to the formation of a framework for teacher leadership which highlighted five features of effective teachers- articulates clear views of a better world, models trust and sincerity, confronts structural barriers, builds networks of support and nurtures a culture of success.

Andrews & Crowther (2002) put forth the concept of teacher leadership and parallel leadership based on research encompassing four phases and focusing on teacher leadership, teacher-principal relationships and the role of principal in fostering teacher leadership in schools. Phase 1 and 2 research resulted in conceptualization of framework for Teachers as Leaders. With Phase 3 research emerged the concept of Parallel Leadership and the study finally concluded that parallel leadership has implications for upholding success in schools and rests equal responsibility for the same with teacher leadership and principal leadership.

Bass et al. (2003) studied the impact of transformational and transactional leadership styles of platoon leaders and sergeants in US military on unit potency & cohesion and unit performance. The results showed that both styles had positive correlation with unit performance and cohesion. Also, unit potency was found to mediate the effects of leadership on performance.
**Harris & Muijs (2003)** explored the meanings of teacher leadership, how the field is widely researched in the developed countries in US and UK. On the basis of review of existing literature they highlighted the benefits of teacher leadership, the barriers to the development of teacher leadership and how can the concept be further augmented.

**Noland (2005)** in his doctoral research examined the relationship between Transformational Teacher Leadership (TTL) and student outcomes (i.e. learner empowerment, student satisfaction, student motivation and learning) among 117 students studying multi-section introductory communication course at a Mid-Western Liberal Arts University. The findings supported a positive relationship between the two study variables.

**Pounder (2005)** conducted the famous Hong Kong study wherein he studied the relationship between transformational classroom leadership dimensions (based on TL components of Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation and Individualized consideration) and classroom leadership outcomes (measured through three factors i.e. ability of the teacher to generate extra effort by students, students’ perception of their instructors effectiveness and students satisfaction with their teachers). The study done at Business School of Lingan University in Hong Kong with 285 BBA final year students studying Strategic Management course found a positive and significant correlation between transformational classroom leadership dimensions and classroom leadership outcomes.

**Pounder (2006)** explored the relationship between teacher leadership and TL concepts. Adding to the existing literature, he put forth the notion of ‘fourth wave of teacher leadership’, a more comprehensive approach to teaching where transformational leadership behavior characterizes the teacher leader in the classroom. He recommended that this relationship be empirically tested and at the same time research is needed to confirm whether a classroom is comparable to an organization as proposed by researchers in the past (Cheng, 1994; Luechauer & Shulman, 2002) so that TL outcomes be considered to hold in the context of a classroom.

**Frost & Roberts (2009)** presented a concept of teacher leadership at 33rd Collaborative Action Research Network International Conference Campus of Athens College/Psychico College, Athens, Greece as adopted in a large network of over 600 teachers titled as HertsCam in Hertfordshire, UK. In HertsCam, teachers join programs as
part of teacher-led development work, a program based on action research and targeted towards school improvement and teacher development. They represented how the concept of teacher leadership formed an integral part of the teachers’ development projects at HertsCam.

Bolkan and Goodboy (2009) studied the impact of TL practiced by instructors in college classrooms on student learning outcomes, student participation and students’ perceptions of instructor credibility. The findings revealed a moderate to strong relationship between instructors’ TL style and student learning outcomes (with dimensions of cognitive learning, affective learning, state motivation and communication satisfaction), student participation and students’ perceptions of instructor credibility (with factors- competence, trustworthiness and goodwill).

Bolkan, Goodboy & Griffin (2011) investigated the association between students’ perceptions of their teachers’ practice of Intellectual Stimulation (IS) (measured in terms of interactive teaching style, challenging students and encouraging independent thought) and their intrinsic motivation. At the same time the study identified the relationship between IS and student approaches to studying (deep, strategic and surface). The study concluded that IS practice of teachers motivates students intrinsically and as a result students adopt deep and strategic approaches to learning. Challenging students emerged the only dimension of IS with direct impact on intrinsic motivation of students.

Harrison (2011) studied the transformational and transactional leadership behavior of teachers and its impact on student outcomes for the graduate students enrolled in online leadership program at Gonzaga University, Spokane, Washington and Regent University, Virginia Beach, Virginia. The findings revealed that transformational leadership behavior of instructors is a better predictor of student outcomes (measured through cognitive learning, affective learning, perceptions of instructor credibility and communication) than transactional leadership behavior.

Shah, Rahman & Ithnain (2011) estimated the relationship between students’ performance and TL behavior of the class lecturers in a community college in Johor, Malaysia. The findings support no relationship between TL and students’ performance (measured through Combined Grade Point Average score i.e. CGPA), test competence and
time management. However, TL was found to be significantly associated with academic competence.

Tsai et al. (2012) identified the gap between SET (Student Evaluation of Teaching) scores and students’ achievement. They put forth the concept of teacher leadership behavior (especially transformational) as a fundamental constituent of teaching evaluation measure. They conducted a study on 30 students in a business class at University of Incarnate Word in USA and found a moderate positive relationship between four components of TL and student engagement and satisfaction.

Emotional Intelligence and Teaching Effectiveness

Haskett & Bean (2005) studied the relationship between EI Competencies and the Seven Principles for Good practice in Undergraduate Education (Chickering & Gramson, 1987). The study was conducted among two categories of teachers in same university- 86 teachers who had been awarded for excellence in teaching and 200 faculty members who had not been awarded. The study found that not all but some EI competencies were positively and directly related to the principles i.e. interpersonal skills, adaptability. They recommended that EI can play an important role in improving teaching.

Mohamadkhani (2010) examined the role of EI based leadership in improving TE in a study of 351 faculty members in Islamic Azad University (IAU) Zone 8, with 10 campuses in Tehran. The study identified 10 major components of Emotionally Intelligent Leadership (EIL) and found them to be positively correlated with faculty effectiveness. A model showing various elements of EIL was proposed with the 10 factors- self leadership, moral trust, conscientiousness, flexibility, participation, empowerment, capacity building, communication and motivation.

Organizational Commitment

Major part of the research on Organizational commitment is focused on identifying the factors (antecedents) which contribute towards organizational commitment and the outcomes of organizational commitment. Organizational factors such as job satisfaction, job involvement, perceived organizational support, leadership style or approach, organizational culture, organizational justice are some of the most commonly researched upon antecedents
of organizational commitment. In addition, personal characteristics such as age, gender, education, tenure etc. are also found to have impact on organizational commitment. Also, emotional intelligence is considered as another antecedent in this study and an attempt is made to identify its impact on organizational commitment.

**Antecedents and consequences of organizational Commitment**

Shore & Martin (1989) investigated the differential association of job satisfaction and OC to two outcomes i.e. turnover intentions and job performance of bank tellers and hospital professionals. The findings support that OC is a stronger predictor of employees’ intentions to stay than job satisfaction and job satisfaction was more strongly related with supervisory ratings of performance than OC for professionals as well as bank tellers. The study supports the notion that organizational and job related attitudes are related to organizational and job outcomes respectively.

Meyer et al. (2002) conducted a meta-analysis in order to identify relationship among three dimensions of organizational commitment and relationship between affective, continuance and normative commitment and variables classified as antecedents, correlates and consequences in Meyer & Allen’s (1990) model. The results indicate that the three forms of commitment are related but distinguishable from one another as well as from the correlates i.e. job satisfaction, job involvement and occupational commitment. Demographic variables were found to have a minor role in the development of organizational commitment but work experiences showed a strong relationship especially with affective commitment. Perceived organizational support exhibited the strongest positive correlation with affective commitment and a strong correlation was found between affective commitment and various forms of organizational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) and transformational leadership. Finally, affective commitment showed the strongest positive correlation with desirable work behavior followed by normative commitment. Continuance commitment was found to be unrelated with desirable work behavior.

Chughtai & Zafar (2006) conducted a research aiming to identify whether selected personal characteristics, components of job satisfaction and the two dimensions of organizational justice i.e. distributive and procedural justice significantly explained variance in the organizational commitment of 125 full time Pakistani university teachers at Lahore,
Islamabad/Rawalpindi and Peshawar. They also examined the impact of organizational commitment on two organizational outcomes—job performance and turnover intentions. The results indicated that personal characteristics, facets of job satisfaction and the two dimensions of organizational justice as a group were significantly related to organizational commitment of teachers. Individually, distributive justice and trust in management emerged the strongest correlates of organizational commitment. Also, OC was found to be negatively correlated with turnover intentions and positively to a self-report measure of performance.

Little (2007) examined the relationship between the demographic variables—ethnicity, marital status, current annual salary, age, years in present position, highest degree earned and alumni status and organizational commitment among senior women administrators at National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) division IAA member institutions across America. The study concluded that current annual salary, age and alumni status were significantly related to affective commitment, ethnicity was significantly related to normative commitment and alumni status to continuance commitment.

Saqer (2009) researched the effect of leadership style, in the form of full range leadership theory i.e. including transformational, transactional and laissez faire styles on three dimensions of organizational commitment namely, affective, continuance and normative commitment in UNRWA staff in Gaza, West bank, Jordan, Syria and Lebanon. The research yielded a stronger positive relationship between perceived transformational leadership style and organizational commitment than transactional style. A negative correlation was found between laissez faire style and organizational commitment.

Colakoglu, Culha & Atay (2010) conducted a research in order to analyze the effect of perceived organizational support on dimensions of organizational commitment, the effect of job satisfaction on dimensions of organizational commitment, the effect of perceived organizational support (POS) on job satisfaction and the mediating role of job satisfaction on the relationship between POS and dimensions of organizational commitment in hotel industry employees in Turkey. The conclusions supported a significant positive effect of POS on both job satisfaction and affective, normative and continuance commitment and job satisfaction had a partially mediating role between POS and dimensions of organizational commitment.
Sonia (2010) studied the relationship among job satisfaction, motivation and organizational commitment of technical employees at three levels of (top, middle and entry) in top 10 IT multinational companies. The study found a significant positive correlation between job satisfaction and affective and normative commitment and negative correlation with continuance commitment. Out of the various factors constituting the job satisfaction scale, the factors with highest correlation with affective commitment were related to salary, benefits, fair treatment, opportunity for advancement and supervision. Factors with moderate correlation were appreciation (from management), interest (from intrinsic aspects of job), job security and intrinsic aspects of job (excluding ease). Items with lowest correlation were working conditions (excluding hours), social aspects of job and communication.

Dixit & Bhati (2012) examined the influence of employee commitment on sustained productivity in auto-component industry in India. The findings revealed a positive association between the three components of OC and sustained productivity of the organization. A high degree of correlation was observed (with r approaching +1) between the three independent variables (affective, continuance and normative commitment) and a dependent variable (sustained productivity).

Ghina (2012) examined the influence of corporate culture on organizational commitment of employees at civil Government organizations in Indonesia. Four dimensions of corporate culture were studied- team work, communication, reward & recognition and training & development. The results proved that the four dimensions were positively associated with on organizational commitment.

Kanchana & Panchanatham (2012) studied relationship between demographic variables like gender, age, job position, psychological variables like role clarity, job satisfaction and organizational commitment among employees in Tamil Nadu papers limited at Kagidapuram, Karur district. The analysis of a sample of 500 employees showed a significant relationship between demographic and psychological variables and organizational commitment. Also, the study purported that greater role clarity and high levels of job satisfaction result in greater commitment among employees. Job satisfaction was also found to influence components of organizational commitment.
**Kumar & Eng (2012)** examined the impact of OC on turnover intention in top level to low management level employees of a hotel in Penang, Malaysia. The study of 278 employees confirmed a negative correlation i.e. employees with strong commitment to the organization have low turnover intention and vice-versa.

**Mohamed, Kader & Anisa (2012)** studied the relationship between job satisfaction, organizational trust and organizational commitment in two private banking organizations in Tiruchirappalli. The results revealed that job satisfaction is positively related to organizational trust and the three components of organizational commitment.

**Qaisar et al. (2012)** explored the impact of the three components of OC on performance of police officers in Islamabad (Pakistan). The results showed a significant effect of OC on officers’ performance where affective commitment exerting the strongest influence on performance followed by normative and continuance commitment.

**Rastegar & Aghayan (2012)** investigated the association between organizational culture and organizational commitment in a training and education organization in a city of Iran. The results revealed that supportive and innovative culture were positively correlated with organizational commitment but correlation between bureaucratic culture and organizational commitment is low.

**Rehman et al. (2012)** studied the relationship between transactional and transformational leadership styles (Independent variables) and organizational commitment (dependent variable) in academic and administrative staff in Pakistan. A positive relationship was found between both styles of leadership and organizational commitment but transformational leadership had slightly stronger impact on organizational commitment.

**Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Commitment**

**Cichy et al. (2007)** explored the relationship between EI and OC among private club board and committee volunteer members using Cichy’s model of EI with three dimensions- IN, OUT and RELATIONSHIPS. The results conclude a strong association between EI and affective commitment, a negative relationship between EI and continuance commitment and a weak relationship between EI and normative commitment.
Rangriz & Mehrabi (2010) probed the association between EI, OC and performance of employees at Iranian Red Crescent Societies (IRCS) and whether managers’ EI had an impact on employees’ OC and performance. The findings indicate a significant correlation between employees’ EI and OC and their performance. However, no impact of managers’ EI on employees’ commitment and performance was observed. Also, based on gender, no significant difference was found between EI, OC and performance.

Aghdasi, Kiamanesh & Ebrahim (2011) analyzed the direct effects of emotional intelligence on occupational stress, job satisfaction and organizational commitment on 234 employees in an Iranian organization. The results indicated the emotional intelligence did not have any direct or indirect effect on occupational stress, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Khalili (2011) investigated the correlation between EI and OC of 142 employees of small and medium enterprise in private sector in Iran. The findings show a significant relationship between overall EI and OC. The two EI competencies i.e. self-management and social awareness were found to have strong and positive influence on employee’s obligation to the organization. Self-awareness and relationship management (the abilities of EI) exhibited positive but not significant impact on employees’ OC.

Moradi & Ardahaey (2011) identified a significant role of EI in determining OC. Their study concluded that a high level of EI was associated with moderate level of OC which may be attributed to the effect of moderating variable(s) such as job satisfaction.

Ghorbani & Sani (2012) examined the influence of EI on OC of personnel in Salehieen finance and credit institute. The study concluded a positive and significant relationship between EI and OC of employees.

Mohamadkhani & Lalardi (2012) studied the relationship between EI and OC of the hotel staff in 5 star hotels of Tehran, Iran. The findings support a high positive correlation between EI and OC. However, the results differed for the various dimensions of EI and OC i.e. a highly positive significant relationship was found between emotional self-awareness and maintaining membership component, a negative relationship between emotional self-management and putting extra efforts as a member and no relationship
between social awareness and relationship management group and 3 components of OC emerged from the research.

**Negoescu (2012)** examined the influence of EI on OC and employee working behavior in highly competitive environment. The findings showed a positive impact of EI on OC and positive work behavior in highly challenging environment. The study supported the notion that emotionally intelligent individuals are capable of surmounting the difficulties posed by the competitive work environment.

**Nikkheslat et al. (2012)** explored the relationship between EI and OC and JS. In addition job satisfaction’s role as a mediator between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment in a healthcare organization was studied. The results revealed a positive impact of emotional intelligence on organizational commitment and confirmed a positive mediating role of JS between EI and OC.

**Nordin (2012)** conducted a research to identify whether leadership behavior and EI influence augment OC among academic staff at a higher learning institution i.e. Universiti of Teknologi MARA (UiTM). The results support a positive but moderate correlation between EI, leadership behavior and OC. The statistics proved the strongest and exceptional contribution of transactional leadership to explain OC and confirmed EI and leadership behavior as the impending antecedents of OC.

**Sarboland (2012)** studied the relationship between EI and OC of employees in the tax affairs offices in Ardebil province of Iran and proved a significant affiliation between EI dimensions (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) and OC but the strength of association various dimensions of OC varied.

**Antony (2013)** investigated the impact of EI on organizational commitment and OCB among employees working at FCI OEN Connectors, Cochin, Kerela. The findings prove a positive relationship between emotional intelligence, organizational commitment and organization commitment behavior. The study recommended that a moderate level of emotional intelligence is vital for better commitment towards one’s organization and to go an extra mile in performing one’s duties.
Job Involvement

The empirical research on job involvement mainly related to the antecedents and consequences of job involvement and the role of emotional intelligence in job involvement.

Emotional Intelligence and Job Involvement

Research work on the role emotional intelligence in determining job involvement is limited and there are very few studies which focus on examining the relationship between these constructs. Some of the important ones are explained below:

Carmeli (2003) researched the relationship between emotional intelligence and work attitudes (career commitment, job involvement, affective commitment, continuance commitment, job satisfaction, work-family conflict), work behavior (altruistic behavior or organizational citizenship behavior i.e. OCB) and work outcomes (job performance, withdrawal intention from organization) among senior managers as Chief Financial Officers in local government authorities in Israel. The results indicate a positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, affective commitment, career commitment, OCB, control of work-family conflict and job performance; no relationship between emotional intelligence and continuance commitment, job involvement and a negative relationship between emotional intelligence and withdrawal intention from the organization.

Najafpour (2008) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and job involvement with moderating factors such as gender and age in a manufacturing company located in Penang Island. The results indicated that emotional intelligence dimensions of regulation of emotion (ROE) and use of emotion (UOE) are positively related to job involvement and dimensions of self emotional appraisal (SEA) and others’ emotional appraisal (OEA) have no relationship with job involvement. Further, it was concluded that ROE had a positive effect on job involvement with moderating effect of gender and age.

Ravichandran, Arasu & Kumar (2011) conducted a research in order to identify the relationship between emotional intelligence and work engagement behavior of IT and ITES employees. The results indicated a positive but weak association between overall emotional intelligence and overall work engagement behavior. A weak correlation was
attributed by the researchers to the reason that emotional intelligence is not the only factor in influencing the work engagement behavior of employees.

**Akintayo & Babalola (2012)** undertook a research to describe the relationship between emotional intelligence and workers’ behavior (in terms of job performance effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment and job involvement) among workforce in industrial organizations in Nigeria. The findings revealed a positive association between emotional intelligence and all constructs of workers’ behavior.

**Judeh (2013)** examined the effect of emotional intelligence on retention and the moderating role of job involvement among employees working in hotels and tourism corporations listed in Amman Stock Exchange in Jordan. The findings reveal that retention was related to emotional intelligence and job involvement acted as a moderator on the relationship between emotional intelligence and retention.

### Job Involvement – Antecedents and Outcomes

Research supports the notion that highly involved employees exhibit greater work or job satisfaction, job performance and effort, organizational commitment and fewer instances of absenteeism and voluntary turnover. Various studies sustaining the aforementioned consequences of job involvement are:

**Baba (1979)** investigated the impact of two antecedents of job involvement namely individual difference factors (need for achievement, locus of control) and situational factors (job scope and participation in decision making) and the impact of job involvement on job related effort in employees working in communication industry in Montreal. No relationship between demographic factors and job involvement was found and factors of internal locus of control and high need for achievement were found to be positively related to job involvement and so was job scope and participation in decision making. Job involvement exhibited a significant positive relationship with job related effort i.e. highly involved employees exerted greater job related effort.

**Pathak (1983)** conducted a research to investigate the relationship between job involvement and need satisfaction of bank employees in four major public sector banks in India. Only one factor emerged as an important determinant of job involvement i.e.
“recognition for good work done” implying that highly involved employees were the ones whose need for recognition was fulfilled. But job involvement and overall need satisfaction did not exhibited strong relationship with job involvement.

**Fletcher (1998)** in her doctoral research studied the impact of organizational commitment, job involvement and organization culture on employee voluntary turnover process of 574 managerial, sales and service employees in a large south-western retail organization. The results establish a significant negative correlation of organizational commitment, job involvement and organization culture with voluntary turnover.

**Chughtai (2008)** studied the impact of job involvement on in role job performance and OCB of full time faculty members teaching in five major cities of Pakistan (Lahore, Islamabad/Rawalpindi, Peshawar, Karachi and Quetta). The results support job involvement as an important determinant of in-role job performance and a significant positive relationship between job involvement and OCB. Further, it was found that job involvement exhibits both direct as well as indirect (through enhancing organizational commitment) impact on in-role performance.

**Lambert (2008)** explored the impact of job involvement on job stress, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, life satisfaction, turnover intentions, family on work conflict and work on family conflict among correctional staff in a Midwestern state correctional institution. The study concluded that job involvement had a significant impact on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and both forms of work-family conflict and no direct relationship with job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

**Uzondu (2009)** researched the role of job dissatisfaction resulting from the perceived levels of low job involvement in determining the withdrawal behaviors (described in terms of absence and lateness to work) of public service employees in three states namely Abia, Anambra and Imo of Nigeria. The findings indicate that perceived low levels of job involvement act as predictors of absenteeism and lateness i.e. individuals with low job involvement were associated with higher absenteeism and lateness to work.

**Ekmecki (2011)** analyzed the effect of job involvement on organizational commitment of employees at two Multi-National Companies (MNCs) in Turkey. The
research findings ascertain organizational commitment as a consequence of job involvement with males more committed to their organizations and more involved in their jobs than females. However, no such relationship was found between job involvement and marital status, education level and tenure.

Bhatia, Deep & Sachdeva (2012) studied the relationship between job involvement and organizational effectiveness among employees at Punjab National Bank. The research inferred a direct relationship between job involvement and organizational effectiveness through employees’ working style, approach towards the attainment of organizational goals, quality improvement, acquisition of new talent and skills etc.

Ho, Oldenburg, Day & Sun (2012) studied job involvement as a mediator of the influence of work values on organizational commitment of 1047 Taiwanese nurses. The findings indicate that work values are positively related to job involvement and organizational commitment and job involvement is positively associated with organizational commitment. The study recommended enhancing organizational commitment through increased job involvement.

Islam et al. (2012) examined the relationship between job involvement and in role performance with three dimensional organizational commitment as a mediating factor. The study conducted in the educational sector in Pakistan yielded positive association between job involvement and in role performance where organizational commitment function as a perfect mediator enhancing this relationship with normative and affective components acting as mediating variables barring any role of continuance commitment dimension.

Omoniyi & Adedapo (2012) examined the role of job involvement and organizational commitment as determinants of job performance in all thirty-three educational resource centers’ employees servicing Oyo state government in Nigeria. The study revealed a significant relationship between job involvement and job performance but association between organizational commitment and job performance was found to be non-significant.

Sheikh, Newman & Azzeh (2012) examined the moderating role of individually held cultural values in the relationship between transformational leadership behavior of
supervisors and job involvement of their followers in 10 organizations in UAE. Transformational leadership was found to have a positive and significant impact on job involvement of followers and cultural value orientations moderated the relationship.

**Asil, Doostar & Karimi (2013)** confirmed a significant positive relationship between Job Involvement and organizational commitment with organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in employees at Hajj and pilgrimage organization of East Azerbaijan province of Iran.

**Javed & Farooqi (2013)** examined the relationship of transformational leadership style to followers’ perception of well-being on job satisfaction and the mediating role of perceived work characteristics was also studied for banking sector leaders and their subordinates in Gujrat, Pakistan. Significant positive influence of transformational leadership style of leaders was observed on perception of meaningful work and job involvement. Further, followers’ perception of meaningful work was found to mediate the relationship between transformational leadership style and job satisfaction.
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