Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Employees’ Performance and Organizational Commitment: A Case Study of Dangote Flour Mills Workers

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Abstract

The ability to recognize our feelings and those of others and manage emotions well in ourselves is the major contributing factor to employees’ performance and organizational commitment. Emotional intelligence is relevant for predicting organizational commitment and employees’ work performance because most jobs require the ability to manage emotions. The objective of the study is to examine the impact of emotional intelligence on organizational commitment and employees’ performance in the manufacturing industry. Descriptive design was adopted for the study. 206 questionnaires were randomly administered to respondents out of which 120 were returned that were used for analysis. Regression analysis was used to analyse the collected data.

The study revealed that there was a significant relationship between employees’ emotional intelligence, organizational commitment, and their performance. The coefficient of determination between EI and organizational commitment was 56.90%. Emotional intelligence accounted for 27.90% of the variation in employees’ performance.

Manager’s EI and organizational commitment were not significantly positively related. Hence, it is recommended that organizations should require new employees to participate in an organizational socialization programme that will include an emotional intelligence test to evaluate - the employees in order to
make up for the lack of experience of new employees which will help them increase their performance.

**Keywords:** Emotional Intelligence, Organizational Commitment, Employees’ Performance, Interpersonal relations.

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### 1. INTRODUCTION

The construct of Emotional Intelligence (EI) is one of the most frequently researched topics in organizational study. EI has been found to be an important predictor of various enviable organizational outcomes, such as job performance, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviour, and organizational commitment. Emotional intelligence involves managing feelings so that they are expressed appropriately, therefore enabling people to work together towards common goals in a constructive and transparent environment. When the executive values feelings, so will the employees. Thus, if the manager feels optimistic, confident, creative, flexible, tolerant, respectful, and compassionate, the employees will likely mirror these feelings.

Organizational commitment (OC) is considered to be an important determinant of organizational effectiveness. It has been shown by studies that organizational commitment has the potential to predict a variety of organizational outcomes, such as increased job performance, reduced turnover and withdrawal cognitions, lower absenteeism, and increased organizational citizenship behaviour (Sinha and Jain, 2004; Herscovitch, Topolnystsky, Stanley, and Meyer, 2002; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Moreover, committed employees who are highly motivated to contribute their time and energy to the pursuit of organizational goals are increasingly acknowledged as the primary asset available to an organization (Pfeffer, 1998).

During the past decade, management researchers claim that emotional intelligence has an influence on performance and productivity. High emotional intelligence also affects all aspects of management (Jordan, Ashkanasy and
Hartel, 2002). Today, new findings show more attention to emotional intelligence on job functions (Steve, 2004).

Human performance is defined as a result of the actions set to achieve a goal based on a specific standard. This may include actions or behaviour of all non-observable mental processing (e.g., problem solving, decision-making, program planning, reasoning) (Bailey and Robert, 2003). Emotion is a powerful psychological action that can affect behaviour and performance in an important way (Brown et al., 1997).

What competencies of EI contribute to OC and employee performance? Since many organizations are looking for performance improvement and they desire to carry out economic activities with maximum efficiency, they should enhance their employees’ performance in the first step. Performance is a function of knowledge, skills, capabilities and motivations. Emotional intelligence is an important capability in today’s organization with changing behaviours and motivations.

While research has shown there is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence, organizational commitment, and employee performance (Rangriz and Mehrabi, 2010), literature does not offer guidance on how the variables of emotional intelligence directly affect the relationship between organizational commitment and employee performance. We do not know how the measurement of variables of emotional intelligence can be directly used to measure managers’ and employees’ performance.

The purpose of this study is to examine the role that emotional intelligence and organizational commitment play on employees’ performance. Hence, this study examines the relationship between emotional intelligence, organizational commitment, and employees’ performance.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of emotional intelligence goes back to early studies in the 1920s (Bar-on and Parker, 2000). In the early 1980s, scholars began to systematically conceptualize the idea of emotional intelligence. Notably, Gardner’s (1983)
conceptualization of intrapersonal intelligence and interpersonal intelligence and Steiner’s (1984) work on emotional literacy were the building blocks for what Salovey and Mayer (1989-1990) first termed as emotional intelligence. Based on previous work, Bar-on (2000) viewed emotional intelligence as a cognitive intelligence which is defined as an array of emotional, personal and social abilities and skills that influence an individual’s ability to cope effectively with environmental demands and pressures.

Goleman (1995) has defined emotional intelligence as “the abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one’s moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; and to emphasize and to hope.” In 1998, Goleman refined the definition of emotional intelligence to “the capacity for organizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotion well in ourselves and in our relationships” (Goleman, 1998). He applied EI as a concept in the workplace setting.

Goleman presents emotional intelligence as a skill with two key areas in his emotional competence framework; “personal competence” which represents how to manage ourselves (i.e. self-regulation, self-motivation, etc.) and “social competence” which represents how to manage relationships (i.e. empathy, and social skills) (Goleman, 1995). Emotional intelligence is a powerful psychological skill that can affect behaviour and performance in important ways (Brown, 1997).

Salovey and Mayer’s (1990) conception of emotional intelligence strives to define emotional intelligence within the confines of the standard criteria for a new intelligence. Following their continuing research, their initial definition of EI was revised to "the ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth."

The ability-based model views emotions as useful sources of information that help one to make sense of and navigate the social environment. The model proposes that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an
emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. This ability is seen to manifest itself in certain adaptive behaviours. The model claims that EI includes four types of abilities: perceiving emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions, and managing emotions.

The mixed model was introduced by Daniel Goleman and it focuses on EI as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance. Goleman's model outlines four main EI constructs: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (Goleman, 1995). Bar-On (2000) defines emotional intelligence as being concerned with effectively understanding oneself and others, relating well to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands. Bar-On posits that EI develops over time and that it can be improved through training, programming, and therapy. Bar-On hypothesizes, individuals with higher than average EQs are, in general more, successful in meeting environmental demands and pressures. He also notes that a deficiency in EI can mean a lack of success and the existence of emotional problems.

Problems in coping with one's environment are thought, by Bar-On, to be especially common among those individuals lacking in the subscales of reality testing, problem solving, stress tolerance, and impulse control. In general, Bar-On considers emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence to contribute equally to a person's general intelligence, which then offers an indication of one's potential to succeed in life. However, doubts have been expressed about this model in the research literature, in particular related the validity of self-report as an index of emotional intelligence, and in scientific settings, it is being replaced by the trait emotional intelligence (trait EI) model.

Petrides and colleagues proposed a conceptual distinction between the ability based model and a trait based model of EI. Trait EI is "a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality" (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). In lay terms, trait EI refers to an individual's self-perceptions of their emotional abilities. This definition of EI encompasses behavioural dispositions and self-perceived abilities and is measured by self-report, as opposed to the ability based model which refers to actual abilities, which have proven highly resistant to scientific measurement. Trait EI is
investigated within a personality framework. An alternative label for the same construct is trait emotional self-efficacy.

The Bar-On (2000) Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) is a self-report measure of EI developed as a measure of emotionally and socially competent behaviour that provides an estimate of one's emotional and social intelligence. The EQ-i is not meant to measure personality traits or cognitive capacity, but rather the ability to be successful in dealing with environmental demands and pressures. A limitation of this model is that it claims to measure some kind of ability through self-report items. The EQ-i has been found to be highly susceptible to faking (Day and Carroll, 2008; Grubb and McDaniel, 2007).

The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso ability model, Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) is based on a series of emotion-based problem-solving items. Consistent with the model's claim of EI as a type of intelligence, the test is modeled on an ability-based IQ test. By testing a person's abilities on each of the four branches of emotional intelligence, it generates scores for each of the branches as well as a total score. Central to the four-branch model is the idea that EI requires attunement to social norms. Therefore, the MSCEIT is scored in a consensus fashion, with higher scores indicating higher overlap between an individual's answers and those provided by a worldwide sample of respondents. The MSCEIT can also be expert-scored, so that the amount of overlap is calculated between an individual's answers and those provided by a group of 21 emotion researchers. Although promoted as an ability test, the MSCEIT is most unlike standard IQ tests in that its items do not have objectively correct responses. Among other problems, the consensus scoring criterion means that it is impossible to create items (questions) that only a minority of respondents can solve, because, by definition, responses are deemed emotionally "intelligent" only if the majority of the sample has endorsed them. This and other similar problems have led cognitive ability experts to question the definition of EI as a genuine intelligence.

Two measurement tools are based on the Goleman Mixed model: The Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI), which was created in 1999, and the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI), which was created in 2007; The Emotional...
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Intelligence Appraisal, was created in 2001 and which can be taken as a self-report or 360-degree assessment.

One of the more comprehensive and widely researched measures of trait EI model is the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue), which was specifically designed to measure the construct comprehensively. The TEIQue provides an operationalization for the model of Petrides and colleagues that conceptualizes EI in terms of personality. The test encompasses 15 subscales organized under four factors: Well-Being, Self-Control, Emotionality, and Sociability. The researchers also found out that TEIQue scores were unrelated to nonverbal reasoning, which they interpreted as support for the personality trait view of EI. As expected, TEIQue scores were positively related to some of the big five personality traits as well as inversely related to others. A number of quantitative genetic studies have been carried out within the trait EI model, which has revealed significant genetic effects and heritability for all trait EI scores.

Where psychology once considered human emotion as disruptive, disorganized, and characteristic of poor adjustment, new theories suggest that emotions play an important role in organizing, motivating, and directing human activity (Salovey and Mayer, 1990). King and Gardner (2006) tested the relationship of emotional intelligence (EI) to the appraisal, coping and outcomes of workplace demands. Emotional intelligence was found to comprise three factors: emotional self-management (ESM), the ability to understand others' emotions (UOE) and the use of emotions in decision making (EDM).

Schutte et al. (2001) examined the link between emotional intelligence and interpersonal relations. In studies one and two, the participants with high scores for emotional intelligence had higher scores for empathetic perspective taking and self-monitoring in social situations. In studies three and four, the participants with higher scores for emotional intelligence displayed more cooperatives responses towards partners. In study five, the participants with higher scores for emotional intelligence had higher scores for close and affectionate relationships. In study six, the participants’ scores for marital satisfaction were higher when they rated their marital partners higher for emotional intelligence.
Rahim et al. (2002) investigated the relationships of the five dimensions of emotional intelligence: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills of supervisors to subordinates' strategies of handling conflict: problem solving and bargaining. Results in the U.S. and in the combined sample provided support for the model which suggests that self-awareness is positively associated with self-regulation, empathy, and social skills; self-regulation is positively associated with empathy and social skills; empathy and social skills are positively associated with motivation; which, in turn, is positively associated with problem solving strategies and negatively associated with bargaining strategies.

Carmeli (2003) attempted to narrow the gap by empirically examining the extent to which senior managers with a high emotional intelligence employed in public sector organizations developed positive work attitudes, altruistic behaviours and work outcomes. The results indicated that emotional intelligence augments positive, altruistic behaviours, work outcomes, and moderated the effects of work-family conflict on career commitment, but not the effect on job satisfaction. Goleman (1998) stated that 'Emotional intelligence matters twice as much as technical and analytic skills combined for star performances. The higher that people move up in a company, the more crucial emotional intelligence becomes. Top leaders are required to be more positive, approachable, warm, empathetic and optimistic. A number of studies in the area suggested that it takes more than traditional cognitive intelligence to be successful at work. The emotional intelligence of a person, which includes his ability to restrain the negative feelings and focus on positive feelings, plays an important role in determining his success.

The idea got a further boost with the release of a book by Daniel Goleman, *Emotional Intelligence: Why it Can Matter More than IQ*, (1995). In another book, *Working with Emotional Intelligence*, Goleman (1998) focused on the need for emotional intelligence at work; an area often considered more head than heart. The notion is not limited to the managers and leaders of the organization. Any job that requires dealing with people requires the input of emotional intelligence. Whereas IQ is relatively fixed, scholars suggest that emotional
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intelligence can be built and learned. Companies can test and teach emotional intelligence.

Numerous definitions of organizational commitment have been offered (e.g., Meyer and Allen, 1997; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Morrow, 1983; Mowday et al., 1982), but the common theme of all the definitions is that organizational commitment is the emotional bond or attachment between employees and their organization. Among the various definitions of organizational commitment proposed so far, the most commonly used definition of organizational commitment is proposed by Mowday et al., (1979). He defines organizational commitment as, “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with, and involvement in a particular organization. This can be characterized by three factors: (i) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values, (ii) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (iii) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.”

The concept of organizational commitment incorporates three distinct constructs: affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1984; Allen and Meyer, 1996). Employees with strong affective commitment remain in the organization because they want to; employees with strong continuance commitment remain because they need to; employees with strong normative commitment remain because they feel ought to do so (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Affective commitment is defined as employee emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization and its goals (Dunham, Grube and Castaneda, 1994). It results from and is induced by the individual’s and organization’s value congruency. As a result, it becomes almost natural for the individual to become emotionally attached to and enjoy continuing membership in the organization (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Meyer and Allen, 1984; Hall et al., 1970; March and Simon, 1958).

Steers (1977) and Mottaz (1988) identified factors which help to create intrinsically rewarding situations for employees to be antecedents of affective commitment. These factors include such job characteristics as task significance, autonomy, identity, skills variety, and feedback concerning employee job
performance, perceived organizational support or dependence, and the degree that employees are involved in the goal-setting and decision-making processes. Common to all of the three types of commitment is the view that commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implication for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization. However, Allen and Meyer (1990) found that these three classifications of commitment are conceptually and empirically separable. Even though there appeared to be some overlap between affective and normative commitment, both were found to be relatively independent of continuance commitment. Therefore, they can be measured separately.

Over the years, two basic approaches have been used to study organizational commitment: commitment-related attitudes and commitment-related behaviours. Each approach offers a slightly different definition. Porter, Crampton and Smith (1976) define commitment-related attitude approach as the willingness of an employee to exert a high level of effort on behalf of the organization, a strong desire on behalf of the organization, and an acceptance of its major goals and values.

The commitment-related behaviour approach focuses on a behavioural pattern guided by internalized normative pressures to act in a way that meets organizational goals and interests (Wiener, 1982). Wiener and Gechman (1977) argue that the pattern of behaviour resulting from commitment should possess the following characteristics: (1) it should reflect personal sacrifices made for the sake of the organization; (2) it should show persistence, and (3) it should indicate a personal preoccupation with the organization, such as devoting a great deal of personal time to organization-related actions and thoughts.

In this sense, organizational commitment is viewed as (1) willingness of an individual to identify with, and the desire not to leave an organization for selfish interest or marginal gains; (2) willingness to work selflessly and contribute to the effectiveness of an organization; (3) willingness to make personal sacrifice, perform beyond normal expectations and to endure difficult times with an organization, and (4) acceptance of the organization's values and goals. Some researchers found that organizational commitment is a function of several variables such as job satisfaction, motivation, participative decision making,
organizational support, financial reward, communication, promotion prospects, and leadership styles (Salami and Omole, 2005; Brown, 2003; Alarape and Akinlabi, 2000).

As regards organizational commitment of Nigerian workers, there is divergence of opinions among researchers. Some researchers believe that Nigerian workers are not committed to their organizations (Olugbile, 1996). Others believe they are committed to organizational goals, but it is the organizations that do not show commitment to the plight of the workers (Alarape and Akinlabi, 2000). They believe that organizational commitment reflects one side of the reciprocal relationship between the employer and the employee and as such, each party has to play its role.

EI may also affect organizational commitment. Cherniss (2001) reported that emotionally intelligent people display cooperation, commitment and creativity which are important for organizational effectiveness. Other researchers found that emotional intelligence was positively correlated with organizational commitment of workers (Rozell et al., 2004; Carmeli, 2003; Nikolaou and Tsaousis, 2002). It is expected that workers having high emotional intelligence will also be highly committed to their organizations.

Prior researches have claimed that work experiences, personal and organization factors serve as antecedents to organizational commitment (Eby, Freeman, Rush, and Lance, 1999; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Allen and Meyer, 1996; 1990). The significant personal and organizational factor considered as a key effect on organization commitment was leadership (Mowday et al., 1982). Organizational commitment can be seen as an emotional response to a positive appraisal of the work environment (Testa, 2001).

Performance may be defined as an individual’s success criteria in their work which is usually calculated as a personal output rate (e.g., sales or production) or evaluated as the success rate compared to expectations of the organization (Kazemi, 2002). Human performance is defined as a result of the actions set to achieve pre-specified goals based on a specific standard. This may include actions or behaviour of all non-observable mental processing (e.g., problem
solving, decision-making, program planning, reasoning) (Bailey and Robert, 2003).

Huselid (1995) found that human resource practices influence various aspects of organizational performance, including turnover, productivity, and corporate financial performance. Delaney and Huselid (1996) and Lai and Cheng (2005) considered perceived market performance and productivity performance as an important index of organizational performance. Furthermore, Guest et al. (2004) perceived organizational performance outcomes as management rating of employees’ performance, employees’ innovation, and employment relations. There were mixed results of studies on influence of emotional intelligence and employee performance, though some studies suggested that emotional intelligence and job performance are positively related. Lam and Kirby (2002) found that emotional intelligence predicts the performance of undergraduate students on a single task. Sue-Chan and Latham (2004) found that emotional intelligence is related to the classroom performance of managers and professionals, sales performance (Law et al. 2004), the collective performance of account officers (Bachman et al. 2000) and supervisory rating of job performance (Law et al. 2004). Kelley and Caplan, (1993) concluded that it was emotional intelligence, not academic intelligence that characterized high performance. Slaski and Cartwright (2003) studied the role of EI training and its implications for managing stress, mental health and performance. The results showed EI training significantly improved mental health and stress management, but did not affect productivity. Meanwhile, qualitative study of productivity showed EI training has an effect on worker productivity. They believe some emotional aspects do not affect factors which measure productivity.

Luskin *et al.* (2005) selected four groups from two financial institutes to attend a training course of emotional intelligence. Their productivity and quality of life were measured before and after training. The results showed that their productivity increased 25% and their stress level decreased 29%. Sporrle and Whelp (2006) hypothesized adaptive emotions result from logical cognition and vice versa. Therefore, they used rational emotive behaviour therapy to show how job satisfaction increases.

Employees with higher EI can effectively recognize frustration and stress-related emotions and hence control them in order to reduce stress. Such employees can also realize their professional needs and control them, so their job satisfaction increases. These employees have the ability to control their emotions and have better relationships with others. Therefore, managers assess their performance more positively.

Amelang and Steinmayr (2006) studied the relationship between EI and different aspects of job performance and productivity in two groups. They found no significant relationship between those variables in both studies.

**3. METHODOLOGY**

The descriptive research design was adopted by this study. The variables used were qualitative and were collected based on perceptions of respondents through a field survey. Ordinal levels of measurement were used by constructing a five-point Likert scale. The hypotheses for the study were:

H₁: There is no significant relationship between employees’ EI and organizational commitment.
H₂: There is no significant relationship between employees’ emotional intelligence and performance.
H₃: There is no significant relationship between manager’s emotional intelligence and employees’ organizational commitment.
H₄: There is no significant relationship between manager’s emotional intelligence and employees’ performance.
The study used a simple random sampling technique to select samples. The selected sample size was one hundred and twenty (120) participants. A questionnaire was used to collect the data which had closed ended questions. A total of two hundred and six (206) questionnaires were distributed and one hundred and twenty (120) were retrieved, representing a response rate of fifty eight (58%) percent. Simple percentages, graphs, regression and correlation analysis were used to analyse the data collected.
4. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age Range</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 – 30 years</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 – 40 years</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 – 50 years</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 – 60 years</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>05%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 years and above</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WASC/SSCE</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OND/NCE</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.A/B.Sc/HND</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>44.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.Sc/M.A/MBA</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>35.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>58.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorce</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>05%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>widow</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>0.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cadre</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Staff</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Staff</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>65.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher’s field survey 2011
From the variables in Table 1, it can be deduced that those within the age range of 21-30 years constituted 35% of the total respondents, those within the range of 31-40 years constituted the highest percentage of 37.5%, those within the range of 41-50 years constituted of 20%, those within range of 51-60 constituted of 5%, while 61 years and above constituted of 2.5%. The responses in table 1.0 show that 60% of the total respondents were male while 40% were female. It can therefore be deduced that the male respondents are more than the female respondents. The variables in Table 1.0 show that 58.3% of the total respondents were married, 35.83% were single, 5% were divorced, and 0.833 were widowed. It can be deduced therefore that the majority of the respondents were married.

The responses in Table 1 show that a majority of the respondents were HND/Bsc holders’ i.e. 44.16%, 16.16% of the respondents have O, Level certificate, 16.16% of the respondents also were Diploma holders, and 15% have Master’s degree while the least of the percentage of respondents i.e. 11.66% of the respondent had professional certificates. Table 1 show that 13.33% of the total respondents were managers, 20.83% were senior staff, and 65.83% were junior staff. It can be deduced therefore that the majority of the respondents were junior staff.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Relationship between Emotional Intelligence, Organizational Commitment and Employees’ Performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14.64</td>
<td>2.846</td>
<td>-.420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17.65</td>
<td>6.336</td>
<td>-.750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EP</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10.43</td>
<td>3.677</td>
<td>-.217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (list wise)</td>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2011.

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics of the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI), organizational commitment (OC) and employees’ performance (EP). From the mean score of 14.0, variable EI (Emotional Intelligence) had a high mean score of 14.64 and variable OC (Organizational Commitment) had a high mean score of 17.65, higher than the group mean. It was therefore considered most emphasized by the respondents.
4.1 Test of Research Hypothesis

H1: there is no significant relationship between employees’ emotional intelligence and organizational commitment.

Table 3: Model Summary of Relationship between Employees’ Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Commitment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Durbin-Watson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.569a</td>
<td>.323</td>
<td>.318</td>
<td>5.234</td>
<td>.253</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), EI
b. Dependent Variable: OC

Source: field survey of 2011

Table 3 shows the regression results between the independent variable and the dependent variable. The model was significant by establishing a relationship between the variables of emotional intelligence and organizational commitment with a regression value of 0.569. The coefficient of determination ($R^2$) is 0.323, which shows that 32.3 percent of the variation in organizational commitment was explained by the independent variable. Therefore, it is concluded that there is a relationship between employees’ emotional intelligence and organizational commitment.

Table 4: Coefficients of Relationship between Employees’ Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-.887</td>
<td>2.515</td>
<td>-.353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.266</td>
<td>.169</td>
<td>.569</td>
<td>7.508</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: OC

Source: Field Survey, 2011 (SPSS)

Table 4 shows the coefficients of the relationship between organizational commitment and employees’ intelligence. The constant has a value of -0.887 which is the intercept, hence establishing a negative relationship. The row contains the name of the independent variable (EI) which refers to the slope. The value for the independent variable (emotional intelligence) is significant. This
also explains the establishment of a relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. The variable had a significant value (0.000) which is less than the decision rule value of 0.05. The relationship between employees’ emotional intelligence and organizational commitment is captured by this Model is $OC = -0.887 + 1.266EI + U$. The model above is a regression model of organizational commitment and emotional intelligence. The null hypothesis was not accepted, thus, there is significant relationship between employees’ emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. 

H2: there is no significant relationship between employees’ emotional intelligence and employees’ performance.

Table 5: Model Summary of Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Employees’ Performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Summaryb</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Durbin-Watson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.529a</td>
<td>.279</td>
<td>.273</td>
<td>3.135</td>
<td>.217</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), EI  
b. Dependent Variable: EP

Source: Field Survey, 2011. (SPSS)

Table 5 displays R, R squared, adjusted R squared and the standard error. R, which is the multiple correlation coefficient between the observed and the predicted values of the dependent variable (employees’ performance: EP - getting along with my colleagues at work is easy for me, I find it interesting and worthy to complete my task at work on time, I am an important part of my unit, etc).

A strong relationship existed among the variables because of the large value indicated by the multiple correlation coefficients. This provided a value of 0.529. The variation in the dependent variable (Employees’ Performance: EP) is not fully explained by the regression model as R squared had a small value of 0.279 which indicates that the model does not fit the data well. The model R squared explained 27.9% of variations in employees’ performance caused by emotional intelligence. This means that emotional intelligence causes a variation in employees’ performance by 27.9%
Table 6: Coefficients Table of Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Employees’ Performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>.423</td>
<td>1.506</td>
<td></td>
<td>.281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI</td>
<td>.683</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td>.529</td>
<td>6.765</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2011.

Table 6 shows the t statistics which helped to determine the relative importance of each variable in the model. This is shown by the independent variables whose values are well below -2 and above +2. With emotional intelligence having a sig. value of 0.000, this explains a significant relationship between the dependent variable of employee performance and independent variable of emotional intelligence.

Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted that there is a significant relationship between employees’ emotional intelligence and employees’ performance. This means an employee that has good understanding of his emotion can get along with his colleagues at work easily, finding it easy to express himself which makes it interesting and worthy to complete his task at work on time, are among others relationship variables of employees’ performance and employees’ emotional intelligence as captured by this Model is EP = 0.423 + 0.683EI + U.

The model explains the relationship between emotional intelligence and employees’ performance. The null hypothesis was accepted, hence there is a significant relationship between employees’ emotional intelligence and employees’ performance.

H₃: There is no significant relationship between manager’s emotional intelligence and employees’ organizational commitment.
Table 7 displays the Pearson correlation coefficients, significance value, and the numbers of cases with non-missing values. The correlation coefficient for organizational commitment and managers’ emotional intelligence is 0.427. Since 0.427 is relatively low compared to 1, this indicates that organizational commitment and managers’ emotional intelligence are positively correlated, but not strongly correlated.

The significance level from table 7 is 0.099 which indicates that the correlation is not significant and the two variables are not linearly related. This shows that as emotional intelligence increases, employees’ organizational commitment may increase or may not increase. N is the number of cases with non-missing value. In table 7, the number of cases with non-missing values for both managers’ emotional intelligence and organizational commitment is 16. There is no significant relationship between manager’s emotional intelligence and employees’ organizational commitment, and the two variables are not linearly related.

H₄: There is no significant relationship between manager’s emotional intelligence and employees’ performance.
Table 8: Correlations Table of relationship between manager’s emotional intelligence and employees’ performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>EI</th>
<th>EP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MEI Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.419</td>
<td>.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EP Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.419</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.106</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2011.

Table 8 displays the Pearson correlation coefficients, significance values, and the numbers of cases with non-missing values. The correlation coefficient for employees’ performance and managers’ emotional intelligence is 0.419. Since 0.419 is relatively low compared to 1, this indicates that employees’ performance and managers’ emotional intelligence are positively correlated, but not strongly correlated. The significance of each correlation coefficient is also depicted by the correlation table. The significance level from table 8.0 is 0.106 which indicates that the correlation has a very low significance level and employees’ performance and managers’ emotional intelligence are not linearly correlated. Therefore, meaning that emotional intelligence directly affects employees’ performance.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The research was able to establish that there is a significant relationship between employees’ emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. The sources of employees’ emotional intelligence, according to the variables in our questionnaire, were: good understanding of their emotion, they find it easy to express themselves, they can tell their colleagues how they are feeling at work, and they do not allow their emotions to control them when making decision at work, among other operational variables of emotional intelligence. The research was also able to establish that there is a relationship between employees’ emotional intelligence and employees’ performance. Employees’
performance can be achieved through their intelligence, and also through empowerment of the employees. Employees who are empowered and are involved in innovation become more satisfied with their jobs and therefore more productive. Managing people in an innovative organization is about giving the opportunity to people to develop and to make a contribution to strategic objectives.

The research established that there is a small significant relationship between managers’ emotional intelligence and employees’ performance. This relationship may bring about employees’ self-development. Self-development of the executive is central to the development of the organization through increased workers’ performance. The application of managers’ emotional intelligence will increase employees’ performance through an organized self-managed development scheme. Managers need to develop themselves to improve their emotional intelligence.

From this study, it is established that there is a relationship between emotional intelligence, organizational commitment and employees’ performance. Therefore, the researchers recommend the following: that organizations should increase EI, OC and EP by increasing skill training to help in developing mental abilities of individual employees; employees should be encouraged to develop their social skills which would lead to their greater acceptance among their colleagues and subordinates thereby enhancing the work process leading to success in the organization; and organizations should make the newly recruited employee undergo an organizational socialization programme which should include an emotional intelligence test to inform the employees of their current status and help them plan out a training program to support their lack of experience.

The research was also able to establish that there is a relationship between employees’ emotional intelligence and employees’ performance. Employees’ performance can be achieved through their intelligence, and also through empowerment of the employees. Employees who are empowered and are involved in innovation become more satisfied with their jobs and therefore more productive. Managing people in an innovative organization is about giving the opportunity to people to develop and to make a contribution to strategic objectives.
The research was not able to establish a relationship between manager’s emotional intelligence and employees’ organizational commitment. The effectiveness of a manager will materialize if the manager’s emotional intelligence and organizational commitment fit together. Such fit will depend on the environment, the organizational setting, and the manager. The manager’s ability to adapt becomes an important factor for employees’ organizational commitment. Managers should consider their employees as their greatest asset rather than a liability. In ensuring employees’ organizational commitment, it is important to consider dominant cultures within organizations. Different cultures will determine how people are managed in different organizations. Cultures also determine the way individuals develop their talent (Kermally, 2004). This helps employees have emotional commitment towards organizational goals and objectives.

The research established that there is a small significant relationship between managers’ emotional intelligence and employees’ performance. This relationship may bring about employees’ self-development. Self-development of the executive is central to the development of the organization through increased workers’ performance. The application of managers’ emotional intelligence will increase employees’ performance through an organized self-managed development scheme. Managers need to develop themselves to improve their emotional intelligence.

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