Universiti Utara Malaysia

MODERATING EFFECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, WORK MOTIVATION AND WORK COMMITMENT

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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
UNIVERSITI UTARA MALAYSIA
2018

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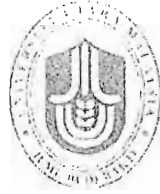seperti yang tercatat di muka surat tajuk dan kulit tesis / disertasi.
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Abstrak

Sorotan literatur telah menunjukkan bahawa wujudnya pelbagai bentuk komitmen kerja dan para pekerja berkemungkinan mempunyai lebih daripada satu bentuk komitmen. Justeru itu, komitmen organisasi sahaja tidak dapat menerangkan sejelasnya komitmen kerja para pekerja. Walaupun banyak penyelidik telah menunjukkan adanya kaitan antara kecerdasan emosi, motivasi kerja, dan komitmen organisasi dalam pelbagai sektor pekerjaan, namun, masih terdapat kekurangan penyelidikan yang mengkaji pemboleh ubah ini dengan komitmen kerja serta budaya organisasi secara serentak. Maka, tujuan penyelidikan ini adalah untuk mengkaji hubungan antara budaya organisasi, kecerdasan emosi, motivasi kerja, dan komitmen kerja kakitangan akademik universiti di Pakistan. Kajian ini juga mengukur kesan penyesuaian dan jenis budaya organisasi (klan, adhokrasi, hierarki dan pasaran) terhadap hubungan di antara kecerdasan emosi, motivasi kerja, dan komitmen kerja. Di samping itu, perbezaan kecerdasan emosi, motivasi kerja dan komitmen kerja juga dianalisis berdasarkan pemboleh ubah demografi. Tiga ratus lima puluh satu orang staf akademik dipilih menggunakan teknik pensampelan rawak mudah dari sembilan universiti awam di negeri Punjab, Pakistan terlibat dalam kajian ini. Reka bentuk keratan rentas digunakan dan data dikumpulkan menggunakan soal selidik terpiawai yang disahkan. Model yang dihipotesiskan telah diuji dengan menggunakan pendekatan kuasa dua terkecil separa (PLS). Analisis menunjukkan bahawa budaya organisasi, kecerdasan emosi, dan motivasi kerja mempunyai hubungan yang signifikan secara positif dengan komitmen kerja. Walau bagaimanapun, didapati hanya hierarki dan pasaran budaya organisasi yang menyederhanakan hubungan di antara motivasi kerja dan komitmen kerja. Budaya organisasi umum dan adhokrasi menyederhana secara negatif hubungan antara kecerdasan emosi dan komitmen kerja. Di samping itu, terdapat perbezaan signifikan dalam motivasi kerja dan kecerdasan emosi dengan pemboleh ubah demografi seperti taraf kelayakan. Hasil dapatan kajian ini menyumbang kepada peningkatan pemahaman tentang model penyeragaman untuk komitmen kerja yang berkaitan dengan pemboleh ubah lain. Suruhanjaya pendidikan tinggi, pihak berkuasa universiti dan kerajaan di Pakistan perlu membangunkan budaya organisasi untuk meningkatkan kecerdasan emosi dan motivasi kerja dalam kalangan staf akademik yang seterusnya akan mempertingkatkan komitmen kerja mereka.

Kata kunci: Budaya organisasi, kecerdasan emosi, motivasi kerja, komitmen kerja, komitmen organisasi.

Abstract

Literature has established that multiple forms of work commitment exist and employees may be committed to more than one form of commitment. Hence, organizational commitment alone cannot adequately explain employees' work commitment. Although numerous scholars have established a link between emotional intelligence, work motivation, and organizational commitment in a variety of work sectors, yet, there is a paucity of research which investigates these variables with work commitment as well as organizational culture in unison. Thus, the purpose of this research was to examine the relationship between organizational culture, emotional intelligence, work motivation, and work commitment of university academic staff in Pakistan. The study also measured the moderating effects of organizational culture and its types (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market) on the relationship between emotional intelligence, work motivation, and work commitment. In addition, differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment were also analyzed based on demographic variables. Three hundred and fifty-one academic staff, selected through simple random sampling technique from nine public universities in the state of Punjab, Pakistan, participated in the study. Cross-sectional design was employed, and the data was collected using standardized validated questionnaires. The hypothesized model was tested using Partial Least Squares (PLS) approach. The analysis revealed that organizational culture, emotional intelligence, and work motivation are significantly positively correlated with work commitment. However, only hierarchy and market organizational culture were found to moderate the relationship between work motivation and work commitment. General and adhocracy organizational culture negatively moderated the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. Additionally, significant differences in work motivation and emotional intelligence were found on demographic variable such as qualification. The findings contribute towards an enhanced understanding of a unifying model for work commitment in relation with the other variables. Higher education commission, university authorities and government in Pakistan should capitalize on organizational culture to improve emotional intelligence and work motivation among academic staff which eventually will boast their work commitment.

Keywords: Organizational culture, emotional intelligence, work motivation, work commitment, organizational commitment.

Acknowledgement

I owe it all to Allah, the Almighty for granting me the wisdom, health and strength to undertake this research task and enabling me to its completion. Completion of this doctoral dissertation was possible with the support of several people. I would like to express my sincere gratitude to all of them.

First of all, I would like to pay my respect for late Prof. Dr. Najib B Hj Ahmad Marzuki for the continuous support during my PhD study, for his patience, motivation, immense knowledge, valuable guidance, scholarly inputs and consistent encouragement. He will remain respected in our hearts for his kindness and supportive nature. I also extend my gratitude to my co-supervisor Dr. Mariny Binti Abdul Ghani. I was fortunate to know her during my PhD studies. Some people have the blessing from the creator of being an all-round likeable individual. I gained a lot from her, through her personal and scholarly interactions. This feat was only possible because of her unconditional support. No research is possible without the Library, the center of learning resources. I take this time to express my gratitude to all the Sultanah Bahiyah library staff for their services.

Words cannot express how grateful I am to my father-in-law, mother-in law, my mother, and father, who encouraged and helped me at every stage of my personal and academic life, and longed to see this achievement come true. Your prayer for me was what sustained me thus far. I deeply miss my father Muhammad Mukhtar, who is not with me to share this joy.

A special thanks to my family. I am very much indebted to my husband Mian Irfan Safdar and son Muhammad Nabeel for their unconditional love and care, who supported me in every possible way to see the completion of this work. I extend my gratitude to all my siblings specially to my younger brother Manzoor Ahmad who despite working full time always managed to support me with any issue. I would like to thank all respondents of this study, their cooperation and inputs enabled me to complete this work. And finally, last but by no means least, also to everyone in the science hub… it was a great sharing repository. Thanks for all your encouragement!

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

In the field of organizational psychology, the notion of commitment is fundamental and it is explained as an inclination to persevere with a certain approach (Morrow, 1993). The concept of multiple work commitment has been the focus of attention previously (Cohen, 2003, 2006; Redman & Snape, 2005; Becker, Billings, Eveleth, & Gilbert, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Becker, 1992). There have been two developments so far that focus mainly on work and organizational commitment. First, commitment which is complex and comprises of multidimensional conceptual elements, can be viewed from multiple facets. Secondly, the boundary of commitment studies has been expanded. There are a variety of areas to which an individual's commitment can be directed. For example, employees not only commit to the organization but also to workgroups, administration, and managers. In addition, commitment has been analyzed in relation to career, union and occupation (Darolia, Kumari, & Darolia, 2010; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer et al., 1993).

According to Morrow (1993), work commitment is based on elements such as job involvement, organizational commitment, career commitment and work ethic endorsement. Individual's work commitment is formed with these attributes. Numerous forms of commitment influence workplace behavior. Therefore, an individual's commitment is of great significance since it influences the processes involved to fulfill the targeted objectives. It is generally accepted that employees' commitment towards their job has a direct connection to the performance in the organization such as high commitment level will lead to enhanced organizational performance (Akintayo, 2010;

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Blood, 1969; Vandenberg & Self, 1993). Commitment to work is considered a vital motivational tool, which encourages a person to pursue progress in the organization. Thus, every organization is supposed to be developing organizational commitment including its standards and objectives as well as work commitment, career commitment, occupational commitment and work ethic endorsement in its employees (Dalton & Todor, 1993; Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993).

From the organizational standpoint, increased commitment promote punctuality, less absenteeism, greater contentment, motivation and diminish turnover rate (Shore, Newton, & Thornton, 1990). Alternatively, low work commitment would result in performance and effort exhaustion, turnover, theft, job dissatisfaction, willingness to relocate (Ushie, Ogaboh, & Okorie, 2015; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982) and brain drain (Khan, 2016; Zardari, 2014). Ali (2016) reported that the crisis of national teacher brain drain in Pakistan has negatively impacted the academic standards, particularly the higher education level. Therefore, Pakistan does not only experience the loss of precious and well-trained employees but also it has to bear the cost of recruiting and coaching new employees for the previously occupied positions. The shortsightedness and incompetence of governments have caused egregious and continuous failures of public policy (Hussain, 2014).

Therefore, in order to be able to restructure and modify classrooms, institutes, knowledge centers and the education system, it is vital to pay attention to the sources that affect teachers' commitment in wider education systems to become a focal point in the field of research (Razak, Darmawan, & Keeves, 2009). The notion of commitment, as the investment of individual capabilities, has been linked with the professional features of academic staff in educational institutions (Hargreaves, 1994).

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The role of academic staff in the education system is very critical. Because they carry the great responsibility of leading their country to great heights in the race of modernization as well as conveying and improving the character of the youth. Without a teacher being present, things such as plans, equipment, material as well as organizations could fail. A teacher who comes equipped with the essential academic background, professional competence and personal traits of character is able to transform basic pedagogical principles into action, which represent the foundation of a sound and progressive system of education (Sawhney, 2015).

Hence, the key driving factors with regards to teaching are: (a) the ability to help students emotionally, socially and in their learning as well as to make changes for individuals and society (altruistic reasons), (b) career activities, such as apply one's knowledge, expertise or skills, teaching and passion for a subject (intrinsic reasons) and (c) job security or long summer holidays (extrinsic reasons) (Jungert, Alm, & Thornberg, 2014; Struyven, Jacobs, & Dochy, 2013).

In addition, teaching is appraised as a highly social and emotional career (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Emotional intelligence is indispensable for teachers since teachers who are emotionally intelligent are capable of recognizing and controlling their feelings, which would not only promote engagement at work but it will also diminish burnout. Research has indicated that various positive outcomes are the product of increased degrees of emotional intelligence, which include the performance at work and personal and psychological health (Ramana, 2013). Emmerling and Boyatzis (2012) have stated that an emotionally intelligent team is highly motivated, energetic and one that follows the motivating principals set by the management.

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Moreover, emotional intelligence gives a positive impact to the role of teaching (Corcoran & Tormey, 2012). Tischler, Biberman and McKeage (2002) drew their conclusions from the previous studies and formed the view that emotionally intelligence individuals are predominantly contended with their lives as well as being more efficient and productive and evidently perform better than others at the job. Emotional intelligence helps employees to deal effectively with any problems and failures encountered in the organizational work (Abraham, 1999). Carmeli (2003) supported this view and stated that increased level of emotional intelligence assists employees to differentiate, manage and make use of their emotions in line with the situations in hand to remove obstacles in the way of making sound judgement thus facilitating the process in achieving career goals.

Thus, for effective teaching and managing confronting situations, intrapersonal emotional intelligence abilities, and specifically emotional self-awareness are fundamental (Stein & Book as cited in Dolev & Leshem, 2017). Academic staffs' emotions influence their contentment (Nias, 1996); motivation (Morris & Casey, 2006), public relationships, particularly with learners (Palomera, Fernández-Berrocal, & Brackett, 2008); and teaching and learning practices (Hargreaves, 2001). Consequently, it effects learners' emotional state, their accomplishments and classroom environment (Hargreaves, 1998). Therefore, in a profession which essentially demands emotional efficacy, it is necessary for academic staff to effectively handle cognitive and emotional challenges (Day, Sammons, Stobart, Kington, & Gu, 2007).

Furthermore, it is argued that emotional intelligence is a primary component from which motivation arises, therefore, it is related to motivation (Dubey, 2012). Previous studies have conveyed that motivated and committed employees are the foundation of

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successful institutions that establish depending on human capital. Such employees have allowed organizations to grow and succeed faster than their competitors. Organizational performance is enhanced significantly by well-motivated and committed staff, where employees are valued by their organization in which they play an essential role (Shore & Marton, 1989; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989). Motivated employees feel dignity in performing their tasks and therefore, take accountability for organizational achievements (Sempane, Rieger & Roodt, 2002).

Since motivation is linked with quality of education, engagement, and commitment to the profession, it is a matter of great concern for scholars and management (De Jesus & Lens, 2005; Klassen, Al-Dhafri, Hannok, & Betts, 2011). In earlier literature, work self-determined motivation and organizational commitment were found to be associated. High level of work self-determined motivation was associated with positive experiences at work and induce self-effacing interest for achievements related to the job (Vujcic, Oerlemans, & Bakker, 2016).

Moreover, motivation plays a key function for academics as it assists them to attain their targets efficiently. Motivation improves teachers' expertise and understanding, which ultimately effects the learner's accomplishment (Mustafa & Othman, 2010). Lack of motivation in teachers can also lead to the lack of focus on the process of teaching and learning such as spending less time in preparing lessons or supporting struggling learners. Additionally, teachers with low motivation may also be less inclined to arrive to class on time or to even show up at all (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007). Indeed, absenteeism is as high as 25% in some countries and has a significant negative impact on student learning (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007; Das, Dercon, Habyarimana, & Krishnan, 2007; Mulkeen, 2010).

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Hence, former studies have reported that strong organizational culture helps pave the way to align the objectives and boosts the employee motivation level (Brown, 1998). Similarly, Moshabaki and Rahmani (as cited in Azizollah, Abolghasem, & Mohammad Amin, 2015) argued that a strong organizational culture forms and manages the employees' behaviors, indicates the way employees look, creates self-regulation (lessens external regulation which will ultimately lead toward self-determined motivation), job satisfaction, averts disorder in an organization and creates work commitment, shared beliefs and organizational identity for employees. While strong organizational culture can enhance performance, weak organizational culture can lower performance (McShane & Glinow, 2008).

Additionally, Wallach (1983) suggested that the form of culture expressed by an organization defines its employees' effectiveness in completing tasks and realizing their full potential when the organizational culture and individual motivation match. Mullins (2007) stated that a strategic determining factor of the development of an organization is culture. He emphasized that the organizational culture is similar to the culture of people and can serve as a motivating variable in maximizing the worth of human capital for organizational success.

Moreover, culture forms the individuals' thoughts, conduct and emotions at the workplace, therefore, it is established as an influential force in organizations (Brown, 1998). Culture also shapes and supports emotions (Kitayama & Markus, 1994). An individual's thinking and reaction towards the surrounding stimuli are affected by beliefs, customs, and morals related to culture. Practically, culture influence individuals' relationships and conducts in interpersonal interactions and relationships, which are fundamental characteristics of emotional intelligence.

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Culture is expressed by established ways of thinking, feeling, and reacting, developed and conveyed primarily by symbols, representing the special achievement of mankind, including their manifestations in artifacts; the vital foundation of culture is made of traditional (historically developed and chosen) ideas especially their accompanying values (Kluckhohn, 1951). With the core of emotional intelligence being aware of a person's own and others' feelings and emotions, Kluckhohn (1951) applied this information to examine appropriate behavior and concluded that culture intrinsically influences the emotional intelligence behaviors that are arise from commitment to cultural standards. The influence of cultural disparities on emotions is practically utilized in various fields, and diverse cultural norms are said to influence perception, expression, and regulation of emotion, again which are fundamental characteristics of emotional intelligence (Palmer, Gignac, Ekermans, & Stough, 2008).

Emotional needs of the people are the main cause of the strength of the culture. Certainly, culture furnishes a societal forum which provides an opportunity for the individuals to identify and build affectional associations with others (Beyer & Nino, 2001); which can gratify their affiliation need (De Dreu, West, Fischer, & MacCurtain, 2001) and commitment to the organization (Schein, 2004).

As the main and central institute to educate people, universities have a unique culture that involves training entrepreneurs and experts with good qualities. This critical matter requires the presence of appropriate organizational culture within the state universities. These institutes produce graduates who continuously change the society and the world. Therefore, universities should not only emphasize scientific and technical qualifications as they have also the responsibility to serve as cultural and culture-making institutes.

In addition, organizational theoreticians argue that culture defines the organizational border in the first place. Then, it instills a form of sense of identity into the respective mind of the organization's members. Lastly, it creates a feeling of commitment in those members towards certain things which are more important than their personal interests. Pouramen (as cited in Azizollah, Abolghasem, & Mohammad Amin, 2015) defined culture as a control variable that leads to the formation of opinions and behaviors of employees through the presentation of appropriate criteria which might either advance the organization or obstruct its progress.

Therefore, organizational culture performs a fundamental part for the development and advancement of commitment and performance (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Lok & Crawford, 2001; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Organizational culture exerts a strong influence on the way workforce acts in the workplace and how it demonstrates their commitment to work (Wagner, 1995). Consequently, it is important to understand how individuals' behaviors and attitudes (work commitment) are affected by the organizational culture in relation to emotional intelligence and work motivation especially in the field of education.

1.2 Problem Statement

The last 20 years have been characterized by numerous key improvements in many western countries that have transformed the frames and preconditions for academic staffs' work (Fransson & Frelin, 2016; Frelin & Grannäs, 2013; Goodson & Lindblad, 2011; Valli & Buese, 2007) and, consequently, it has impacted their roles, duties and commitment. Academic staff and academic profession have encountered multiple consequences such as their work and time have been increasingly occupied with administrative tasks (Valli & Buese, 2007).

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Similarly, the education system in Pakistan is also experiencing various notable issues. Despite the advances accomplished in the previous decades, the higher education system is not up to the mark. This system is marked by myriad problems including increased teachers' workload, declined standards of education, and diminishing academic performance (Asrar-ul-Haq, Anwar, & Hassan, 2017), incompetent faculty, less motivated students, rote learning, outmoded syllabus, lack of student discipline in public universities, financial issues, poor research (Aziz et al., 2014). These problems have made it hard to adapt to the work environment, ensuing less organizational commitment in academic staff (Shafiq & Rana, 2016).

Moreover, the education sector has always been deprived with regards to government and social disbursements. The share of total government expenditures on education is 2.3 percent (Tahir, 2017). Whereas outstanding and long-lasting advances in the social and economic domains of any country can be expected only through education (Khan, Nawaz, & Jan, 2012). Although educational reforms and technological advancement emerge in the education system, educational institutes still face issues related to the system. These issues serve as the causes that reduce academic staffs' capabilities in dealing with academic work, and societal demands of students and parents (Asrar-ul-Haq et al., 2017).

Apart from teaching, the academic staff is obliged to conduct studies and publish their findings. A certain number of published research papers are compulsory for the promotion, pay and increments of university academic staff (Hoodbhoy, 2017). Academic staff is also required to be engaged in administration work which in turns increase their workload. Such requirements may cause discontent, dissatisfaction and

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stress, or mood disruption. Some of them could not endure such circumstances and withdraw from the profession.

In addition, due to unethical practices and allegations of vile corruption within the public sector in Pakistan, organizational commitment and efficiency level of employees have been decreased (Marri, Sadozai , Zaman, Yousufzai & Ramay, 2013). The efficiency of academic staff may drop if they do not have enough commitment to their work. Therefore, promoting commitment among the academicians' is an important institutional goal to achieve a sustainable academic development (Khan et al., 2012; Khan et al., 2014).

However, previous attempts to study employees' commitment have often focused on antecedents, correlates and outcomes of organizational commitment (Ababneh, 2016; Ebrahim, 2016; Clements, Kinman, & Guppy, 2012; Southcombe, Fulop, Carter, & Cavanagh, 2015), professional commitment (Somech & Bogler, 2002), safety commitment (Delegach, Kark, Katz-navon & Dijk, 2017) and team commitment (Bouwmans, Runhaar, Wesselink, & Mulder, 2017).

A few studies have emphasized the construct of work commitment in foreign countries (Yalabik et al., 2016; Lips & Lawson, 2009) and effects of the forms of work commitment on work outcomes (Tsoumbris & Xenikou, 2010; Linnansaari-rajalin & Kivimäki, 2015; Van Steenbergen & Ellemers, 2009). Traditionally, five forms of work commitment have been investigated individually, namely organizational commitment and occupational commitment (Kim & Chang, 2014; Major, Morganson, & Bolen, 2013), career commitment (Kim, Kim, & Yoo, 2012; Lin, 2017), job involvement

(Lambert, Hogan, & Cheeseman, 2011; Word, 2012) and work ethic endorsement (Baumann, Hamin, Jung, & Yang, 2016; Meriac, 2015).

In view of the above, Van Rossenberg (2013) conducted a systematic review of the literature and listed an over-all 151 researches on the multiple foci of commitment. Among these, minimum 120 studies cover one foci of commitment, while organizational commitment remained the focus of the majority of the studies. Moreover, former empirical studies have often considered the commitment to predict job outcomes (Riketta & Dick, 2005; Ababneh, 2016), yet there is a scarcity of research on the predictors of work commitment and its association with other variables. Moreover, the literature has yet to explore the mutual relationships between emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment.

Therefore, building upon the existing literature, the present study seeks to bridge this particular gap by analyzing the relationship between emotional intelligence and work motivation that can affect the work commitment of academic staff. Social constraints could stimulate emotional disruption in academic staff (Asrar-ul-Haq et al., 2017) that impact their motivation and psychological state adversely and trigger turnover (Viseu, De Jesus, Rus, Canavarro, & Pereira, 2016). Emotionally intelligent academic staff incline to motivate themselves and their students. They are able to advance a conducive learning environment which promotes a vision for the learners and satisfy their personal development (Asrar-ul-Haq et al., 2017).

Thus, social and emotional competencies seem to be exceedingly pertinent for teachers' efficiency. These competencies are considered even more significant currently since academic staff endures numerous challenges in the field of education (Goleman, 1995).

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Day, Sammons, Stobart, Kington, and Gu (2007) endorse Goleman's conception and urge that academic staff should be able to effectively preside over cognitive and emotional challenges while performing in diversified and arduous settings which is indispensable to the emotional intelligence concept (Day et al. 2007). Ignat and Clipa (2012) opined that, by striving to advance emotional and professional proficiencies, teachers can easily confront challenges.

In previous studies, emotional intelligence (Ul Hassan, 2016; Khan, Masrek, & Nadzar, 2014; Raza, Saleem, & Qamar, 2014; Shafiq & Rana, 2016); and work motivation (Shaheen & Farooqi, 2014; Sohail, Safdar, Saleem, Ansar, & Azeem, 2014) have been shown to influence the organizational commitment.

Literature specifies that personnel's achievements in the organization (university) are greatly determined by motivation. Without motivating its employees, an organization cannot compete in the market. Motivating characteristics of the organization appeal to the competent employees and also supports retaining the existing skillful staff (Lee & Chen, 2013). Work motivation and organizational commitment along with their numerous features are positively associated (Gupta & Gupta, 2014; Sinani, 2016). Moreover, emotional intelligence, motivation and organizational commitment are significant for attaining objectives, facilitating the adequate functioning of institutes and escalating personal and institutional accomplishment in academic sector (Ates & Buluc, 2015).

In the context of Pakistan, literature revealed that motivation, commitment and job involvement were positively related but the relationship was not strong (Mohsan, Nawaz, Khan, Shaukat, & Aslam, 2011). This suggests the need for a study that will

investigate the association between emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

Although culture has been appraised to expend profound impact on personnel's attitudes regarding their work organizations, yet a large body of past research has emphasized on the effects of collectivistic and individualistic nationwide cultures on organizational culture and, subsequently, on organizational commitment (Simosi & Xenikou, 2010). Scholars have stated that the differences in the commitment of an employee to their work could be explained through cultural elements even in apparently similar organizations throughout a country (Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000; Cohen, 2007). Organizational culture is considered as a strong factor that can consolidate the organizational members together and this acts as a social glue and helps incoming employees to bond with the existing culture. This effects the organizational performance as well as the employees' commitment (Schein, 2009).

According to Singelis and Brown (1995), culture is a moderator which affects human psychology. Past studies have found a significant positive influence of organizational culture on teaching faculty's commitment in Pakistan (Khan, 2014) and also on employees in the banking sector (Samad, Abdullah, & Ahmed, 2013). Additionally, former scholars have examined the association between organizational culture and organizational commitment (Mitic, Vukonjanski, Terek, Gligorovic & Zoric, 2016; Dwivedi, Kaushik, & Luxmi, 2014; Awan, Mahmood, & Idrees, 2014; Agwu, 2013; Rizvi, 2013; Simosi & Xenikou, 2010). However, there is a dearth of research on organizational culture in relation to work commitment in the education sector in Pakistan. Particularly, research is lacking regarding the moderating effects of

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organizational culture on the association between emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment.

Abumandil, (2012) suggested that additional commitment from employees could be gained through organizational culture, which can further lead to higher performance and lower turnover. Moreover, Imran, Allil and Mahmoud (2017) studied the influence of motivation and organizational commitment on teachers' turnover intention. They have recommended for future scholars to study the effects of any potential moderators and mediators such as cultural values, leadership and human resource systems in the aforementioned context. Since, public or private organizations depend on organizational culture, structures, work settings, job attitudes and job features (Moon, 2000; Rainey, 2009). Hence, it is essential to further explore these relations in the public sector organizations (Kim & Han, 2017).

Therefore, the present research has examined the moderating effects of organizational culture on the relationship between emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment of academic staff in public universities of Pakistan. Wherein demographic variables of gender, age, work experience, work position, qualification and income were taken into consideration. Hopefully, the literature and factual findings of the study will help to broaden the knowledge pool and will lead the way for further studies. Based on the problem statement, the researcher has listed several research questions in the next section.

1.3 Research questions

1. Are there any associations between work commitment and the independent variable constructs which are emotional intelligence and work motivation and

the moderating construct which is organizational culture among university academic staff in Pakistan?

2. Are there any moderating effects of organizational culture on the relationship between emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan?

3. Are there any differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment according to gender, age, work experience, work position, qualification and income among university academic staff in Pakistan?

1.4 Research objectives

Based on the research questions, the objectives of this study are as follows.

1. To examine the association between work commitment and the independent variable constructs which are emotional intelligence and work motivation and the moderating construct which is organizational culture among university academic staff in Pakistan

2. To analyze the moderating effects of organizational culture on the relationship between emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

3. To identify differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment according to gender, age, work experience, work position, qualification and income among university academic staff in Pakistan.

1.5 Significance of the Study

1.5.1 Academic Significance

This study is important to bring insights to the policymakers in the education department at the national level. It anticipates to bring benefits to the study of work

commitment in both theoretical and practical levels. Previously the concept of organizational commitment has remained the focus of research.

Fostering work commitment among the academic staff is imperative because it is an essential ingredient for leading towards increased effectiveness in the universities. Less committed teachers strive minimum than committed teachers. Similarly, lack of emotional intelligence and work motivation may cause academic staff to be less successful in teaching that ultimately impacts educational standards.

Hence, the study has provided precise information about the nature of commitment in Pakistan specifically among university academic staff. It has also shown the capability of university academic staffs' emotional intelligence and work motivation to maintain their level of work commitment.

The present study has utilized work commitment as a dependent variable in the proposed relationship. As past researches predominantly looked at five forms of work commitment separately mostly in the field of business. The present study has examined work commitment as a whole, by utilizing the work commitment index by Blau, Paul and St. John (1993) based on Morrow's model of work commitment. Work commitment index measures five forms of work commitment together. In most of the past studies, researchers have used separate instruments for all five forms of work commitment. Olsen, Sverdrup, Nesheim and Kalleberg (2016) conducted research on multiple foci of commitment in professional service firm and suggested to use a single scale to measure commitment to all foci.

1.5.2 Theoretical Significance

This research is significant with regards to a unique theoretical framework which has been used to explain the model of the study by integrating Bar-On (1997) model of emotional intelligence, self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), Morrow's (1993) and Cameron and Quinn's (1999) competing values framework.

Thus, this research has attempted to furnish practical data to cover the gap in theory concerning the association between work commitment, emotional intelligence and work motivation in the educational setting. Besides, it has demonstrated and confirmed the moderating effects of organizational culture in this relationship.

Shafipour (as cited in Mohammadtaheri, 2011) concluded that proper human relations, evaluation system, educational leadership, atmosphere, cultural and motivational factors are significant in the advancement of work commitment. Hence, this study is a significant endeavor in providing the first examination of the moderating effects of organizational culture on the relationship between emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, none of the previous studies have combined all these variables into the study of work commitment. Thus, the present study is an initiative to connect a comprehensive situational variable of organizational culture with the aforesaid constructs that have not been merged theoretically or explored empirically in the past literature. So, this study seeks to change the landscape of work commitment.

1.5.3 Practical Significance

Practically, the present study is beneficial for the higher education commission of Pakistan. The outcomes of this study could assist management and practitioners in the

educational setting in designing and implementing relevant measures, specifically by looking into existing organizational culture and by observing the emotional intelligence and work motivation of employees that trigger work commitment.

In the new millennium, it is the responsibility of the universities to support academic staff to develop their work commitment while their organization will also benefit from it. This proactive approach is lacking and research studies need to promote it actively. Chesnut and Cullen (2014) revealed emotional intelligence as a significant factor for the commitment of academic staff and proposed that understanding personal and others emotions and motivational outlook are essential for preserving commitment. Since emotional intelligence is not a contribution of genetic factors or fortune (Salim et al., 2015), the universities should take advantage of this opportunity to enhance work commitment among academic staff.

Therefore, the findings may also be valuable for the creation of national policies, particularly those that support and enhance the development of emotionally intelligent and motivated academic staff and finally they will strive hard for the advantage of the institution and will performance well than uncommitted academics. Thus, the present study has benefited the university management in recognizing the significant factors to improve work commitment in academic staff.

1.6 Definition of Key Terms

1.6.1 General Definition of Work Commitment

Commitment is conceptualized as a drive that attaches an individual to a social or non-social objective and to an approach pertinent to that objective (Meyer, Becker, & Van

Dick, 2006). Work commitment is defined as the state of cognition that relates to one's emotional recognition with own work (Kanungo, 1982). Lawler and Hall (1970) defined the concept of work commitment according to the "central life interest". Based on these scholars, work commitment can be defined as the level of the employment being in the center of one's self. Work commitment is also defined as the "relative importance of work to a person's sense of self" (Loscocco, 1989).

1.6.2 Operational definition of Work Commitment

The operational definition of work commitment is based on the model of work commitment developed by Morrow (1993). Morrow (1993) defined work commitment as an individual's adherence to work ethic endorsement, job involvement, affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment and career commitment. Morrow (1993) recommended developing an instrument to measure this universal construct of work commitment using these five forms. Blau et al., 1993) followed Morrow's (1983) call for the development of a multidimensional index of work commitment, and developed the General Index of Work Commitment involving four facets of commitment: occupational commitment, organizational commitment (affective and continuance organizational commitment), job involvement, and value of work (Ogasawara, 1997).

In developing the General Index of Work Commitment Blau et al. (1993) exposed that because of conceptual vagueness career measurements were weakened and caused item inconsistency. They suggested replacing the term "career" with "occupation" in measurement items to resolve this problem. The conceptual clarity was maximized due to this change and thereby the reliability of the questionnaire was enhanced. They recommended the use of the term "occupation" in the forthcoming operationalization

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of this work commitment facet within this particular work commitment scale (Fain, 2000).

In the present study 31 items of general work commitment index developed by Blau, Paul and St. John (1993) were used to measure work commitment in university academic staff. The study has operationalized the term "occupational commitment" to refer to career commitment.

Kanungo (1982) described job involvement as a belief, descriptive of the current job and is likely to be a function of how much the job can fulfill a person's current needs. Morrow (1983) suggested that it can show a moderate level of stability. Based on previous research, organizational commitment is comprised of two elements, namely continuance commitment and affective commitment. Meyer and Allen (1984) stated that continuance commitment is the degree to which employees have the feeling to commit to their organization by virtue of the costs related to their leaving. As defined by Meyer and Allen (1984) affective commitment is the positive feelings of identification with, attachment to, and involvement in, the work organization. Work ethic endorsement refers to the degree to which a person thinks that hard work is vital while excess money and leisure time are unfavorable (Blood, 1969; Mirels & Garrett, 1971; Morrow, 1993). Occupational Commitment is "an individual's adherence to the ethics of his selected occupation or field of work, and a readiness to preserve participation in that occupation" (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994, p. 535).

1.6.3 General Definition of Emotional Intelligence

The ability posited to add to the accurate assessment and manifestation of personal and others' emotions as well as using emotional states for inspiring, planning and accomplishing in one's life is called emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

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The capability to regulate emotional impulse, to understand others' innermost feelings and to manage relation smoothly is emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995). Emotional intelligence is one's skill to appraise and express personal and others emotions, to manage the emotions of oneself and others, and to apply the emotions in solving issues (Schutte et al., 1998). Emotional intelligence can also be referred to an array of capabilities that an individual uses to understand, regulate and utilize his own emotions and that of others (Bradberry & Greaves, 2004).

Emotional intelligence is also defined as being effective with basic emotions by attaining adeptness in self and interpersonal interactions (Golis, 2011). Basically, emotional intelligence is the ability to precisely identify and comprehend personal and others emotional responses (Cherniss & Adler, 2000). A formal definition refers emotional intelligence as a capability to identify, comprehend and convey emotions, integrate emotions in thinking, and manage affirmative and undesirable emotions in self and others (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002).

1.6.4 Operational Definition of Emotional Intelligence

The operational definition of emotional intelligence in this study is based on Bar-On (1997) conceptual definition of EI. Emotional intelligence is a collection of interrelated emotional and social competences and abilities that ascertain how successfully people recognize and convey themselves, know others and interact with them, and deal with everyday challenges and stresses (Bar-On, 1997).

In the present research, the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i: Short) was applied to measure emotional intelligence, which consists of 51 items (Bar-On, 2002). EQ-i: short version is based on the five dimensions of the Bar-On (1997) model: intrapersonal,

interpersonal, stress management, adaptability and general mood. Intrapersonal dimension denotes to the ability to understand and regulate one's emotions and express them in a constructive way. The sub-dimensions of the intrapersonal emotional quotient scale comprise self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization. The responses on the intrapersonal composite scale reflect that the individual is capable of self-understanding and accomplishing goals in the present situation.

Interpersonal dimension of emotional intelligence pertains to the capability to understand the feelings, concerns and needs of others. It shows the capability of an individual to develop and preserve collegial, healthy, convivially gratifying relationship. Mainly it is related to social awareness, abilities and interpersonal relationships. The sub-dimensions of the interpersonal scale include empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationship.

Adaptability dimension signifies the ability to manage and adapt to changes and deal effectively with intrapersonal and interpersonal problems. Adaptability dimension is comprised of reality testing, flexibility, and problem-solving scales. Stress management dimension represents the ability of an individual to regulate and deal with one's emotions efficaciously and constructively. The stress management dimension of EQ-i involves the subscales of stress tolerance and impulse control.

General mood dimension of emotional intelligence relates to the individual's capability to initiate affirmative temperament and have an optimistic attitude and a general feeling of contentment. It is similar to self-motivation. It consists of optimism and happiness (Bar-On, 2000).

1.6.5 General Definition of Work Motivation

The term "motivation" is originated from "movere", a Latin word that has the meaning of "to move". Based on this notion, motivation is defined by Atkinson (1964) as the current (instant) effect on persistence, vigor and course of action. Vroom (1964) suggested that motivation is a process that governs choice made by people among other possible kinds of intentional action. Motivation also defined as depending on a set of relationships between independent/dependent variables which describe the persistence, amplitude and direction of one's conduct, constantly persevering the influences of understanding, ability and aptitude for the work, and the limits in working in the situation (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976). There are three common denominators among the definitions of motivation. They mainly focus on the determinants or events that boost, direct and, sustain the behavior of human over time.

Work motivation is regarded as a cause that changes the way employee works and behaves (Steers & Porter, 1987). Motivation is a process that draws, regulates, and sustains particular behaviors. Each employee has diverse needs and wants which means motivation determinants are different for each employee (Anne, 1994). Berman, Bowman, West and Wart (2010) have defined motivation as a drive that pushes people to perform with persistence and energizes toward certain goals. Peklar and Bostjancic, (2012) suggested that work motivation is a steering of human activity towards an anticipated purpose by means of motives engendered internally in an individual or in his or her surroundings based on his or her needs.

1.6.6 Operational Definition of Work Motivation

The operational definition of work motivation is based on Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory. In self-determination theory, Ryan and Deci (2000a)

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distinguished between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. They defined intrinsic motivation as the inherent tendency to discover challenges and novelty, to expand and train a person's capacities, to investigate, and to learn. Extrinsic motivation denotes performing a task to achieve separable consequences (Ryan & Deci, 2000a).

In this study, 18-items Work Extrinsic Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS) was used to measure work motivation. This instrument was constructed by Tremblay, Blanchard, Taylor, Pelletier and Villeneuve (2009). WEIMS is intended to study personnel's work motivation by distinguishing motivation into different categories of behavioral regulation, which indicates either work self-determined motivation or work non-self-determined motivation. Work self-determined motivation involves identification, integration, and intrinsic motivation while work non-self-determined motivation consists of amotivation, external regulation, and introjection (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Work self-determined motivation refers to internal motivation and effectively incorporated external motivation which involves motivation based on self-interest in an action and the individual personally approve the significance of their work.

Work non-self-determined motivation involves external regulation which refers to behaviors being performed because of environmental demands or to gain self-worth or to evade guilt feelings. It reflects the degree of being compelled by extrinsic contingencies or by introjected complements.

1.6.7 General Definition of Organizational culture

The common understanding of employees, how things are performed is termed organizational culture (Wallach, 1983). Schein (1992) posited that organizational culture is a form of common fundamental suppositions which are understood by solving

challenges in inner assimilation and peripheral adjustment that has worked well enough to be regarded as effective. Then transferred to the other fellows because it is considered an accurate approach to deal with challenges. Detert, Schroeder and Mauriel (2000) defined organizational culture as the combination of artifacts (practices, forms or expressive symbols), beliefs and values as well as the underlying assumptions that members in the organization shared about appropriate behavior. Robins (2005) suggested that organizational culture is a system of shared connotation possessed by members that differentiate among organizations. Organizational culture is defined as beliefs and shared values over time which ultimately create behavioral norms that can be used to solve problems (Owens, 1987).

1.6.8 Operational Definition of Organizational Culture

Culture ascertains organizational character. It supports the advancement of particular kinds of capabilities and the application of particular values (Quinn & Cameron, 1983). In the present research, the operational definition of organizational culture is established on organizational culture model developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999).

Cameron and Quinn (1999) also constructed "Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)" to study organizational culture outline. This 24-items instrument was used in this study to measure organizational culture. It consists of six dimensions which are "dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, strategic emphasis, criteria of success, management of employees and organizational glue" and four types of cultures such as clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market. Clan cultures are like family and emphasize on nurturing, guiding and collaboration, while adhocracy oriented cultures are entrepreneurial and dynamic and emphasize on innovation, adaptableness and flexibility. Hierarchy oriented cultures are well-organized and regulated and

emphasize on steadiness, competence and predictableness. Conversely, market-oriented cultures are concerned with results and emphasize achievement, competition and winning (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

1.7 Research Framework

For the present study, a conceptual model was developed from the existing theories and models such as Bar-On (1997) model of emotional intelligence, self-determination theory by Deci and Ryan (1985), competing values framework by Cameron and Quinn (1999) and work commitment model by Morrow (1993). The research framework for this study shows the relationship among emotional intelligence (intrapersonal, interpersonal, stress management, adaptability and general mood), work motivation (work self-determined motivation and work non-self-determined motivation), organizational culture (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market) and work commitment (job involvement, affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment, occupational commitment and work ethic endorsement). In this study, emotional intelligence and work motivation are the independent variables, while work commitment is the dependent variable. This research framework has also examined organizational culture as the moderating variable in the relationship between emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment.

Independent variable of emotional intelligence is chosen based on the Bar-On (1997) model. Bar-On (1997) model of emotional intelligence is associated with the potentiality for achievement and enactment, it is concerned with the process instead of the outcome. Independent variable of work motivation is selected on the base of self-determination theory by Deci and Ryan (1985). In 1980, Deci and Ryan published the SDT. At that time, SDT emphasized the quality of motivation instead of the quantity.

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Deci and Ryan (1985) developed the theory based on six qualitatively distinct categories of motivation, which indicate either work self-determined motivation or work non-self-determined motivation. Work self-determined motivation is classified into intrinsic motivation, integrated and identified regulation and work non-self-determined motivation consists of introjected, external regulation and amotivation. From the organizational perspective, the basic distinction is that extrinsic motivation generates from another inducement rather than work.

In this study organizational culture is selected as a moderating variable founded on Cameron and Quinn's (1999) competing values framework to investigate the association between organizational culture and work commitment. The CVF is a generally applied framework in both theory and practice. It is selected due to its practicality in organizing and differentiating various culture types (Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Hartnell, Ou, & Angelo, 2011). Hence, its cultural types act as a determined organized framework to study the influence of different types of organizational culture (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market) on work commitment.

Work commitment is selected as a dependent variable based on the model of work commitment by Morrow (1983), which includes work ethic endorsement, job involvement, affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment and occupational commitment. The core of commitment which is termed as the 'binding force' can take various forms and dimensions. These forms identify the individuals' intricate motivations, give meanings to their lives and assess alternative causes to persist in a certain approach for activity. Such alternative causes may denote diverse rudimentary human necessities and can accordingly guide toward distinct

commitment forms (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). These forms connect to outline the work commitment of individuals.

Lastly, demographic variables of gender, age, work experience, work position, qualification and income are opted to investigate differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment.

The model illustrated in Figure 1.1 on page 29 proposes a framework that can be applied to evaluate the relationship among the variables.

Emotional Intelligence
- Intrapersonal
- Interpersonal
- Adaptability
- Stress Management
- General Mood

Bar-On Model of Emotional Intelligence (Bar-On, 1997)

Work Motivation
- Work self-determined Motivation
- Work non-self-determined Motivation

Self-Determination Theory of Work Motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985)

Demographic Variables
- Age
- Gender
- Work Experience
- Work Position
- Qualification
- Income

Work Commitment

Model of Work Commitment (Morrow, 1993)

Organizational Culture
- Clan
- Adhocracy
- Hierarchy
- Market

Competing Values Framework (Cameron & Quinn, 1999)

Note: Direct Paths ⟶

Moderated Paths - - - ⟶

Figure 1.1. Research and Theoretical Framework

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1.8 Hypotheses

Based on the research framework, the following hypothesis were developed.

1.8.1 Section A: Hypotheses from correlational aspect:

H1. There is a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H1a. There is a significant positive relationship between intrapersonal dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H1b. There is a significant positive relationship between interpersonal dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H1c. There is a significant positive relationship between adaptability dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H1d. There is a significant positive relationship between stress management dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H1e. There is a significant positive relationship between general mood dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H2. There is a significant positive relationship between work motivation and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H2a. There is a significant positive relationship between work self-determined motivation and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H2b. There is a significant negative relationship between work non-self-determined motivation and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H3. There is a significant positive relationship between organizational culture and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H3a. There is a significant positive relationship between clan type of organizational culture and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H3b. There is a significant positive relationship between adhocracy type of organizational culture and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H3c. There is a significant negative relationship between hierarchy type of organizational culture and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H3d. There is a significant negative relationship between market type of organizational culture and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

1.8.2 Section B: Hypotheses on moderating aspect:

H4. Organizational culture moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H4a. Clan type of organizational culture moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

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H4b. Adhocracy type of organizational culture moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H4c. Hierarchy type of organizational culture moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H4d. Market type of organizational culture moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H5. Organizational culture moderates the relationship between work motivation and work commitment.

H5a. Clan type of organizational culture moderates the relationship between work motivation and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H5b. Adhocracy type of organizational culture moderates the relationship between work motivation and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H5c. Hierarchy type of organizational culture moderates the relationship between work motivation and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H5d. Market type of organizational culture moderates the relationship between work motivation and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan.

1.8.3 Section C: Hypotheses from differential aspect:

H6. Differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment according to gender among university academic staff in Pakistan.

> H6a. There are significant differences in emotional intelligence according to gender among university academic staff in Pakistan.

> H6b.There are significant differences in work motivation according to gender among university academic staff in Pakistan.

> H6c.There are significant differences in work commitment according to gender among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H7. Differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment according to age among university academic staff in Pakistan.

> H7a. There are significant differences in emotional intelligence according to age among university academic staff in Pakistan.

> H7b. There are significant differences in work motivation according to age among university academic staff in Pakistan.

> H7c. There are significant differences in work commitment according to age among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H8. Differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment according to work experience among university academic staff in Pakistan.

> H8a: There are significant differences in emotional intelligence according to work experience among university academic staff in Pakistan.

> H8b: There are significant differences in work motivation according to work experience among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H8c: There are significant differences in work commitment according to work experience among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H9. Differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment according to work position among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H9a: There are significant differences in emotional intelligence according to work position among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H9b: There are significant differences in work motivation according to work position among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H9c: There are significant differences in work commitment according to work position among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H10. Differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment according to qualification among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H10a: There are significant differences in emotional intelligence according to qualification among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H10b: There are significant differences in work motivation according to qualification among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H10c: There are significant differences in work commitment according to qualification among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H11. Differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment according to income among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H11a: There are significant differences in emotional intelligence according to income among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H11b: There are significant differences in work motivation according to income among university academic staff in Pakistan.

H11c: There are significant differences in work commitment according to income among university academic staff in Pakistan.

Summary

This chapter starts with the background of the study. After establishing the background, problem statement has been presented. Based on the problem statement, research questions were listed followed by the research objectives. Then, significance of the study has been explained under the headings of academic, theoretical and practical significance. Subsequently, general and operational definitions of the study constructs have been described. The chapter ends with the research framework and hypotheses of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter delineates concepts linked to work commitment as appeared in the previous chapter. These concepts are outlined to furnish a theoretical underpinning for the research. The chapter begins with a summary of the notion of work commitment followed by outcomes from previous studies on work commitment. Afterwards, chapter discusses the major concepts of the study: organizational culture, emotional intelligence, work motivation and how they are related to work commitment.

2.2 Work Commitment

Work commitment is a state that may arise when an individual is involved in any activity that is relevant to work. The notion of multiple commitments comprises particular forms of commitment such as organization, occupation, and job (Blau, Paul, & St. John, 1993; Cohen, 1993, 1999, 2003; Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005; Randall & Cote, 1991). This concern has caused significant efforts to be put into constructing and expanding the theory as well as testing its main propositions empirically. However, no effort has been taken to construct the theory of multiple forms and plan its universe since the first attempt taken by Morrow (1983) by using a facet analysis of work commitment.

2.2.1 Models of Work Commitment

Based on the extensive overlap between the work commitment facets**,** empirical evidence recommended that Morrow's (1983) approach of four facets of work commitment, characterized by work ethic endorsement, job involvement,

organizational commitment and career commitment is well-grounded. Despite the consensus on the factors that underlie work commitment in the literature, there is little agreement on the structural process and interrelationships of work commitment forms.

Randall and Cote (1991) and Morrow (1993) created the first two work commitment models. Randall and Cote's (1991) model emphasized the element of job involvement as an element that acts to moderate the relationship between factors such as work ethic endorsement and career commitment, affective commitment, and continuance commitment. In comparison to this Morrow's (1993) model recognizes job involvement as a final dependent variable in the work commitment process.

Since the development of two original work commitment frameworks, additional models have been formed with the same idea (Carmeli & Gefen, 2005; Cohen, 1999; Freund & Carmeli, 2003). Each of these models has slightly different configurational paths between the five different work commitment frameworks. In addition, all five revised models have been formed using the modification indices and usually have not been validated in successive models.

Randall and Cote's (1991) model analyzed diverse conceptual ideas of work commitment: Work ethic, workgroup attachment, organizational commitment (affective commitment), career salience, and job involvement. Four dimensions of this construct (work ethic, career salience, affective organizational commitment, and job involvement) are consistent with four of the ideas of the general concepts of work commitment. Randall and Cote (1991) adopted just affective organizational commitment. Perhaps it's more suitable to consider the organizational commitment as involving two dimensions (affective commitment and continuance

commitment). Involving this form of continuous commitment to the Randall and Cote's model might disclose further conclusions.

Past researches have struggled to simplify the forms of work commitment. The commonly accepted themes from many researches on work commitment have defined work commitment with four facets: work values, job involvement, organizational commitment, and career commitment (Cohen, 1999; Hoole, 1997; Blau et al., 1993; Morrow, Eastman & McElroy, 1991; Randall & Cote, 1991). The current study will only use those concepts that emerge in the Morrow's (1993) model of work commitment.

2.2.2 Morrow's Model of Work Commitment

Morrow (1993) proposed that work commitment ought to be analyzed as a complementary construct, subsequent to an examination of a joint work commitment that may show up as a superior indicator of work outcomes (Wiener & Vardi, 1980) than does an examination of the impact of every type of work commitment on work outcomes.

Morrow (1993) contended that four essential types of work commitment have been recognized: work ethic endorsement, career commitment, job involvement, and organizational commitment. The assessment of these four commitment structures, henceforth, required another verbalization of the work commitment map. She proposed another guide of work commitment comprising of five segments: work ethic endorsement (Mirels & Garrett, 1971), career commitment (Greenhaus, 1971), job involvement (Blau & Boal, 1989), continuance organizational commitment, and effective organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

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The essential change in Morrow's proposition depended on an entrenched contention, as indicated by which organizational commitment can never again be seen as a unitary idea. In spite of the fact that studies keep on reviewing organizational commitment as a unitary idea, it is more fitting to view two autonomous types of organizational commitment: affective organizational commitment and continuance organizational commitment. The mission for all-inclusive types of work commitment, for the most part, expects to recognize types of work commitment significant to whatever number employees as could reasonably be expected (Morrow, 1993).

Morrow's "circles-based" model of work commitment represents various features of association. These features range from a somewhat stable feature to one that can be maneuvered. In Morrow's model, the outward circle refers to more manipulative and changeable attributes while the inner circle associated with comparatively stable attributes. Job involvement is located in the outward circle because it is contingent on change through activities like job design. Work ethic endorsement is located in the inward circle as it is comparatively stable attribute during the course of the worker's lifespan. The inward circles influence the outward circles but the farther the outward circle is from the center, the lower the level of effect (Morrow, 1993).

For instance, work ethic endorsement supposes to influence both continuance organizational commitment and career commitment but it tends to have a more significant impact on career commitment than on continuance commitment. Based on Morrow's model, work ethic endorsement is associated with both continuance commitment and career commitment whereas career commitment is associated with both affective commitment and continuance commitment. The latter is certainly associated with job involvement and concurrently facilitate the relationship between

job involvement, career commitment and work ethic endorsement. Morrow (1983) posited that work ethic endorsement and career commitment are relatively fixed; organizational commitment can be manipulated and job involvement is somewhat changeable over one's life.

2.2.2.1 Forms of Work Commitment

The following diagram portrays how each attitude incorporates to form the individual's general work commitment level.
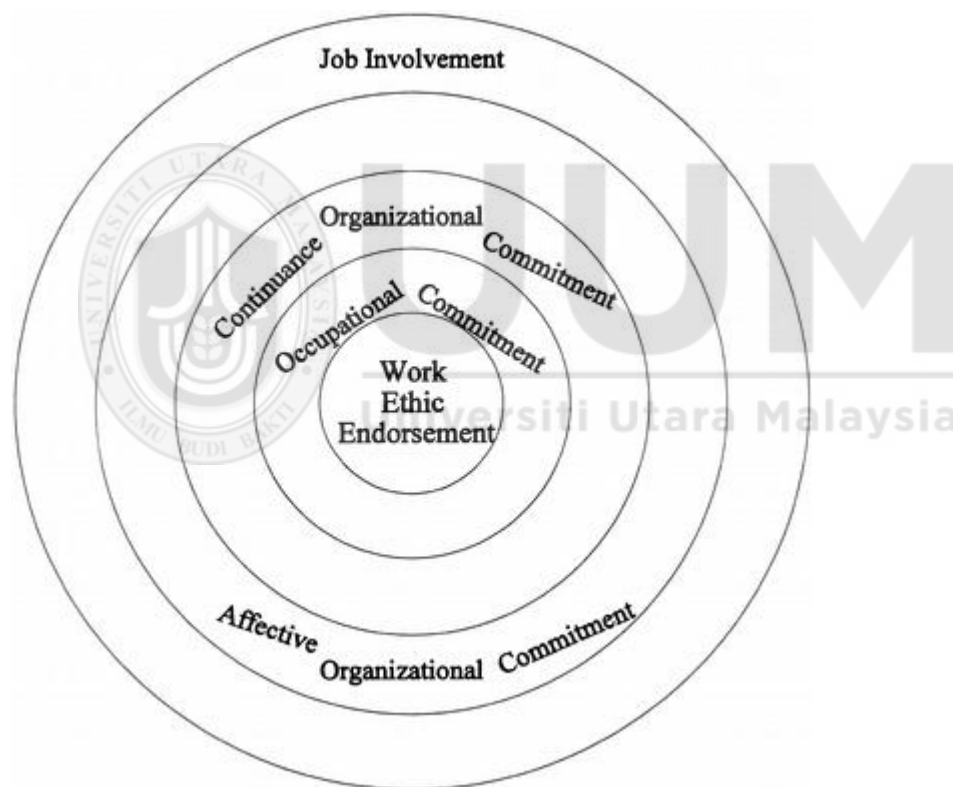
Figure 2.1 Morrow's concentric circle model of work commitment. Adapted from Morrow (1993, p.163)

2.2.2.1.1 Job Involvement

Job involvement is generally construed as the level of engagement in everyday work by an employee. One's values, work ethic (personal characteristics), needs, the job

characteristics and the setting of organization (environment) can be used in determining the level of job involvement. Workers who have low job involvement will feel distanced by bearing that the jobs they are doing are useless, that they have no value in the company, or there is no association between their self-concept and their work (Hafer & Martin, 2006).

According to PSUWC (as cited in Brenen, 2016), job involvement is related with job satisfaction. The demands, commitment and inspiration that a worker encounters within the job influence the strength in job involvement. One's engagement within the job is based on voluntary basis. Hence, when the workers engage within the job, the job satisfaction will increase. Turnover and absenteeism can also be reduced by strength of job involvement.

One of the main challenges faced by the directors is to keep the engagement of employees. As Stirling (2008) has stated, people who are happy are generally productive people and studies have shown that productivity within a group is determined by relationships. The objective is to make workers to care about and identify with their works. The more successful it is, the more important the job is for employees' work identity or self-image that shows the fundamental description for job involvement (Hafer & Martin as cited in Brenen, 2016).

2.2.2.1.2 Affective Organizational Commitment

It is defined as the feelings of devotion owned by a person to an organization or company that derived from the belief in the organization. Affective commitment is the most ordinary type analyzed and it carries the meaning as an employee's emotive association with and identification to the organization. A faithful employee is always willful to take the goals of the organization. This kind of commitment also states that a

person chooses to remain in the organization because the person wants to. It is the consequence of an encouraging work environment where the employees are appraised equally and the importance is given to individual contribution (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

As suggested by Hawkins (1998), this kind of commitment can improve job satisfaction as the objectives and principles of the organization are agreed by the employees, they feel that there is fair treatment in terms of equity and they are given organizational support, care and concern. It is the consequence of an encouraging work environment where the employees are treated equally and the importance of individual contributors is adopted.

2.2.2.1.3 Continuance Organizational Commitment

It is defined as the feeling experienced by the employee which he/she needs to remain in the company due to a high cost of leaving. This can be seen where the employee upholds the organizational commitment as the benefits or wage offered by other organization are not matched. The presence of continuance commitment which retains the employee is due to the fact that the employee has to stay. For instance, when an employee has invested so much time in an organization, accumulated years of leave, salary and employee benefits (pension), he or she will lose the pension, seniority and the time invested if he/she chooses to leave the organization. Since it brings no benefits to the employee, his decision to stay is based on the fact that he has to but not the loyalty he has on the organization. Even the employees stay in a company, there is no obligation for them to work at a high level (Meyer & Allen, 1991). According to Mowday et al. (1979), as compared to other sectors, government employees are said to have greater continuance commitment due to their perceived comparative job security.

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2.2.2.1.4 Career Commitment (Occupational commitment)

Career commitment involves occupational commitment and professional commitment. While there are minor differences in each of these forms of commitment, they are considered relatively analogous. Therefore, these terms are interchangeable and each of them can be used to formulate the entire category (Meyer et al., 1993; Wallace, 1993; Snape & Redman, 2003).

As time progresses, one's commitment to respective organizations has changed. Commitment to career progresses with the financial means and pays minimum attention to the social associations. As compared to organizational commitment, career commitment pays more attention to the people and their career path. Organizational commitment is connected to the desire of employees to remain in an organization or the employees' feeling of intense connection with the certain organization while career commitment refers to one's commitment to a specific profession.

Goulet and Singh (2002) conducted several researches and conclude that, if one is involved in his organization and job and he enjoys being in that position, he tends to have a high career commitment. Surprisingly, scholars do not agree on which commitment category influences each other. Chang (1999) states that organizational commitment is significantly affected by career commitment, while Goulet and Singh (2002) report the opposite situation. Nonetheless, it is found that people with a strong intensity of commitment to career have more expectations for the organization that employs them (Chang, 1999). Moreover, employees tend to identify with their organization if the organization is perceived to be helpful in achieving their personal goals. As a result, when compared to colleagues who have a low level of career commitment, people with a high commitment to career will respond more positively

when their expectations are fulfilled and more adversely in the opposite case (Maier & Brunstein, 2001).

2.2.2.1.5 Work Ethic Endorsement

Max Weber was a German sociologist who first defined the concept of Protestant work ethic. Most investigation of work values has been piloted against the framework of Max Weber's Protestant work ethic (as cited in Hoole, 1997). Pinder (2008) stated that the concept of work ethic is about one's aspiration to work and it has been identified as an individual differences variable and said to be an attribute of personality.

Based on the Protestant work ethic, Weber suggested that the spirit of capitalism gains support from the protestant portrayal of work values as they emphasize on the importance of never-ending hard work and give a moral explanation for the wealth accumulation (as cited in Atieh, Brief, & Vollrath, 1987). He also tracked down the early development of modern work ethic back to Puritan belief in the 16th era and concluded that the perseverance in executing a work is probably the greatest form of obedience in Christianity (Mudrack, 1993).

Nowadays, however, work ethic does not have any connection with being protestant or even religious (Mudrack, 1993). A recent description of work ethic pays more attention to the conservation of resources, devotion to drudgery, the avoidance of waste and idleness in any form and deferment of immediate rewards (Christopher, Zabel, & Jones, 2008).

According to Miller, Woehr and Hudspeth (2002), work ethic is defined as a group of beliefs and attitudes that is related to work behavior. The attributes of the construct of work ethic are that it (1) has different dimensions; (2) relates to work and work-related

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events generally, is not confined to any specific occupation (domains may be generalized other than work through-leisure activities, schools); (3) is acquired; (4) talks about beliefs and attitudes (not essentially behavior); (5) reflects motivational construct in behaviors; and (6) is materialistic, not essentially connected to any kind of spiritual principles.

The concept of work ethic has been linked to several values such as wise, hard work, delay of gratification, autonomy, efficient use of time, the intrinsic value of work and fairness. As a result, people who own these principles are considered having a high level of work ethic (Pogson, Cober, Doverspike, & Rogers, 2003). In various settings, people do not think of external determinants such as available resources to do a job, one's levels of ability and other explanatory situations, hence, they do not understand one's work ethic successfully (Pinder, 2008). A person will be regarded as lazy and has a low level of work ethic if the effects of these causes are not known.

According to PSUWC (as cited in Brenen, 2016), the work ethic of an employee tends to be blamed by the bosses for any failures about work prior to the investigation of other plausible reasons, such as deficiency in resources or abilities to get certain tasks done. According to Meriac, Poling and Woehr (2009), studies have shown that work-related outcomes and work ethic are positively related. It is also proposed that people who have a robust work ethic strive harder, do well at tedious assignments compared to others, persist longer and are very competitive (Mudrack, 1993).

2.2.3 Previous Studies on Work Commitment

Currently, the best strategic resources for any organization are human capital. The effective and efficient utilization of human assets is affected by the psycho-social factors of humans and therefore it also influences performance. In this scenario, a key

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concept that should be considered is work commitment. Which signify that it is obligatory for the employees to identify with the organizational tasks and feel an affiliation to the job. Besides the significance of this subject is highlighted by the fact that work commitment is also associated with other organizational variables. Once the research is examined from this perspective, significant correlations are noticed between different forms of commitment such as organizational commitment, career commitment and organizational aspects such as job satisfaction, productivity and performance (Guney et al., 2012).

The concept of work commitment has several distinctive aspects that encompass diverse manifestations. These various dimensional aspects of work commitment have been constructed by scholars who contended that individuals experience multiple forms of work commitment (Becker, 1960) and that categories are as per the members' own particular advantages (Ritzer & Trice, 1969). Professionals may develop commitment not only toward their organization but also toward other constituencies within their regular contacts (Becker, 2009).

 These commitment foci may be within the organization, such as team leader or work groups, or beyond the organization such as clients and professional groups (Yalabik, Van Rossenberg, Kinnie, & Swart, 2015). Therefore, past studies have performed researches to comprehend various internal, or micro, and external, or macro, level foci of commitment, which are developed as employees work within and beyond the organization (Redman & Snape, 2005; Vandenberghe, 2009). Generally, the micro-level foci encompass investigating commitment to teams and supervisors (Becker, 2009). Commitment to organization, occupation, career and union comprises macro-level research (Vandenberghe, 2009). To improve understanding of employees'

attitudes within public universities, present research focused on work commitment which is based on work ethic endorsement, career commitment, job involvement, continuance organizational commitment and effective organizational commitment.

Employee commitment is significant due to numerous positive organizational outcomes, (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006). Meta-analyses revealed that there is a negative correlation between turnover (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005), absenteeism (Farrell & Stamm, 1988), counterproductive behavior (Dalal, 2005) and commitment, Whereas job satisfaction (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005), motivation (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), and organizational citizenship behaviors (Riketta, 2002) are positively related to commitment. Non-committed employees may portray their organization negatively in public thus deterring the organization's ability to recruit potential employees (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982).

Similarly, Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran (2005) conducted met analysis to identify the correlation among dimensions of work commitment and the effects of work commitment and its forms on the outcome factors such as job contentment, job performance and turnover. Findings showed that in most of the studies correlation among variables were small and findings revealed similar pattern of relationship between commitment forms and outcome variables. Salim, Kamarudin and Kadir (2010) studied lecturers of MARA professional colleges of Malaysia by applying survey method to examine the association between job satisfaction, job involvement, perceived organizational support and organizational commitment. Findings indicated an association among study variables. Daneshfard and Ekvaniyan (2012) performed a study on organizational commitment and job satisfaction in Iran. Results showed a

positive correlation between job satisfaction and affective and normative organizational commitment.

Likewise, Awang, Ahmad and Zin (2010) studied 320 lecturers using survey method to ascertain the influence of job satisfaction on their commitment towards educational accomplishments and examined causal aspects of job satisfaction in university technology MARA Kelantan, Malaysia. Findings indicated a significant association between job satisfaction and work commitment. Eghlidi and Karimi (2016) conducted a study on 202 female employees of the university of Isfahan and observed the correlation between constituents of work engagement and organizational commitment. Results showed a positive relationship between components of work engagement and organizational commitment.

Moreover, Singh and Gupta (2015) conducted a study on 477 full-time employees of 13 organizations using survey method in India. The professional commitment was negatively associated with job involvement, team commitment, organizational commitment (affective, normative commitment). A positive correlation was found among job involvement, team commitment, affective and normative organizational commitment.

The cause behind the promotion of research on commitment is to generate and sustain competitive edge because organizations rely on committed employees (Akintayo, 2010). According to Ushie, Ogaboh and Okorie (2015), employees' commitment is vital for organizational accomplishments as it effects the significant employee related variables such as low morale, absenteeism, turn over, low productivity and further adverse inclinations. Ajila and Awonusi (2004), considered commitment as one of the contributing factor for personnel performance.

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Additionally, by using cluster analysis commitment profiles of 157 individuals were created from different organizations including schools and joint effect of three constituents of organizational and occupational commitment on work outcomes was investigated. Findings indicated occupational commitment as a predictor of work-related variables. Compatibility of occupational and organizational commitment was shown in four commitment profiles (highly committed, non-committed, affective–normative dominant, continuance dominant). Highly committed profile demonstrated the positive influence on fundamental and voluntary behaviors. Findings revealed that compatibility rather than conflict determine the nature of the relationship between organizational and occupational commitment (Tsoumbris & Xenikou, 2010).

Kim and Chang (2014) surveyed 209 employees in nine different Korean firms and examined the effects of the organizational commitment and occupational commitment on turnover intentions of workers and organizational citizenship behaviors. Findings concluded that organizational commitment negatively effects turnover intentions and positively effects organizational citizenship behaviors. Whereas occupational commitment positively effects turnover intentions but did not effect organizational citizenship behaviors. Both forms of commitment revealed interactional effects concerning turnover intentions and organizational citizenship behaviors. Likewise, Duarte (2015) conducted research on 420 nurses to study the association between organizational and professional commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors. Findings revealed organizational commitment and professional commitment predict organizational citizenship behaviors.

Moreover, Major, Morganson and Bolen (2013) examined the predictors of occupational and organizational commitment. They studied 1,229 IT specialists using

the survey method and their findings confirmed that job security, satisfaction with progress possibilities and work-family culture were associated with commitment outcomes.

In addition, Margaritoiu (2015) examined the causes behind the commitment of special schools' teachers from Prahova Province using document analysis approach. Findings revealed a significant relationship between teachers' commitment with the achievement and wellbeing of special children that predict resonance of teachers' humanity and loyalty. Another study investigated the determinants of person-job compatibility among IT workers and person-job compatibility impact toward work commitment. Findings suggested that a significant positive relationship exist between person- job compatibility and work commitment and company policies are significant factor for predicting work commitment (Therasa & Vijayabanu, 2016).

Researchers have also conducted numerous studies to understand the important factors which contribute toward work commitment. Guney, Diker, Güney, Ayranci and Solmaz (2012) investigated the effects of communication on the work commitment of employees. Both open and closed communication had a positive effect on work commitment. The possible reason explained by the researcher was that closed communication is associated with bureaucratic manner and relevant to public organizations with bureaucratic culture. A research was conducted on 1194 employees of agro-industries by applying survey method in Nigeria to investigate the effects of work environment on employees' commitment. A positive correlation was found between the work environment and employees' commitment and performance (Ushie et al., 2015).

Moreover, past studies have verified the role of empowerment in developing organizational commitment (Bogler & Somech, 2004). Empowered employees experience the significance of their tasks, they feel self-efficacy and autonomy over their activities (Macsinga, Sulea, Sarbescu, Fischmann, & Dumitru, 2014). In another study, psychological empowerment was positively related to organizational commitment (Hamid, Nordin, Adnan, & Sirun, 2013). Nyakaro (2016) conducted a study on non-teaching staff in public universities in Kenya to investigate the effects of recognition on workplace commitment. The study revealed a significant relationship between recognition and commitment at work and supervisory recognition and employee commitment.

Furthermore, Mohammadtaheri (2011) examined factors effecting work commitment of 340 high school teachers of Tehran using the descriptive method. Results depicted a significant positive correlation between financial factors, social relationship, knowledge, in-school features, ethics system, personality traits of teachers. In another study, the effects of employment factors were examined to ascertain the work commitment of elementary teachers. Synthetic methods were used to advance the teaching and learning settings. Findings showed that according to teachers' opinion, their comprehension of the program advantageousness to teachers' roles and approaches, school setting and their relationships with parents of students have a remarkable influence on the work commitment. Additionally, it was suggested that such programs should be receptive to the teachers' ethics to generate required teaching perceptions to enhance commitment in teachers (Jourdan, Stirling, Mannix McNamara & Pommier, 2011)

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Moreover, Fransson and Frelin (2016) studied teacher commitment, and specifically levels of sustained commitment throughout teaching careers by using semi-structured interview approach. Out of the 72, who participated on overall nine occasions, eight teachers were found having record levels of commitment all through their careers and were nominated for further interviews. Factors such as close collegial relationship, positive attitude towards life, humanity and school, and professional development were appeared significant for teachers' sustained commitment. Teachers disapproved material factors like career, status and a high salary in favor of internal driving forces.

Moreover, several studies have been performed to investigate differences in commitment forms based on demographic variables. Peng, Ngo, Shi and Wong (2009) examined 582 personnel in Beijing to investigate the variances in work commitment based on gender. The correlation was found among employee work commitment, organizational support, job characteristic, and gender discrimination perception. Women scored less than men on job commitment, however, level of organizational commitment was the same in both genders. Similarly, Konya, Matic and Pavlovic (2016) found insignificant differences in organizational commitment based on gender.

Likewise, Rabindarang, Bing, Khoo and Yin (2014) found no substantial dissimilarities on the bases of gender, marital status and educational qualification in organizational commitment. Findings have indicated differences on the base of age groups in organizational commitment. Dalgıc (2014) performed a meta-analysis to examine the association between teachers' gender and organizational commitment. Findings revealed insignificant differences in the organizational commitment based on of gender. Contrary to above studies, Adenguga, Adenuga and Ayodele (2013) indicated significant differences in organizational commitment and turnover intention on the

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bases of demographic factors such as gender, marital status, educational status, job type and job tenure. These contradictory findings may be attributable to cultural factors.

In brief, commitment is established within a person as well as in the individual standards, occupational preferences and micro-political, social, emotional perspective of the work. Therefore, it is considered as an entrenched phenomenon (Day & Gu, 2007). Thus, it is vital for employers to hire personnel which is highly skilled and demonstrates dedication to the job. Commitment is the key element to inspire loyalty among employees and drive psychological devotion to various targets: organizations, jobs, careers, unions, teams, most important the work itself (Lee & Chen, 2013).

Table 2.1

A Summary of the Selected Literature on Work Commitment.

Authors	Purpose	Sample	Key Findings
Therasa and Vijayabanu (2016).	To investigate the determining factors of person- job compatibility among IT workers and impact of person- job compatibility toward work commitment.	$N = 300$ employees of private software company from India.	Findings revealed a significant positive relationship between person- job compatibility and work commitment.
Nyakaro (2016)	To study the effects of recognition on workplace commitment.	$N = 256$ University non-teaching staff from Kenia.	The study found that a significant relationship exist between recognition and workplace commitment.
Fransson and Frelin (2016).	To study levels of sustained commitment during the teaching career.	$N = 72$ School teachers from Swedan.	Certain factors are vital for teachers' sustained commitment such as close collegial relationship, positive attitude towards life, humanity and school, and professional development.

Table 2.1 Continued

Ushie et al. (2015).	To examine the effects of work environment on employees' commitment.	*N* = 1194 Employees from Agro industries in Nigeria.	Findings showed a significant positive relationship.
Margaritoiu (2015).	To study the causes behind the commitment of special schools teachers.	*N* = 28 school teachers from Romania.	Results showed that teachers' commitment with the achievement and wellbeing of special children predict importance of teachers' humanity and loyalty
Major, Morganson and Bolen (2013).	To investigate the predictors of occupational and organizational commitment.	*N* = 1229 IT professionals From United States.	It was found that certain factors are associated with commitment outcomes such as work-family culture, job security, satisfaction with progress possibilities.

An analysis of the literature presented above shows that certain factors have remarkable influence on work commitment such as job security, satisfaction with progress possibilities, work-family culture and occupational stress (Major, Morganson & Bolen, 2013), Communication (Guney, Diker, Güney, Ayranci & Solmaz, 2012), empowerment (Bogler & Somech, 2004; Hamid, Nordin, Adnan, & Sirun, 2013; Macsinga, Sulea, Sarbescu, Fischmann, & Dumitru, 2014), recognition (Nyakaro, 2016), financial factors, social relationship, knowledge, in-school features, ethics system, personality traits (Mohammadtaheri, 2011), work environment and relationships with parents of students (Jourdan, Stirling, Mannix McNamara & Pommier, 2011) and close collegial relationship, positive attitude towards life, humanity and professional development (Fransson & Frelin, 2016).

A close analysis of these factors reveals that most of them are directly or indirectly associated with emotional intelligence such as social relationships, personality traits, relationships with co-workers, administrators and parents of students, positive attitude, occupational stress; organizational culture such as work environment, work-family culture, ethics system, humanity, empowerment, open and close communication; work motivation such as recognition, financial factors, job security, professional development, satisfaction with progress possibilities.

In addition, it is also evident from the past literature that most of the earlier studies have been performed on different forms of work commitment individually, causes and predictors of work commitment and impact of work commitment on job outcomes. However, there is a paucity of research on work commitment as a whole and how it is affected by the most influential variables like emotional intelligence, work motivation and organizational culture. Moreover, the literature shows inconsistent findings in work commitment based on demographic variables. Hence, to bridge this gap present study has investigated the moderating effects of organizational culture on the relationship between emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment.

2.3 Emotional Intelligence

Current professionals in the area of emotional intelligence have been influenced by Thorndike (1920) and Gardner (1983). Emotional intelligence is categorized by the theoretical paradigm in two broad perspectives: mixed and ability models. Ability model consider emotional intelligence as a complete form of rational capability, therefore, it is regarded as an absolute intellect. Meanwhile, mixed models of emotional intelligence amalgamate mental ability with personality features such as welfare and optimism (Mayer, 1999).

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2.3.1 Emotional Intelligence (EI) Mixed Models

Two mixed models of emotional intelligence have been introduced, each within a slightly dissimilar concept. The model introduced by Bar-On (1997) based within the context of personality theory. It states that ability characteristics of emotional intelligence depend on personality traits and apply such characteristics to individual welfare. Whereas Daniel Goleman suggested a mixed model based on performance, incorporating one's capacities and personality then employing their resultant effects on performance in the organization (Goleman, 2001). At present, Salovey and Mayer (1990) have proposed the only ability model of emotional intelligence.

2.3.1.1 Salovey and Mayer: An Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence

Salovey and Mayer (1990) created the term "Emotional Intelligence". From there, research on the significance of such an idea has been conducted. Their theory of emotional intelligence combines the main concepts from the fields of emotion and intelligence. The notion that intelligence consists of the capability to make abstract reasoning departs from the theory of intelligence. Meanwhile, the concept that emotions are signs that deliver consistent and discernible denotations about relations comes from the research on emotional intelligence. They argue that the ability in handling information relating to emotions and in associating emotional processing to a wider reasoning is different for each individual. Then, they postulate that this ability is seen to demonstrate itself in some adaptive behaviors (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002).
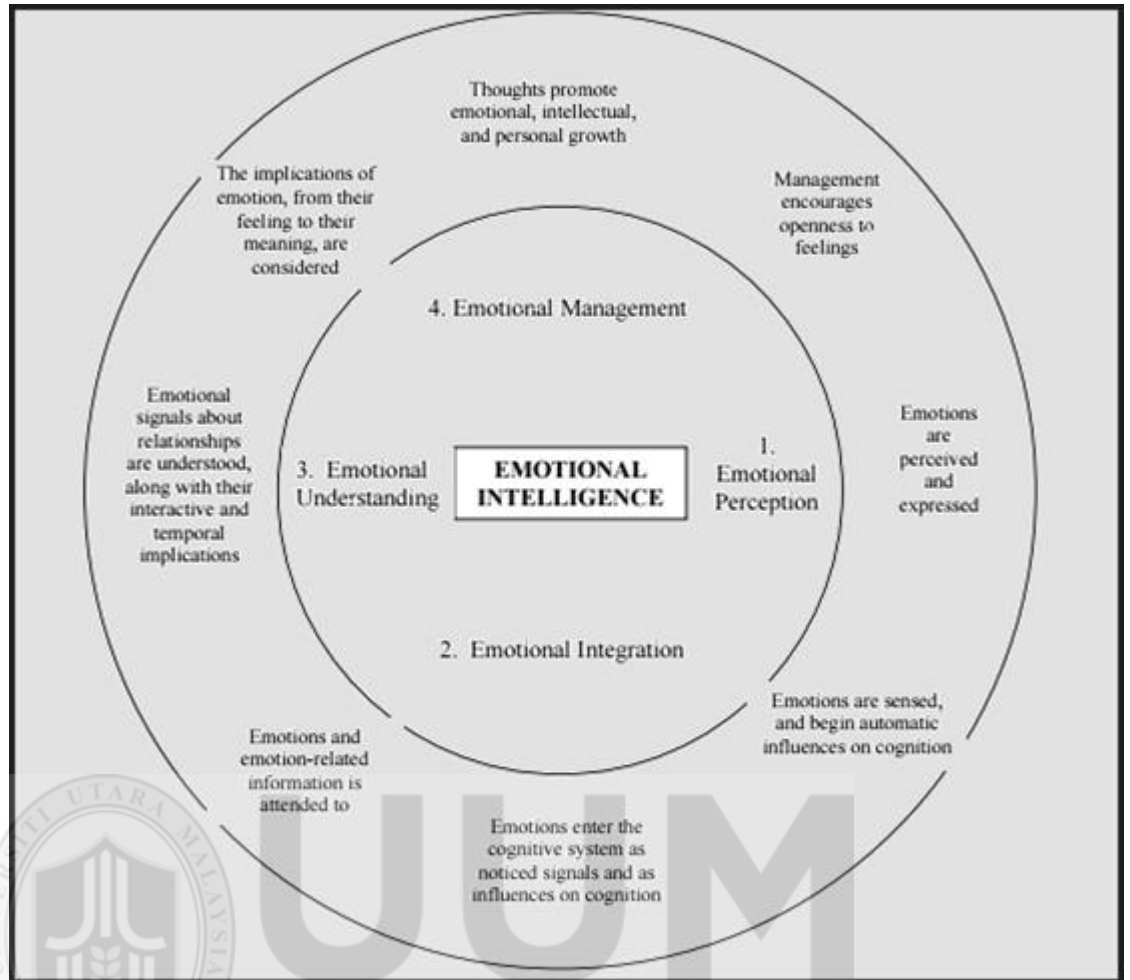
Figure 2.2. Mayer and Salovey's Four-Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence: Adapted from Mayer and Salovey (1997).

The conception of emotional intelligence by Mayer and Salovey is founded within a model of emotional intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003). It is suggested that emotional intelligence involves two areas: experiential (capacity to perceive, respond, and influence emotive data with lacked comprehending) and strategic (understanding ability and handle emotions with lacked perception of feeling or complete experience).

Two fields are then separated into four subdivisions that cover different areas of emotional intelligence. (1) Perception of emotion refers to the capacity to know and

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convey one's emotions precisely to another. It comprises the capacity to differentiate between truthful and untruthful emotional assertion. (2) Emotional integration refers to the capability to discriminate among individuals' various emotions and to recognize the ones which affect individual reasoning. (3) Understanding of emotions refers to the capability to comprehend complicated emotions because the same emotion can have different meanings in different situations. (4) Management of emotion refers to the individual's skill to manipulate the indications of emotions. Whether he should attach or detach from an emotional situation based on its value (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

2.3.1.2 Goleman: A Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence

Daniel Goleman was a psychologist and science writer. He wrote a research about brain and behavior for the New York Times. He came across the work of Salovey and Mayer (1990). Their outcomes had motivated Goleman (1995) to begin an investigation in the field and finally composed "Emotional Intelligence", the revolutionary book which introduced the government and private departments to the concept of emotional intelligence.

	Self (Personal Competence)	Other (Social Competence)
Recognition	**Self-Awareness** •Emotional self-awareness •Accurate self-assessment • Self-confidence	**Social Awareness** • Empathy • Service orientation •Organizational awareness
Regulation	**Self-Management** • Emotional self-control • Trustworthiness • Conscientiousness • Adaptability • Achievement drive • Initiative	**Relationship Management** • Developing others • Influence • Communication • Conflict management • Visionary leadership • Catalyzing change • Building bonds •Teamwork and collaboration

Figure 2.3. Danial Goleman's Model of Emotional Competencies: Adapted from Cherniss and Goleman (2001, p.28).

Four primary emotional intelligence concepts have been outlined in Goleman's model. First, self-awareness refers to the ability to interpret personal emotions and to be aware of their consequences while using inner feelings to lead decisions. Second, self-management includes managing personal emotions and urges and accommodating to dynamic environments. Third, social awareness comprises the capability to detect, comprehend, and respond to other's emotions while understanding social systems. Forth, relationship management involves the capability to encourage, affect, and help others' to develop while handling conflict (Goleman, 1998).

A group of emotional competencies is included within each concept of emotional intelligence. Emotional competencies are not inborn traits rather they are the learned abilities that have to be developed with regards to accomplishing excellent performance. As suggested by Goleman, by birth individuals have common emotional intelligence that defines their capabilities in picking up emotional competencies. The competencies under the several constructs are not arranged by chance, in fact, they are organized in synergistic groups that assist each other (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000).

2.3.1.3 Bar-On: A Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence

Reuven Bar-On, the director of the Institute of Applied Intelligences in Denmark and consultant for many organizations and institutions in Israel, constructed "Emotion Quotient", the measure of emotional intelligence. It emphasized a collection of social and emotional capabilities, comprising the ability to know, comprehend, and express oneself, the capability to be aware of, comprehend, and relate to others, the ability in managing strong emotions, and the ability to accommodate to change and deal with social or personal problems (Bar-On, 1997). Bar-On (2002) suggests that emotional

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intelligence grows with the passage of time and it can be enhanced by coaching, programming, and therapy.

Bar-On considers that people with above average E.Q are generally more prosperous in meeting challenges and stresses from the surroundings. He also perceives that the absence of success and the presence of emotional problems are due to the insufficiency of emotional intelligence. According to Bar-On, individuals who achieve less score on the subscales of reality testing, problem-solving, stress tolerance, and impulse control are typically among those who have problems in adapting to one's surroundings. Overall, one's general intelligence is equally influenced by emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence and it provides a signal on the possibility of success in one's life (Bar-On, 2002).

Bar-On (2000) regarded emotional intelligence as a non-cognitive intelligence. As reported by Goleman (1995) and Carmeli (2003), emotional intelligence of employees is important for an organization. Bar-On (2000) perceives EI as a vital element in deciding one's living a productive life, making progress in the world. He recognizes five important dimensions and fifteen sub-dimensions.

Main component	Sub-component	Competency
Intrapersonal	• Self-regard	• To accurately perceive, understand and accept oneself.
	• Emotional self-awareness	• To be aware of and understand one's own emotions.
	• Assertiveness	• To effectively and constructively express one's emotions and oneself.
	• Independence	• To be self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others.
	• Self-actualisation	• To strive to achieve personal goals and actualise one's potential.
Intrapersonal	• Empathy	• To be aware of and understand how others feel.
	• Social responsibility	• To identify with one's social group and cooperate with others.
	• Interpersonal relationship	• To establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well with others.
Stress management	• Stress tolerance	• To effectively and constructively manage emotions.
	• Impulse control	• To effectively and constructively control emotions.
Adaptability	• Reality testing	• To objectively validate one's feelings and thinking with external reality.
	• Flexibility	• To adapt and adjust one's feelings and thinking to new situations.
	• Problem solving	• To effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature.
General mood	• Optimism	• To be positive and look at the brighter side of life.
	• Happiness	• To feel content with oneself, others and life in general.

Figure 2.4. Bar-On Model of Emotional Intelligence: Adapted from Bar-On (2006, p. 21).

Through the educational application, Bar-On (2007) endorsed the study of social and emotional intelligence. He is recognized for developing one of the most frequently used tools for assessing emotional intelligence, the EQ-I (Brown, Bryant, & Reilly, 2006). Current research is using Bar-On model since it focuses on findings that have been drawn from researches conducted over the years. Bar-On has kept on modifying the definition of the Bar-On model and its factorial elements. As a result, those features that were recognized as being valid were maintained and others were discarded. This model is empirically validated.

2.3.2 Previous Studies on Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence brings a lot of benefits in many aspects. It is widely utilized in the professional workplace. Emotional intelligence discusses the emotional, personal, social, and survival components of intelligence, that are usually very imperative for regular performance in addition to rational features of intelligence (Bar-On, 1997).

Previous researches have specified that organizational, individual and peripheral elements have a significant effect on organizational commitment. Emotional intelligence has been established to influence organizational commitment within individual dominion (Masrek, Osman, Ibrahim, & Mansor, 2015). A key element for employees is emotional intelligence. It enables employees to have control of and manage their emotions effectively, especially when having to interact with others to carry out and complete the given tasks. With stable emotions, employees are more likely to make positive contributions toward achieving the strategic goals, this further leads to an enhanced level of work commitment and organizational output (Sukumaran & Sivelingam, 2012).

Similarly, Moghadam, Jorfi and Jorfi (2010) believed in the idea that emotional intelligence affects the efficiency level and helping to achieve desirable results in education as well as other sectors. In another study, the association between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment was found to be positively significant when examined among college teachers of Pakistan (Shafiq & Rana, 2016), university librarians in Pakistan (Khan, Masrek & Nadzar, 2014) and employees of Ramin Thermal Power Plant in Iran (Alavi, Mojtahedzadeh, Amin, and Savoji, 2013). Mohamadkhani and Lalardi, (2012) study also revealed a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment and some of the components of these variables when investigated on 423 employees of public 5-star hotels in Tehran.

Moreover, Hassan, Jani, Som, Hamid, & Azizam (2015) carried out a study on university academic staff at UiTM, Puncak Alam, Selangor to investigate how emotional intelligence and teaching effectiveness are related. Findings revealed a positive relationship between emotional intelligence abilities and teaching effectiveness. Emotional intelligence was found to be related with great self-confidence and job commitment. Dolev and Leshem (2017) examined the impact of emotional intelligence training program. Findings concluded the effectiveness of EI training programs in advancing positive EI behaviors and support the development of EI through training.

Since emotionally intelligent employees are not motivated by extrinsic needs. They are self-motivated. When they came across discontent and compelled by an internal drive, they react with flexibility and optimism. Advancing in emotional intelligence can result in highly committed and promised employees (Deleon, 2015). By using data of 1,200

teachers from 60 schools, the researcher examined the effects of emotional intelligence (EI) on work commitment and satisfaction in the teaching career. A significant positive relationship was found between emotional intelligence, work commitment and satisfaction in the teaching career (Salim et al., 2015).

In addition, Asrar-ul-Haq, Anwar and Hassan (2017) performed research in the education sector of Pakistan to examine the impact of emotional intelligence on the job performance of university teachers. Findings verified the influence of emotional intelligence on the teacher's job performance. Further analysis showed that a teacher's job performance is significantly influenced by emotional self-awareness, self-confidence, achievement, developing others and conflict management. Raza, Saleem and Qamar (2014) also demonstrated the significant role of emotional intelligence and its influence on organizational commitment as well as job performance in the banking sector of Pakistan.

 Similarly, support from the previous studies demonstrates that highly emotional intelligent individuals have more satisfied, more productive lives and appear successful at the job (Tischler et al., 2002). Abraham (1999) stated that emotional intelligence individual deals effectively with any problems and failures encountered in the organizational work. According to Carmeli (2003), employees can distinguish, handle and make use of their emotions according to the situations to eliminate the obstacles in the way of selecting and making better progress towards achieving career goals.

Dynamic organizations hire personnel with great emotional steadiness. Emotional intelligence is the understanding of self and others emotions and their reaction and meandering that emotional response with a constructive approach to accomplish objectives of organization (Khan, Asghar, & Chughtai, 2013). Sarboland (2012) was of

the view that workforce that possesses a high level of emotional intelligence is much more likely to commit to the organization. Anari (2012) performed a study on 84 high school English teachers from Kerman high schools in Iran. A positive significant association was found between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment, and between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In another study, dimensions of emotional intelligence and effective component of organizational commitment strongly predicted the job satisfaction among teachers in business, computing and engineering staff (Seyal & Afzaal, 2013).

Additionally, Madani and Asgari (2014) supported the emotional intelligence role among the success factors in the professional, educational and social relationships and their impact on management, productivity, organizational and job attitudes. Although multiple factors influence an individual's productivity and commitment, emotional intelligence plays a much more vital role in increasing individual's commitment in the organization. By using the data from 169 academics researcher concluded a significant relationship among emotional intelligence, leadership behavior and organizational commitment (Nordin, 2012).

Taboli (2013) noted that a low level of emotional intelligence negatively impacts organizational commitment. He surveyed 132 personnel from Kerman Universities and maintained the mediating effects of job satisfaction on the association between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. Results also indicated a significant positive correlation between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment.

Previous studies have shown that employees with higher level of emotional intelligence are effective leaders (Caruso, Mayer, & Salovey, 2002; Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000); competent employees; involve in organizational citizenship behaviors; feel satisfied with their job and develop commitment to their career and employers (Carmeli, 2003). In brief, emotional intelligence is connected to work-attitude particularly work commitment.

Similarly, a positive relationship was established between emotional intelligence and work attitude by Carmeli (2003) and Schutte et al. (1998). Emotional intelligence increases constructive work attitudes, selfless conduct and work outcomes, and regulates the influence of work-family conflict on career commitment but does not influence job satisfaction. These findings were revealed when the research was conducted on senior managers employed in the local government establishments in Israel (Carmeli, 2003).

Contrary to the above-mentioned studies, Aghdasi, Kiamaneshb and Ebrahimb (2011) investigated 234 employees in an Iranian organization. Results showed emotional intelligence does not effect occupational stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Rather job satisfaction has a significant positive effect on organizational commitment. These results can be attributed to cultural differences. Studies which are conducted in developing countries may have different findings from those studies which are conducted in developed and underdeveloped countries. Apart from cultural differences, in developing countries employees' primary level needs are not satisfied because of organizational constraints employees could not advance toward higher order needs. Moreover, the gratification of basic needs was not indicated to relate with good performance. Alternatively, the fulfilment of higher order needs produces satisfaction

and improved performance. Therefore, a low level of emotional intelligence does not relate with commitment. This may be a potential reason for inconsistent findings.

Employees with a high level of emotional intelligence confront the challenges and conflicts such as organizational politics in a constructive way. The study of Jordan and Troth (2004) revealed that emotional intelligence and team performance were positively related. This study showed the significance of emotional intelligence in conflict resolution. Emotional intelligence is related to general health, enhanced work satisfaction, greater spiritual well-being and it diminishes burnout (Powell, Mabry, & Mixer, 2015). Hence, emotional intelligence is vital for a highly demanding profession of academics.

In addition to the impact of overall emotional intelligence, some scholars have investigated the influence of dimensions of emotional intelligence on employees' commitment. Emotional intelligence (EI) is characterized as laying on a strong exploratory establishment of five measurements of attributes, for example, self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. Social awareness is comprising of empathy and motivation (Cherniss, Extein, Goleman, & Weissberg, 2006). Further literature has also revealed that emotional intelligence performs a key part in developing an organization's direction and motivation level of human activity (Chopra & Kanji, 2010).

In addition, Singh (2013) conducted a study to investigate how employees perceive their leaders' intrapersonal abilities (self-awareness, self-expression, self-control, self-confidence, optimism and adaptability) and how it affects job satisfaction of employees. Findings verified the importance of emotional intelligence competencies for leaders to

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direct their behavior in the organization. Leaders intrapersonal competencies are significant for well-motivated and satisfied employees.

Previous research concluded that self-awareness, self-management or self-control, social awareness, social skill and employees' attitude are the key variables that have a direct link with personnel's commitment to fulfill their responsibilities and to achieve the targeted results (Vasudevan, 2013). Adaptability dimension enhances the problem-solving abilities. Positive outcomes such as good leadership, job satisfaction, commitment and enhanced interpersonal relationships are associated with emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 1997).

Similarly, Masrek, Osman, Ibrahim and Mansor (2015) explored the effects of emotional intelligence towards organizational commitment including 115 IT experts employed in Malaysian Administration Modernization and Management Planning Unit (MAMPU). Results indicated that two clusters of emotional intelligence such as social awareness and relationship-management predict organizational commitment.

Using a sample of 285 employees from education ministry of Iran, the association between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment was examined. Emotional intelligence was positively related to organizational commitment. Dimensions of emotional intelligence (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness) were also correlated with organizational commitment (Dehghan & Saeidi, 2013). Aghabozorgi, Mehni, Alipour and Azizi (2014) conducted a study on 175 nurses of the public hospitals of Sanandaj and revealed that dimensions of emotional intelligence and organizational commitment are significantly and positively related. Findings showed that dimensions of emotional intelligence: self-awareness and self-

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management are positively related with organizational commitment. Researchers suggested that organizational commitment can be increased by improving the abilities of self-awareness and self-management in employees.

In past studies, stress management and intrapersonal skills were insignificantly related with job satisfaction (Livingstone, 2001). Intrapersonal skills and stress management were also insignificantly related with job satisfaction in the study of Hosseinian, Yazdi, Zahraie, and Fathi-Ashtiani (2008). Brown, George-Curran and Smith (2003) revealed that a low level of emotional intelligence is associated with decreased commitment because individuals with low emotional intelligence cannot fully understand and manage emotions. In the study of Zahed-Babelan and Moenikia (2010) stress management and adaptability were not supported as predictors of academic achievement.

Few researchers have also investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and job involvement, career commitment and work ethics (forms of work commitment). Such as Mahdi, Partovi, Moharrer and Ghorbani, (2014) studied 230 employees of Islamic Azad University in Iran. Emotional intelligence and job involvement were significantly correlated. Increased social awareness of employees helps to increase job involvement. By understanding the emotions and thoughts, an employee's performance can be improved with empathy, consultation and awareness.

In Penang Island, a study was conducted on 120 employees from the different organizational level in a manufacturing company. Findings revealed that components of emotional intelligence regulation of emotion and use of emotion have a positive

relationship with job involvement, while self-emotional appraisal and others 'emotional appraisal have no positive relationship. Regulation of emotion was positively related to the level of job involvement with the moderating effect of gender and age (Najafpour, 2008).

Past researches have also shown the association between emotional intelligence and career commitment (Salami, 2007; Aremu & Tejumola, 2008). Aremu (2005) investigated the influence of credentialing, career experience, self-efficacy, emotional intelligence (EI), and motivation on the career commitment of 200 young police in Ibadan, Nigeria. Statistics showed that career commitment is predicted by the independent variables. Moreover, emotional perception as an essential constituent of emotional intelligence, only predict objective career success (salary level) for employees with average to high emotion perception. These findings were revealed when the research was conducted on freelance business graduates in three Malaysian Universities (Poon, 2004).

An employee's success depends on his ability to comprehend, perceive and express emotions in a proper way. Specifically for teachers, emotional intelligence serves as a significant factor in their career commitment (Ciarrochi, Forgas, & Mayer, 2001). Mustafa and Amjad (2011) examined how work attitude and work outcomes (job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment, career commitment, withdrawal intentions and job performance factors) of university teachers are affected by emotional intelligence. Findings showed a significant effect of emotional intelligence on teachers work attitude and work outcomes, specifically on job performance, job satisfaction and withdrawal intentions and less on organizational commitment. Chika and Emmanuel (2014) surveyed two hundred bank employees from ten banks in Nigeria and examined predictors of career commitment.

Findings concluded self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, achievement motivation and work-value orientation as significant predictors of career commitment.

Emotional intelligence components such as self-awareness, self-management, self-motivation, empathy and social skill have also been demonstrated a positive significant relationship with work ethics when examined by applying documented analysis approach (Laali, 2014). Fu (2014) studied 507 workers from three state-owned Chinese firms and investigated the impact of various factors on ethical behavior. Findings showed a significant positive impact of regulation of one's emotions and organizational commitment on ethical behavior of employees. Satisfaction with promotion, coworker, and supervision (facets of job satisfaction) and age also proved to have a significant impact on the ethical behavior of employees. In another study, emotional intelligence and professional ethics were significantly related (Dorudi & Ahari, 2015).

Furthermore, Gliebe (2012) performed a study in Christian higher education to investigate the significance of emotional intelligence competencies such as self-awareness, regulating emotions, empathy, motivation and social intelligence in the field of mental health, learning and career preparation. Findings revealed that emotional intelligence and academic achievement are positively related and emotional intelligence also influence students' future success. This study maintained that the Bible also demonstrates principles related to emotional intelligence competencies.

Moreover, in another study, 170 university professors of educational leadership program were studied to investigate their perceptions regarding the significance of emotional intelligence competencies in leadership development programs. Findings revealed that a large number of professors displayed their eagerness to integrate

emotional intelligence into educational leadership programs (Sanders as cited in Gliebe, 2012).

In earlier studies, inconsistent findings have been observed in emotional intelligence based on different demographic variables. Ul-Hassan (2016) examined the college teachers from Pakistan to investigate the role of emotional intelligence as a predictor of organizational commitment. Findings showed that emotional intelligence moderately contributes to organizational commitment. Results revealed significant differences in emotional intelligence and insignificant differences in organizational commitment based on the demographic variable of gender. Other studies have observed insignificant differences in emotional intelligence based on gender (Abdullah, 2006; Aquino & Alberto, 2003; Bar-On, 1997; Bastian, Burns, & Nettelbeck, 2005; Carr, 2009; Hopkins & Bilimoria, 2008; Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008; Tyagi, 2004; Whitman, Van Rooy, Viswesvaran, & Kraus, 2009). In few studies, females achieved a high score on emotional intelligence scale than their male counterparts (Bradberry & Greaves, 2005; Hasankhoyi, 2006; Shukla & Srivastava, 2016; Schutte et al., 1998). In another study, male got high score (Karakus, 2013).

Similarly, Insignificant differences were also being observed in emotional intelligence based on age (Day & Carroll, 2004; Palmer, Gignac, Manocha, & Stough, 2005) while other researchers found significant difference in EI based on the demographic variable of age (Konya et al., 2016; Petrides & Furnham, 2006; Salami, 2007; Van Rooy, Alonso & Viswesvaran, 2005).

Likewise, Jorfi, Yaccob and Shah (2011) found significant differences in emotional intelligence depending on age, educational level, gender, work experience and job position. Kumar and Muniandy (2012) performed a study on 162 polytechnic

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employees in Malaysia. Results indicated significant differences in emotional intelligence based on age, grades, education and teaching experience. No differences were found based on gender and prior working experience. Sergio, Dungca and Ormita (2015) indicated significant differences in call center representatives' emotional intelligence depending on age. Other researchers found insignificant differences in emotional intelligence based on work position, qualification (Ghoreishi, Zahirrodine, Assarian, Moosavi, & Zare Zadeh Mehrizi, 2014) and income (Harrod & Scheer, 2005; Kukanja, 2013).

Similar findings were also revealed by Kahraman and Hicdurmaz (2016) when they examined the emotional intelligence of nurses based on gender, age, marital status and children. Differences in emotional intelligence were indicated only based on the job experience. Moreover, Naeem et al. (2014) indicated an insignificant relationship between age, gender, year of study and emotional intelligence.

Table 2.2

A Summary of Selected Literature Examining the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Work Commitment.

Authors	Purpose	Sample	Key Findings
Asrar-ul-Haq, Anwar and Hassan (2017).	To study the impact of emotional intelligence on job performance.	$N = 166$ University teachers from Pakistan.	Findings supported the existence of the relationship.
Shafiq and Rana, (2016).	To study the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment.	$N = 494$ College teachers from Pakistan.	Findings showed significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment.

Table 2.2 Continued

Salim et al. (2015).	To study the effects of emotional intelligence on work commitment and satisfaction.	$N = 1200$ School teachers From Malaysia	Findings showed a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence, work commitment and satisfaction in the teaching career.
Hassan, Jani, Som, Hamid, & Azizam (2015)	To investigate how emotional intelligence and teaching effectiveness are related.	$N = 155$ Lecturers from Malaysia	Emotional intelligence was found to be related with great self-confidence and job commitment.
Aghabozorgi, Mehni, Alipour and Azizi (2014).	To study the impact of emotional intelligence on organizational commitment.	$N = 175$ Nurses from public hospitals of Iran.	Findings revealed a significant positive relationship between dimensions of emotional intelligence and organizational commitment.

It is evident from the previous studies on emotional intelligence that this attribute affects all the forms of work commitment such as organizational commitment, career commitment, job involvement, work ethics and other work outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction, withdrawal intention and academic performance. There are some inconsistent findings regarding the association between adaptability and general mood dimensions of emotional intelligence and commitment. There is also a dearth of practical research on emotional intelligence and work commitment forms in a single study. Previously, researchers studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment and paid less attention to other forms of work commitment.

In addition, past studies have also reported insignificant differences in emotional intelligence based on demographic variables. These insignificant results prevent us from making firm conclusions. Therefore, examining the association between

emotional intelligence, work commitment and investigating differences in emotional intelligence according to demographic variables in an individual study is a welcome advancement.

2.4 Work Motivation

Work motivation refers to internal and external forces that initiate work-related action and determine its form, direction, intensity and duration (Pinder, 1998). Employees capability to perform an assigned job is determined by abilities and training, however, motivation determines the level of their performance.

Currently, organizations in the world make every effort to motivate their employees so that these employees can compete and survive in dynamic corporate setting effectively. As motivation drives human resources to react, enhances employees' efficiency level, allows the organizations to acquire sustainable competitive advantage compared to the rivals and eventually accomplishes the organizational goals.

2.4.1 Theories of Work Motivation

Motivation theories are usually categorized as content theories or process theories. The objective of content theories is to determine the aspects related to motivation, whereas the objective of process theories is to clarify the methods fundamental to motivation. The most eminent content theories are: Maslow's (1943) needs hierarchy theory, McClelland's (1965) achievement motivation theory, Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory, Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristics theory. Some of the process theories are Adams (1963) equity theory, Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, Locke's (1968) goal setting theory and Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory.

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The scientific field has not accepted the role of the approach of needs consensually in predicting human behavior (Vroom, 1964). However, self-determination theory is derived from empirical investigation and is merged with an enormous body of research that supports the claim that motivation is strongly affected by autonomy, competence and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Therefore, the theory of self-determination is deemed suitable for the current study as various cross- cultural studies have been established to maintain its accuracy and multiple studies have provided evidence to the legitimacy of the theory beyond diverse disciplines.

2.4.2 Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation

Based on the expectancy-valence theory of motivation by Vroom (1964), a model of extrinsic and intrinsic work motivation is outlined (Porter & Lawler, 1968). Extrinsic motivation expects an instrumentality between the event and some discrete outcomes (verbal or tangible rewards), hence the satisfaction does not derive from the event itself but the extrinsic implications that it gives. On the other hand, intrinsic motivation engages people to do an activity as they think it is attractive and the satisfaction is spontaneously derived from the activity itself.

Therefore, the work environment is suggested to be structured so that the effective performance will result in both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards and ultimately, it produces total job satisfaction (Porter & Lawler, 1968). This can be done by expanding the jobs so that they are more attractive, hence, it gives more intrinsic rewards and by giving extrinsic rewards such as promotions and higher wage clearly based on effective performance.

Mitchell (1974) suggests that Vroom's (1964) theory, Porter and Lawler's (1968) model and other expectancy-valence formulations produced extensive research and in turn

established and enhanced the aspects of the approach. Nonetheless, the element of research that is related to the additivity of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation was possibly controversial and problematic. Particularly, according to Deci (1971), early research on the confirmation of the additivity hypothesis found that intrinsic motivation was improved by verbal rewards and undermined by tangible extrinsic rewards, hence, it was suggested that both motivations can interact positively and negatively instead of being additive.

2.4.3 Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

Deci and Ryan first published the SDT in 1980. At that time SDT was earth breaking since its emphasis was on quality rather than quantity of motivation. It refers to individuals' inner growth preferences and innate psychological elements and motivation that guides their choices without peripheral influences. SDT categorization of innate needs encompasses competence, relatedness and autonomy. Gratification of these inherent needs facilitates effective functioning and development.

The present form of six qualitatively diverse kinds of motivation theory was advanced by Deci and Ryan in 1985. Previously, SDT was consisted of two categories: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Additionally, amotivation was categorized as the third type.

Self-determination theory distinguish between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation. Autonomy comprises of performing with individual inclinations and freedom of choice among alternatives. Dworkin (1988) maintained that autonomy is approving personal accomplishments at the maximum degree of reflection. Example of autonomous motivation is intrinsic motivation. In which individuals perform a task

volitionally because it appeals to them "I work since it is enjoyable". Alternatively,

performing a task for instrumental reasons is controlled motivation.

SDT suggests that administrative procedures and associated experiences underlying

autonomous and controlled motivation, provide the basis to differentiate them.

Moreover, it postulates that behaviors can be distinguished with regards to their

autonomous or controlled nature. Both motivations are voluntary and opposite to

amotivation, which comprises of the lack of purpose and motivation.

The schematic explanation of SDT can be seen in figure 2.5 on page 77.
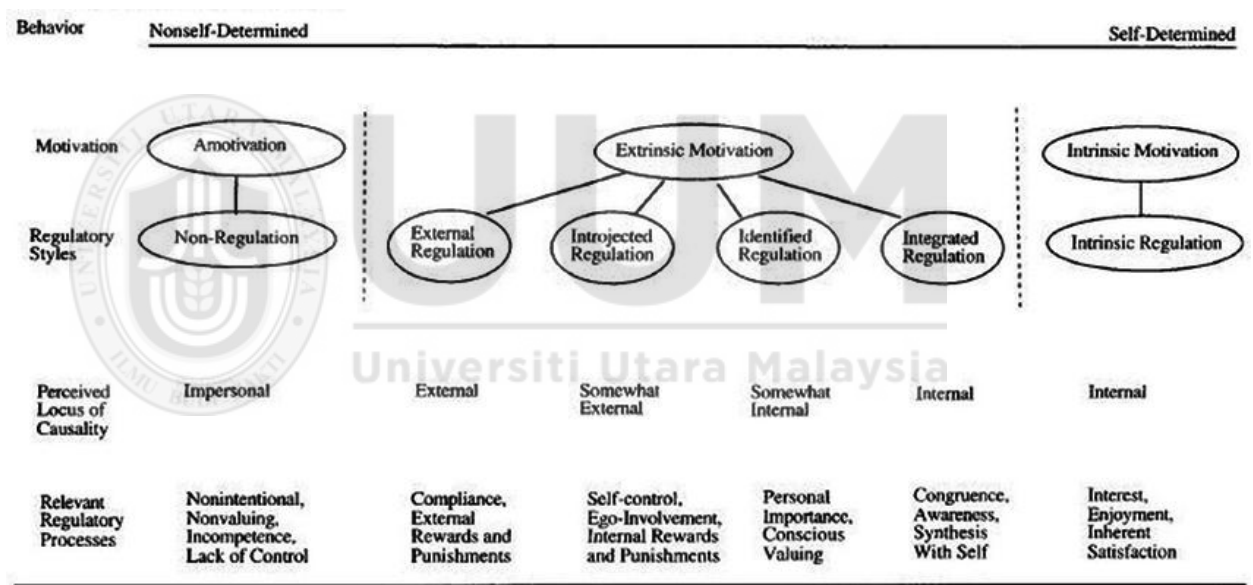
Figure 2.5. The self-determination continuum: Adapted from Deci and Ryan (2000).

2.4.3.1 Extrinsic motivation and the autonomy continuum

Based on figure 2.5 intrinsically motivated conduct, which is impelled by individuals'

enthusiasm for the action itself, is originally autonomous. Though, an imperative part

of SDT is the suggestion that extrinsic motivation can differ in the extent to which it is

autonomous (self-determined) versus controlled (non-self-determined). Actions that are

most certainly not fascinating (that are not intrinsically motivating) need extraneous

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motivation, thus their fundamental establishment relies on the view of a likelihood between the behavior and a preferred outcome, for example, implicit endorsement or significant rewards.

2.4.3.2 External Regulation

Within SDT, when a behavior is provoked it is considered externally controlled that is, started and kept up by possibilities outer to the individual. This is the great kind of extrinsic motivation and a model of controlled motivation. Being externally controlled, individuals perform for getting a desirable outcome or avoid an unfavorable consequence. Therefore, they are stimulated enthusiastically only when the task is involved with those objectives. Extrinsic motivation comprised of external regulation that was considered at the point when extrinsic motivation was stood out from intrinsic motivation.

2.4.3.3 Internalization

Different kinds of extrinsic motivation arise when a behavioral control and the worth connected with it have been internalized. Internalization is considered as individuals attracted toward ethics, dispositions, or administrative organizations, such that the external regulation of a conduct is changed into an internal regulation and along these lines no more need for the existence of an outside possibility (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Even though various theories of internalization perceive it as a continuum that is, a control either external to the individual or has been internalized, SDT places a controlled to autonomous continuum to depict the extent of internalization of an external regulation. The more completely it has been internalized, the more independent will be the following externally motivated conduct.

2.4.3.4 Introjected Regulation

As indicated by SDT, internalization consists of three distinctive forms: introjection, identification, and integration. Though regulation of a conduct does not influence by peripheral possibilities yet it has been internalized partly. In this condition, regulation directs the individual. Introjected regulation incorporate conditional self-worth, and an individual is forced to behave with the goal to feel commendable, and it includes a sense of self, which involves actions which are assumed to support their subtle egos (DeCharms, 1968; Ryan, 1982). Introjected regulation is especially fascinating since the control is inside the individual, however, is a generally controlled type of internalized extrinsic motivation "such as I work since it gives me a sense of valuable individual".

2.4.3.5 Identified Regulation

Being autonomously extrinsically motivated involves identification with the worth of a behavior for one's own particular self-chosen objectives. With identified regulation, individuals feel more autonomy and self-control since the conduct is more harmonious with their own objectives and personalities. They attribute their behaviors to the internal perceived locus of causality that reveals their own characteristics.

2.4.3.6 Integrated Regulation

The complete sort of internalization, which permits external motivation to be genuinely self-determining. The conduct is controlled by morals and objectives that are incorporated with self-identity. With integrated regulation, individuals recognized that the conduct is central and persistence to their self. The integrated regulation is hypothesized to signify the superior type of extrinsic motivation, and it imparts a few qualities to the intrinsic motivation. Integrated regulation does not, in any case, get to

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be intrinsic motivation but rather still it reflects extrinsic motivation (though an autonomous type of it) in light of the fact that the motivation is not described based on individual's interest in the action rather by the contribution of action for individual objectives. Intrinsic motivation and incorporated extrinsic motivation are the two distinctive sorts of self-determining inspiration (with recognized extrinsic motivation being moderately self-ruling) (Gagne & Deci, 2005).

To summarize, SDT continuum ranges from amotivation, which is an entire absence of self-determination, to intrinsic motivation, which is consistently self-determined. Amongst amotivation and intrinsic motivation, there are the four sorts of extrinsic motivation, with outside being the minimum self-determined kind of extrinsic motivation, and introjected, identified and integrated being logically more self-determined.

2.4.4 Previous Studies on Work Motivation

Motivation is also a significant constituent of behavior besides perception, personality, attitudes, and learning. However, motivation is not a single explanation of behavior. Other cognitive processes are also involved. It is regarded as an administrative procedure for effecting behavior depending on the information of how employees are motivated (Luthans as cited in Tella, Ayeni, & Popoola, 2007). Motivation is an important predictor of commitment since it encourages personnel to dedicate time and service to the organization (Mowday et al., 1979). Thus, there is an increasing concern to acknowledge the association between motivation and commitment.

Motivation extremely impacts employee's commitment and plays an important role in inducing employees' favorable attitude concerning the job. The relationship among employee motivation, commitment, engagement and job involvement was investigated

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on the faculty of the University of Gujrat. Employee motivation was positively related to employee commitment, job involvement and employee engagement (Shaheen & Farooqi, 2014). Iqbal et al., (2013) also observed a positive correlation between job involvement, incentives (determinants of motivation) and employee's commitment.

Similarly, another study conducted in the education sector of Pakistan investigated the impact of work motivation and organizational commitment on job performance and job satisfaction. Findings showed a positive association between work motivation, organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Sohail et al., 2014). Warsi, Fatima and Sahibzada (2009) concluded that work motivation strongly and positively relates to organizational commitment among the private sector's employees in Pakistan. Likewise, Siti Nazila, Rozmi and Fauziah (2012) examined the relationship between motivation and organizational commitment from 350 public university students of Malaysia. Findings confirmed the relationship between subscales of motivation (altruistic understanding, self-protection and self-enhancement) and organizational commitment.

Moreover, Karsli and Iskender (2009) surveyed four hundred teachers working in Sakarya and found that level of motivation effects the organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Tentama and Pranungsari (2016) examined the role of teachers' work motivation and job satisfaction on organizational commitment on a sample of 29 teachers of extraordinary schools. Work motivation, job satisfaction and organizational commitment achieved significant correlation.

A sample of 1000 teachers was studied in Albania to examined the correlation between motivation and commitment. Results confirmed the influence of motivational factors

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on organizational commitment (Sinani, 2016). The study of Gupta and Gupta (2014) also specified that positive correlation exists between work motivation and organizational commitment and its several attributes. Similarly, the findings showed a significant correlation between work motivation and organizational commitment, while investigating 70 employees of an engineering firm in Dungun, Terengganu (Salleh, Zahari, Said, & Ali, 2016).

One study found somewhat conflicting results from the previous studies. Tella, Ayeni, and Popoola (2007) performed the study on library personnel in Nigeria. Motivation, job satisfaction, and commitment were observed to be associated with each other, while the relationship between motivation and commitment was negative. This negative relationship was attributed to the possibility that librarians did not value the development of a shared vision (Brown & Sheppard, 1997). Motivation and commitment were also negatively related in the study of Kairi (2017). These inconsistent findings urge for further exploration of the relationship between work motivation and work commitment.

Self-determination theory (SDT), emphasizes specifying the conditions and motivations that encourage employees to act in certain ways in organizations (Gagne & Deci, 2005). The SDT proposes that human motivation is determined based on its autonomous (self-determined) or controlled nature and in order to encourage the self-motivation process in individuals, it must be capable of gratifying their needs for autonomy, competence, and affiliation.

Existing literature recommends that environments which promote interesting and challenging jobs and support job autonomy can facilitate autonomous work motivation.

Besides employees with high autonomous causality orientation also promote it. Since autonomous causality orientation, autonomous task motivation and positive outcomes are consistently related. Therefore, it would be beneficial to modify the environment to endorse autonomous extrinsic motivation (Gagne & Deci, 2005).

In addition, Vujcic, Oerlemans and Bakker (2016) investigated the role of work autonomous motivation in explaining the relationship between the hindrance and challenge demand and work-related wellbeing such as positive effect and work engagement. By employing dairy methodology 153 teachers were observed during five successive working days. Findings confirm that autonomous motivation describe the relationship between daily challenge and hindrance demands and positive wellbeing. Teachers experiences of challenging situations were associated with high engagement and encounter with hindrance demands is associated with diminishing engagement. Autonomous work motivation explained this relationship.

By using a sample of 586 Canadian school principals, a study was conducted to observe the effects of work motivation on job resources, occupational commitment and emotional exhaustion. Job resources appeared to have a positive influence on autonomous motivation and conversely negative influence on controlled motivation. Autonomous motivation appeared to have a positive effect on commitment and negative effect on exhaustion. However, controlled motivation showed positive effect on exhaustion (Fernet, Austin, & Vallerand, 2012).

In the same vein, significant relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment was also observed in previous research (Van den Berg, 2011). Gillet, Gagne, Sauvagere and Fouquereau (2013) found that controlled motivation was

positively related with turn over intentions, and negatively correlated with job satisfaction.

In addition to organizational commitment past studies have also investigated the relationship between work motivation and other forms of work commitment such as job involvement and work ethics. Employees who are motivated and committed and possess a high degree of job involvement perform a significant role in organization. Improving employee motivation, commitment and job involvement is a continuous reward for a profession since motivated and committed personnel are more prolific (Denton, 1987).

According to Park and Rainey (2012), intrinsic motivation is considerably linked with job involvement of managers. Govender and Parumasur (2010) conducted a cross-sectional study on 145 permanent and temporary employees in various departments of the financial institution to observe the association between employee motivation and job involvement. Dimensions and sub-dimensions of employee motivation and job involvement were found significantly correlated.

In addition, Sipho (2012) explored the mediating effects of employee retention through intrinsic motivation and job involvement on 160 employees from selected government departments. Findings revealed a significant positive correlation among intrinsic motivation, job involvement and employee retention.

Individual's attitude towards diverse features of the work is reflected by work ethics, which involves inclination to learning accomplishments and intrinsic benefits and aspiration for a compelling job. Nithyanandan (2010) studied work values of 100 software professionals and examined their intrinsic motivational dynamics. Results

revealed that intrinsic motivation is related to work values. Hayati and Caniago (2012) study investigated the influence of Islamic work ethic on intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance on 149 Islamic banking staff in Indonesia. Results confirmed the moderating effects of job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation.

Likewise, Zaman, Nas, Ahmed, Raja and Marri, (2013) conducted a research on full-time staff of government and private firms of Pakistan to investigate mediating effects of intrinsic motivation in the relationship between Islamic work ethics and employee job satisfaction. Findings confirmed the hypothesis. Keyvanloo, Pordanjani, Ebrahimi and Zvonkovic (2016) surveyed 203 employees of Sabzevar University of Medical Sciences to examine the mediating effects of intrinsic motivation in the relationship between Islamic work ethics and job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Results confirmed the mediating effects of intrinsic motivation.

Moreover, Burchell, Dickson and Tumawu (2014) surveyed 320 employees in teaching and banking organizations in state and private sectors in Accra, Ghana and examined differences in work motivation in terms of aim to work hard to support organization and faith in the significance of hard work, frequently stated as work ethic. Findings revealed that employees from the private sector were more committed to their organizations than government sector. Teachers from the private sector had more work-ethic values than the government sector teachers and bankers. It was established that the problem of low motivation cannot be attributed to culture.

Differences in work motivation based on demographic variables were also investigated in various studies. Munaf (2009) examined the effects of work motivation and work tenure on organizational commitment using a sample of 120 college teachers in India.

Findings were statistically significant regarding the main effects of work motivation and tenure for organizational commitment. Highly motivated college teachers displayed more organizational commitment then less motivated counterparts. Findings showed relationship between working experience and organizational commitment.

Additionally, Kamdron (2015) indicated a significant effect of age and job position on work motivation. Gupta and Gehlawat (2013) reported insignificant differences in job satisfaction and work motivation based on gender and work experience. Significant differences were revealed only on the base of qualification. Contrary to the previous study, Chen and Zhao, (2013) found differences in motivation based on gender and tenure when he examined the faculty motivation of business schools using expectancy theory. Female teachers achieved a higher score on motivation especially in intrinsic motivation than their male counterparts. Moreover, gender differences were great between male and female post-tenured teachers. Motivation was found to relate to productivity in research. Pay raises, need satisfaction for curiosity and creativity were also significant motivational factors

Similarly, age-related differences were investigated in work motivation in two samples. A significant relationship was found between motivation and age. These results were confirmed in the second sample with demographic variables of gender, experience and university qualification. Again the results were alike in the second sample. Findings displayed support for the past literature which proposes that motivation changes rather than decline with age (Inceoglu, Segers, & Bartram, 2012). Jackalas and Martins (2016) observed a significant positive correlation between staff motivation and their qualification and position. Motivation was negatively related to length of service.

The researcher investigated the job satisfaction and work motivation of 400 teachers on the basis of demographic variables. No gender differences found in job satisfaction and work motivation. Significant differences were revealed on the basis of experience and qualification (Kukanja, 2013). Gender, age, marital status, income and work experience were not appeared to relate to work motivation of higher education staff (Absar & Jameel, 2017).

Table 2.3

A Summary of the Selected Literature Examining the Relationship between Work Motivation and Work Commitment.

Authors	Purpose	Sample	Key Findings
Tentama and Pranungsari (2016).	To study the role of teachers' work motivation and job satisfaction on organizational commitment.	$N = 29$ teachers of extraordinary schools. Indonesia	Work motivation has strong influence on organizational commitment than job satisfaction.
Sinani (2016).	To investigate the association between motivation factors and commitment.	$N = 1000$ Teachers from Albania.	Findings verified that motivational factors influence organizational commitment
Shaheen and Farooqi (2014).	To study the relationship among employee motivation, commitment, engagement and job involvement.	$N = 200$ University teachers from Pakistan.	Findings showed a positive relationship among study variables.
Gupta and Gupta (2014).	To verify the correlation between work motivation and organizational commitment.	$N = 70$ employees of engineering firm in Dungun, Terengganu.	Findings revealed a significant relationship.
Sohail et al. (2014).	To examine the impact of work motivation and organizational commitment on job performance and job satisfaction.	$N = 140$ Employees from educational sector of Pakistan.	Findings showed a significant positive relationship.

According to Berman, Bowman, West and Wart (2010), employee motivation is very critical factor for employees' accomplishment and ultimately for organizational

objectives. Literature review on work motivation highlighted that employee motivation is a combination of environmental and intrapersonal factors that can impact on an employee's attitude towards the work. Often organization's management struggles to implement motivational policies, which are effective enough to instigate employees' commitment in order to increase the efficiency and organizational output. Employee motivation level directly influences their commitment to the organization and is crucial in inspiring the employees' positive attitude towards the work. Previously, studies have examined the association between work motivation and organizational commitment and other forms of work commitment individually. However, research is insufficient on the relationship between work motivation and work commitment in a single study. Therefore, it is beneficial to study the relationship between work motivation and work commitment.

2.5 Organizational Culture

Organizational culture is described as the pattern of basic assumptions which developed, discovered or invented by a particular group in learning to deal with its internal integration and external adaptation problems, and that has performed well enough to be regarded as valid, and hence, it is used to teach new members as the right approach to feel, think and perceive the link to those problems (Schein, 1984). Organizational culture is usually viewed as a combination of key standards, supposition, concerns and values that are common among the organizational members and passed on to the new colleagues as standards to follow (Daft, 2005). Culture is assimilated within society and it influences the principal values in the daily lives of people. Generally, culture is explained as a roughly stable set of standards, behaviors and set of beliefs (Kotter & Heskett, 1992). This explanation is originated from social anthropology and used to study "primitives" societies in a certain framework.

Hofstede (1980) relates to culture in his research, where he contributed to the dimensions of culture to differentiate between nationalities. Hofstede's (1980) suggested dimensions of culture are individualism/collectivism, time orientation, power distance, masculinity/femininity and uncertainty avoidance. In the context of individual and society culture, based on the countries' demography which has causality with cultures, Furnham and Gunter, (1993) suggested 10 specific cultures and make disparities across countries, which can be applied in the future organization study.

According to Schein (1990), the current concept of organizational culture is to assist and provide the platform for recognizing disparities among organizations which are successful and operating in the same countries. Based on the opinion of Peters and Waterman (1982), the cultural traits of "excellence" is possessed by the successful organization as their corporate or organizational culture. Besides, from the successful performance of the organization, "strong" culture can give positive impacts (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). The idea of organizational culture is one of the most complicated terms to find, inspect, observe and several arguments were suggested in the previous research regarding the ability to quantify and observe it (Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, & Sanders, 1990; Trice & Beyer, 1984).

In an attempt to quantify and determine the conceptual components in the theory of organizational culture, several issues are raised. Schein (1990) argues that if one intends to understand the concept of culture, he needs to adapt and make a connection with the systematic approach so that he is able to recognize the variable and dimensions which are related to hypothesis testing and empirical measurement. Schein (1990) suggests that if the organization is keen to construct a corporate culture, it must investigate the foundation of the organization, go beyond the visible artifacts and discover the basic

assumptions which are fundamental to the corporate culture. To do so, several tools are introduced to understand the formal definition of organizational culture which pays attention to how culture operates (Schein, 1984). In order to use these terms, a person needs to understand the dynamic evolutionary forces that dominate a culture and the fact that culture is learned, forwarded and changed.

Several approaches are used in understanding and examining organizational culture as a platform for empirical research on the relationship among commitment and culture, Hence, the set of integrated concepts of organizational culture is used as the strategy or method to achieve the objectives and goals of an organization. Organizational culture is one of the determinants that have importance in the literature of organizational behavior (Amsa, 1986; Hofstede, 1986; Owens, 1987; Schein, 1990).

2.5.1 Approaches to organizational culture

Alvesson (as cited in Lim, 1995) pointed out the two conceptual categories that are mentioned in the process approach and classification approach to organizational culture.

2.5.1.1 Process Approach

Roskin (1986) states that the process approach describes organizational culture as a reformation that constantly shared the meaning to other members. Schein (1985) perceived culture in detail by putting into three dimensions of organizational culture; (1) behaviors and artifacts, (2) values and (3) basic assumptions. Every dimension has a diverse hierarchy in influencing culture. The first dimension (behaviors and artifacts) refers to the organization's social and physical environment, for example, artistic productions, physical space, mottos and others. The second dimension (values) is less

observable than the first dimension and it refers to the individual beliefs in the context of righteous to do and accomplish something, to give the principal meanings and to elaborate interrelation of the patterns of the first dimension. The third dimension refers to the basic assumptions which correspond to the unconscious level of culture on how any activities are viewed from the personal beliefs as well as are established as an organizationally acceptable means in understanding the world.

Besides, the basic assumptions are the most challenging to relearn and change. The organizational culture is formed based on the leaders' recognition of organizational members and how the organization reacts to significant events in the past and hence, particular norms are evolved. Process approach uses a qualitative approach to understand organizational culture. Schein (1990) suggested seven dimensions to study organizational culture by using the interview procedure and a qualitative method such as observations, ethnography and interviewing.

Nonetheless, there are limitation for a qualitative approach where its ability in contributing towards theory building and hypothesis testing is limited, especially in the context of expense and time spent on the research. Sackmann (1991) suggests that the qualitative approach is not likely to connect the systematic comparisons between researches and hence, leads to variations among investigations. Schein (1990) states that a huge number of case studies is needed to generalize the principles of the qualitative approach.

2.5.1.2 Classification approach

Hofstede (1980) conducted one of the best well-known researches with generated dimensions of culture. Furnham and Gunter (1993) also enhanced the information and

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develop the interpretation for four dimensions of culture which are collectivism, masculinity/feminism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance to organizational culture. Nationalities traits can be well differentiated through these dimensions and can be applied in the organization.

Based on the classification of Hofstede (1980), Handy (1993) explained the differences in organizational culture between several companies in the context of management styles. Deal and Kennedy's (1982) classification approach distinguished culture based on the amount of risk employed and feedback speed. They emphasized the types of decisions made (such as are the recompenses high and how fast does the decision-maker realize if the decision was right?). According to the extent of centralization and formalization, Harrison (1972) provided 16 classifications of organizational culture. His work emphasized how the decisions are made and processes are carried out in a culture, whether they are formalized or centralized. Cameron & Quinn (1999) suggested the component of cultural evolution and emphasized on the values possessed by the organization- integration, stability, flexibility and differentiation.

Given the huge amount of classifications on culture, scholars have the opportunities to apply various theories and possibly produce a common framework in comparing and distinguishing culture. Nevertheless, Furnham and Gunter (1993) suggest that the huge amount of classifications causes problems as the current classifications do not go beyond the descriptive level in order to study and examine the processes involved in the formations and changes of culture. The differences in various concepts are due to the fact that the concept of organizational culture is not universally defined by scholars. Nonetheless, Roskin (1986) argues that despite the differences in the current definitions

of organizational culture, scholars commonly agree that culture plays an influential and pervasive role in an organization.

2.5.2 Organizational Culture in Higher Education

Although there is a direction in cultural diversity, there is yet a consensus on the constitution of the organization culture of higher education. For instance, Kerr (1964) argued that universities are the combination of sub-cultural elements that mutually could be termed a "multiversity" with an integration of Weick's (1976) "loosely coupled system" and Birnbaum's (1988) "anarchical institutions". Although Birnbaum's (1988) idea of the anarchical institution did not merge with a system that had hierarchical, bureaucratic, and longevity structure, he considered his idea as being an "organized anarchy", hence following the ideas of Cohen and March (1974). Furthermore, Masland (1985, p.160) proposed four 'windows' to study the organizational culture of a university, "Saga, Heroes, symbols and rituals". In addition, he elaborated that with the leadership of an organization, cultures would evolve over time. Also, when studying organizational culture, Masland (1985) considered the external and internal controls as influential factors and it showed that the results were consistent with the work of Quinn and colleagues. A four-attributed model divided by two spectrums from internal-oriented and external-oriented, and from weak to strong was also proposed (Sporn, 1996).

Literature about the idea of sub-culture or tribes has affirmed the argument of Becher and Trowler (2001) on the university is composed of "tribes". Sanderson (2006) suggested that although it would be debatable whether universities have a single or over-reaching culture, literature has shown that the existence of competing values within universities and this can be perceived as the formation of culture or cultures.

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2.5.3 Organizational Culture Framework

The aim of this present research is to understand the moderating effects of organizational culture on the relationship between emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment. Organizational culture involves a sophisticated, interrelated, ambiguous, and broad set of determinants. As a result, it is not possible to take account of each relevant determinant in diagnosing and evaluating organizational culture. Different determinants can be perceived as relevant. Hence, it is essential to apply a fundamental framework and a theoretical foundation that simplify and focus the identification of principal cultural dimensions.

An all-inclusive framework does not exist and there is no right or wrong for a particular framework. Instead, the most suitable framework should be derived from empirical evidence, able to encapsulate the explained reality, and able to integrate as well as organize most proposed dimensions. Hence, it is the reason competing values framework is applied to identify organizational culture. Derived from empirical evidence, this framework has both empirical and face validity, and it facilitates the integration of various proposed dimensions. Study of organizational effectiveness is postulated by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981, 1983) in their competing values framework.

2.5.3.1 The Competing Values Framework

The CVF is contingent upon an earlier model advanced by Campbell (1977) which attempted to establish a list of organizational effectiveness. Based on Campbell (1977) 39 factors have been recognized and postulated to be representative of potential elements of organizational effectiveness. These 39 elements were analyzed statistically and the results showed three value dimensions that can categorize these elements into four central clusters (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981,1983).

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The CVF was developed to examine the important sources of organizational effectiveness. The primary notion of this model is consists of two dimensions. The first dimension is about the focus of organization: from an internal focus (less focus on the development and welfare of people in the organization) to an external focus (more emphasis on the development and welfare of the organization). The second dimension plans the extent to which an organization emphasize individuality and flexibility, as opposed to control and stability. The third dimension is associated with organizational means and ends. The intersections of two dimensions create four types of leading organizational culture: hierarchy, clan, market and adhocracy. According to CVF, Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) is developed to investigate the type of dominant culture in an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The OCAI is a practically reliable and validated tool that can be applied to evaluate the effect of organizational culture on the organizational variables of this study. Hence, it was deemed to be the most appropriate for the aim of this study. An interest in means versus an interest for ends as presented in Figure 2.6.

Flexibility

Human Relations Model

Ends
• Cohesion and morale

Means
• Training and development
• Open communication
• Participative decision-making

Open Systems Model

Ends
• Growth, resource acquisition

Means
• Adaptability and change
• Visionary communication
• Flexible decision-making

Internal ————————————————— External

Internal Process Model

Ends
• Stability and control

Means
• Information management
• Precise communication
• Data-based decision-making

Rational Goal Model

Ends
• Efficiency and productivity

Means
• Goal-setting and planning
• Instructional communication
• Centralized decision-making

Control

Figure 2.6. Value Sets and Effectiveness Criteria: Adapted from Linnenluecke and Griffiths (2010, p. 369).

Four quadrants can be formed from the grouping of first two value axes, the organizational focus and the organizational structure. The open systems model has an external focus and a priority on flexibility. The rational goal model has an external focus and pays attention to control. The human relations model focus on flexibility and internal structure. The internal process model has an internal focus and emphasizes stability and control. The strength of CVF falls on the competing values or tensions that present in every organization. Certain organizations are effective if control and stability are demonstrated while certain organizations if show the opposite can also be effective. This framework is suitable in examining and studying the four organizational culture types (hierarchy, market, clan and adhocracy). These culture types establish the

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foundation of the OCAI that has been broadly mentioned in past studies and has been applied more frequently in determining the culture of an organization.

2.5.3.1.1 Clan Culture

A first notable form of organization is clan culture. A clan is similar to the family-type organization. Organizations with clan culture emphasize cohesion, individuality, shared goals and values, participation, and a sense of "we-ness". These organizations are more like families than economic entities. As compared to the procedures and rules of hierarchies or the competitive profit-oriented of markets, organizations with clan culture have the characteristics of corporate commitment to employees, employee involvement programs, and teamwork. These characteristics were supported by semi-autonomous work teams that managed their own staff and received rewards based on team achievement (instead of individual achievement), an empowering working environment, fundamental task of management which empowers employees and improves their loyalty, commitment, and participation, and quality circles that motivated employees to voice recommendation to enhance their work and the performance of organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

2.5.3.1.2 Adhocracy Culture

A key objective of an adhocracy is to promote creativity, flexibility, and adaptability where information overload, ambiguity, and uncertainty are common. As compared to hierarchies and markets, adhocracies do not have authority relationships or centralized control. In fact, the flow of power depends on the situation and it can be from individual to individual or from task team to task team. Since most people in an adhocracy related to consumers, production, research and development, and other issues, there is a high emphasis on risk-taking, individuality and future anticipation. However, as adhocracy

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deviated from larger state government design (a hierarchy) and environment that is efficiency-oriented and accountability-oriented, it was forced to change into another form of culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

2.5.3.1.3 Hierarchy Culture

The organizational culture similar to this form is characterized by a structured and formalized environment to work. People are governed by procedures and effective leaders serve as excellent organizers and coordinators. It is critical to ensure the organization is managed smoothly and to address its long-term concerns of efficiency, stability, and predictability. The organization is maintained by formal policies and rules (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

2.5.3.1.4 Market Culture

The term market is not identical with the marketing function or related to customers in the market. Instead, it refers to a category of organization that acts as a market itself. It mainly concerns with external environment rather than internal issues and it emphasizes on external constituencies. This category of organizations is dominated by the values productivity and competitiveness. In order to achieve these values, organizations in the market category would focus on external posting and control (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

2.5.5 Previous Studies on Organizational Culture

The core values are profoundly maintained and widely shared in an organization with a strong culture. By acknowledging the shared values in an organization, employees' commitment is enhanced (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Martins & Martins, 2003). Employees are managed and directed by the organization. Therefore, they are not free

to decide the way they need to act which ultimately affects their commitment to their respective organization. Culture and related human behavior are quite strong in their dynamics, therefore, it is essential to study how employees relate their sense of loyalty to their organization (Brown, 1998). Black (1999) drew on the same conclusion that organizational culture is the main factor, which directly influences the energy and efforts that employees put into their role. Wagner (1995), as well as Manetje and Martins (2009), agreed that organizational culture is a situational factor that impacts on employees and attitudes related to work.

Past studies showed association between organizational culture and all the forms of work commitment (organizational commitment, job involvement, work ethic endorsement and career commitment). Organizational culture was found to have significant influence on organizational commitment in studies involving 411 sample of teachers from private higher education institutions of Punjab, Pakistan (Sabri, Ilyas & Amjad, 2013), 185 physical education teachers from Isfahan city (Azadi, Farsani, Farsani & Aroufzad, 2013), 100 employees in Perbadanan Kemajaan Negeri Kedah (Salleh, 2012) and the faculty of Islamic Azad University, Iran (Masouleh & Allahyari, 2017). Moreover, Azizollah, Abolghasem and Mohammad Amin (2015) also found a significant relationship between organizational culture, its dimensions and organizational commitment. Furthermore, Clugston, Howell and Dorfman (2000) studied 156 employees of public agency in the Western state. Findings depicted cultural dimensions as important predictors of multiple bases and foci of commitment.

Earlier studies have reported positive association between organizational culture and organizational commitment in diversified samples (Hsiao, Chang, & Tu, 2012; Momeni, Marjani, & Saadat, 2012; Agwu, 2013; Dwivedi, Kaushik, & Luxmi, 2014;

Mitic, Vukonjanski, Terek, Gligorović, & Zorić, 2016). All the above studies were performed in both Asian and western contexts. Despite using different instruments and diversified sample, all the studies had yielded a positive correlation between organizational culture and organizational commitment and considered organizational culture as an important factor to manage employees and improve their commitment level.

Previously, researchers have emphasized to study the relationship between organizational culture and organizational commitment than the other forms of work commitment such as job involvement, work ethic endorsement and career commitment. Only few studies have examined the association between organizational culture and other forms of work commitment. In one study, clan culture (a type of organizational culture) were positively correlated with organizational commitment, job involvement, empowerment and job satisfaction (Goodman, Zammuto & Gifford, 2001). Similarly, Rizvi (2013) conducted a study on 300 nurses of private and government hospitals in India. Findings revealed organizational culture and social support as significant predictors of job involvement.

Regarding the association between organizational culture and career commitment, a comparative study was conducted on Malaysian and Australian managers. Results concluded that Malaysian managers had more collectivistic but also vertically individualistic approach than Australian managers. Both groups were significantly dissimilar in career resilience commitment and have not differed in career identity and career planning commitment (Noordin, Williams and Zimmer, 2002). According to Triandis (as cited in Noordin et al., 2002) prosperity, household system, cultural intricacy and demographic aspects affects the cultural patterns of individualism-

collectivism. Association between culture and career commitment might be misperceived due to cultural change.

Since the values are equal for all, organizational culture drives unity in employees and provides a feeling of harmony. Therefore, the standards and work values of staff develop in harmony with the organization, which increase their devotion, improve their performance and lead them to the extended effectiveness of the organization (Sosik as cited in Mihneva, 2013). In the same vein, Parhizgar (as cited in Elangovan & Jayashree, 2013) argued that moral and good convictions in a culture are principles or benchmarks representing the nature of individuals' conduct belonging to a profession, group, or society. Organizational culture is perceived as one contributing factor to individuals' approximate moral behavior in institutes. It is also considered as a feature that management can manipulate to enhance organizational performance (Sinclair, 1993).

Therefore, Elangovan and Jayashree (2013) conducted a study to examine the association of organizational culture and work ethics in the employees of Salem Steel Plant. Findings revealed that all the dimensions of organizational culture positively impact work ethics. Zainol (2009) surveyed 120 employees of MARA Perlis and Kedah and the study findings verified the impact of Islamic work ethic and organizational culture on organizational commitment. Slightly different results were found in the study of Ashlaghi and Golafshani (2015). While studying 281 employees of Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences, it was concluded that work ethics of employees can be predicted by Denison organizational culture model but the correlation was not very strong hence the predictive power was also weak.

Although above mentioned studies have reported a positive relationship between organizational culture and different forms of work commitment yet dissimilar results have been observed on the relationship between organizational culture types (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market) and forms of work commitment.

For example, Alvi et al. (2014) conducted a study on 303 employees of the Chemical Sector of Karachi, Pakistan to study the effects of organizational culture on job satisfaction and employee commitment. Findings concluded significant effects of supportive and bureaucratic culture on employee commitment and job satisfaction, while innovative culture had no effect on employee commitment and job satisfaction. Another study was conducted on 258 front-line personnel of 12 banks in Saudi Arabia. Results supported a positive association between clan culture, adhocracy culture and organizational commitment (Aldhuwaihi, 2013).

Moreover, in another study, clan cultures found to be positively associated with organizational commitment (Hartnell et al., 2011). Brown and Leigh (1996) found that supportive job settings were connected with greater job involvement, diligence and organizational commitment. Another study observed maximum mean in clan culture, followed by hierarchical culture in Malaysian public higher education institutes (Chong, and Ismail as cited in Al Issa & Mahmood, 2016).

Similarly, Krog (2014) found a positive relationship between clan culture and work engagement and an insignificant relationship between adhocracy culture and work engagement. Clan cultures have been established to have a substantial positive correlation with affective commitment, while negative correlation has been found between hierarchical cultures and affective commitment (Richard, McMillan-Capehart, Bhuian, & Taylor, 2009). Contrary to previous studies, Kim and Han (2017) found a

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negative association between clan culture and organizational commitment and innovative culture was found to be linked with a medium degree of commitment (Silverthorne, 2004). Kim and Han (2017) also maintained that values associated with market culture can negatively impact commitment. Similarly, Krog (2014) also found that market and hierarchy culture were negatively related with work engagement. Above mentioned inconsistent findings urge for further investigation.

In addition, organizational culture was also investigated as a moderator in the earlier literature. Handy (1986) states that values and believes that comprises organizational culture, are indiscernible, that is why it can influence employees' behavior and their work outcomes (Saffold, 1988). Cultural values generate harmony among its employees, which guide them to construe and react to emotional matters. Ability to understand employee emotions may improve both efficiency and quality of life in the organization and by promoting positive emotions and behaviors success can be achieved. (Pizer & Hartel, 2005).

Organizational culture is regulated by the contact between individual and organization and cannot exist without individuals and features of subjectivity, irrationality and emotionality, which could be used to explain it, therefore it is a social phenomenon (Tolmats & Reino, 2006). Although there is a lack of research on emotional intelligence in the work organizations, it is established that emotional intelligence has a vital significance in work-related settings (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2004). Akhtar, Ibrahim, Riaz and Hussain (2015) have highlighted that work performance of educational sectors of Pakistan is influenced by organizational culture and emotional intelligence variables. Similarly, Lee, Kim, and Kang (2013) concluded a significant relationship when examined the organizational culture as a moderator in the

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relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance. Besides, organizational culture and emotional intelligence were found as significant predictors of job performance among 181 library personnel in Edo state, Nigeria (Popoola & Igbinovia, 2016).

Previously, studies have revealed organizational culture as a moderator in the association between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment (Letam, 2017) and emotional intelligence and transformational leadership among academic leaders (Al Issa & Mahmood, 2016). Likewise, emotional intelligence and organizational culture models of human relations model (clan), rational goal model (market) and open system model (adhocracy) were found to be positively related (Parker & Bradley as cited in Sin & Yazdanifard, 2013). Tolmats and Reino (2006) observed the rational goal model of organizational culture (market culture) as a leading culture in Estonian organizations.

Additionally, dimensions of emotional intelligence and internal Processes (hierarchical) model of organizational culture were not found to be significantly correlated (Tolmats & Reino, 2006). In another study, an insignificant or low association was observed between emotional intelligence and internal process model, medium level with rational model and higher association with human and open system model (Kallas, 2010). Contrary to the above studies, an internal process model of organizational culture was observed as the dominant culture in Australian public sector organizations (Parker & Bradley, 2000), in health organizations (Helfrich, Li, Mohr, Meterko & Sales (2007) and in educational institutions (Trivellas & Dargenidou, 2009).

Organizational culture also affects the individuals' feeling toward their work, motivational level, commitment and ultimately job satisfaction (Sokro, 2012). Autonomous motivation is supported by social environments that encourage need satisfaction and produce well-being and optimistic behavioral consequences (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000a).

Few researchers have also investigated the moderating effects of different types of organizational culture. For example, Din, Bashir, Cheema and Zafar (2014) verified the moderating effects of power distance (hierarchy culture) in the relationship between employee motivation and organizational commitment in public and private sector universities of Pakistan.

Moreover, Mohan and Sharma (2015) reported that organizational climate moderates the relationship between work motivation and organizational commitment. Results demonstrated that human relations and open system model were positively related with work motivation & organizational commitment. Moreover, open and supportive organizational climate was also verified to predict work motivation.

Likewise, Hon and Leung (2011) investigated the effects of innovative culture, traditional culture, and cooperative culture types on employees' motivation and creativity in 50 service and hospitality firms in China. The relationship between the need for achievement and creativity was found to be moderated by innovative culture and the association between need for affiliation and creativity was moderated by traditional culture and cooperative culture.

Similarly, Panagiotis, Alexandros and George (2014) examined the motivational dynamics of the personnel and their association with culture in a public sector

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organization. Findings revealed the hierarchy culture as a dominant culture in the organization. Analysis revealed a negative association exist between motivation level and hierarchy culture. Findings also showed clan culture as employees desired culture and clan culture and motivation were found to be positively related.

In brief, organizational culture accomplishes the function to transfer a sense of identity to employees and promote commitment to collective rather than personal interests (Martins & Martins, 2003). Aziz and Juhary (2000) have highlighted that the culture of the organization is not just able to change the attitude of employees but it is also able to make significant contributions through the influence of thought, feeling, interaction and performance in the organization.

Table 2.4

A Summary of Selected Literature Examining the Relationship between Organizational Culture and Work Commitment and Moderating Effects of Organizational culture on the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence, Work Motivation and Work Commitment.

Authors	Purpose	Sample	Key Findings
Masouleh and Allahyari (2017).	To examine the level of organizational culture and its association with commitment.	$N = 76$ University teachers from Iran.	SEM analysis verified the fitness of the suggested model and organizational culture and commitment relationship.
Al Issa and Mahmood (2016).	To investigate the moderating effects of organizational culture on the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership.	$N = 325$ academic leaders from public universities in Malaysian.	Findings supported the role of organizational culture as a moderator.

Table 2.4 Continued

Azizollah, Abolghasem and Mohammad Amin (2015).	To examine the association between organizational culture and organizational commitment.	$N = 165$ University employees from Iran	Significant relationship between organizational culture and organizational commitment.
Din, Bashir, Cheema and Zafar (2014).	To study the relationship between employee's motivation and organizational commitment and how power distance moderates this relationship.	$N = 300$ teachers from private sector universities of Pakistan.	Moderating effects of power distance were supported.
Lee, Kim, and Kang (2013)	To examine the role of organizational culture as a moderator in the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance.	$N = 420$ employees from South Korea.	Role of organizational culture as a moderator was supported.

Aforementioned voluminous studies have furnished practical support on the relationship between organizational culture and forms of work commitment (organizational commitment, job involvement, occupational commitment, work ethics). However inconsistent findings were observed on the relationship between organizational culture types (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market) and organizational commitment. The literature on the relationship between organizational culture types and forms of work commitment other than organizational commitment is lacking. Additionally, there is also a paucity of research on the moderating effects of organizational culture on the relationship between emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment. Moreover, different types of organizational culture have been observed as a dominant culture in different studies. Therefore, building upon the existing literature the present study has attempted to bridge the gap by investigating the moderating effects of organizational culture and its types in the aforementioned relationship.

Summary

This chapter sought out to explicate the constructs of the study. The research framework of this study has incorporated constructs of work commitment (organizational commitment, job involvement, career commitment and work ethic endorsement), emotional intelligence (intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management and general mood), work motivation (work self-determined motivation and work non-self-determined motivation), organizational culture (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market) and demographic variables (gender, age, qualification, work experience, work position and income).

Subsequently, the underpinning theories for this study were described, which includes Bar-On (1997) model of emotional intelligence, self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), Morrow's (1993) model of work commitment and Cameron and Quinn's (1999) the competing values framework. A detailed literature review has been presented, which showed that in earlier studies, the aforementioned constructs have not been investigated in a single model or framework. Similarly, a handful of studies have resorted to study all forms of work commitment in a single research and organizational culture as a moderator has not been investigated in relation to emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment. Hence, the present study has embarked on to study these variables in the education sector of Pakistan.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Earlier in this chapter, the philosophical approach followed by this study is described. The section under this chapter expounds the research design and the selected method survey design, population and sample of the study, instrumentation and demographics details, sources and data collection method. Moreover, this chapter also provides information relevant to data analysis and the application of structural equation modeling. Finally, the chapter concludes with ethical considerations, pilot study and its analysis.

3.2 Research Philosophy

This section describes the philosophical and methodological approaches underlying this study. A research model is required to be aligned with a philosophical approach to establishing the foundation of a research plan. There are three types of philosophical assumptions to explain social phenomena which are epistemologies and ontologies (Crotty, 1998), or broadly conceived research methodologies (Neuman, 2000). There are four paradigms in research: post-positivism, constructivism, advocacy/participatory, and pragmatism.

Positivism is referred to an epistemological position that purposes to apply the approaches of natural sciences to all social sciences. These approaches of natural sciences are perceived as the single logical basis for knowledge (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Important concepts of positivistic studies are validity, reliability and operationalization (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). Generally speaking, the researcher is presumed to be independent of the prodigies under observation.

Positivist objectivism paradigm is the fundamental philosophy of this study (Kerlinger, 1986). Therefore, this paradigm was used to guide all research method, procedures and actions. According to the ontologically assumed view and objectivist paradigm, the researcher regards reality as the present and actual phenomena that yet to be ascertained. Subsequently, through epistemological assumption and objectivist viewpoint, the researcher understands and explains the specific phenomena through absorbing and understanding the theories about the specific phenomena under study (Smith, 1998).

3.3 Research design

The research design is defined as a general approach that a researcher chooses to incorporate the various constituents of the research in a coherent and logical way, to effectively deal with research problems. The research design includes the plan for the data collection, data measurement and data analysis (Trochim, 2006). The type of strategy which can be used by the researcher depends upon the research problem. An appropriate research design is selected based on certain criteria: (1) objectives of the research study, (2) nature of the data required, (3) nature of the subjects, (4) manipulation of independent variables, (5) extent of the control over the case under study by researcher, (6) money, time, efforts and focus on historical or contemporary phenomena.

There are different types of research methods in social sciences to perform research such as case studies, histories, surveys, experiments and the analysis of archival information. Yin (1994) suggested that the selection of appropriate research method is based on several factors such as the type of research questions, focus on historical or contemporary phenomena and the epistemological standpoint of the researcher,

however, the most vital factor is the nature of the research questions of the study. According to the research questions and research objectives, a survey questionnaire was used in the current study.

Consistent with the research philosophy, the nomothetic approach is the proposed method for the present study which involves large sample and generalization instead of ideographic approach which is based on case study and descriptive method. By using a comparatively large sample, quantitative research design is employed, as it allows the examination of the association between research variables (Kreuger & Neuman, 2006); and it can solve the questions about the relationship among measured variables for the objective of justifying, forecasting, and managing phenomena (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). This corresponds with the primary objective of this study, which is to examine the direct relationship between emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment. Such research design allows generalization to the whole population based on the analysis performed on a large sample, which in turns improves the validity.

Moreover, this research design allows the use of formal and standard sets of the questionnaire to be delivered to every respondent. Adhering to the high degree of standardization increases reliability. Another reason to choose this method is that reliable and validated research instruments exist for all study variables which helps to reach statistically significant results. Besides, a larger number of respondents enhance allowance of model testing through multivariate statistical tools.

Demerits of survey method include self-report questions and non-response bias. Moreover, the survey method only supports close-ended questions. That prevents the in-depth elucidation of the phenomena. Another limitation is the inability of the survey

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method to measure causal relationships. However, variables are only being associated when the study is conducted in a single phase. Despite the expected reliability of survey measures, problems may arise. To identify the possible measurement issues, a pilot study was conducted.

3.4 Population and Sample

The population of this study includes academic staff from public universities in the province of Punjab, Pakistan. Education department in Pakistan has a large network of universities covering all provinces. For the current research, Punjab province has been selected because this is a major province in Pakistan and has a large number of universities than other provinces. According to Higher Education Commission of Pakistan list of chartered universities 2016, there are a total of 94 public sector universities in Pakistan and among them, 30 universities are in the nine cities of the province of Punjab. Therefore, all the lecturers, assistant professors, associate professors and professors have constituted the population of the study.

Based on the statistics available on the website of the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan, there are thirty public universities in the Punjab province, with a total number of 8829 academic staff (Higher Education Pakistan, 2014-2015). Table 3.1 shows the total number of academic staff for each of the universities in Punjab. Reason for choosing academic staff as the respondents for this study is due to the certain problems and challenges linked to the education system that made it an ideal setting for this research.

Table 3.1

Distribution of Public Universities in Punjab, Pakistan

	University	Total no of Academic Staff
1	Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan	502
2	Fatima Jinnah Women University, Islamabad	162
3	Ghazi University, D.G.Khan	160
4	Government College for Women University, Faisalabad.	178
5	Government College University for Women, Sialkot.	78
6	Government College University, Lahore.	334
7	Information Technology University of the Punjab, Lahore.	11
8	King Edward Medical University, Lahore.	145
9	Kinnaird College for Women, Lahore.	177
10	Lahore College for Women University	560
11	Lahore Garrison University, Lahore.	84
12	Muhammad Nawaz Shareef University of Agriculture, Multan	9
13	National College of Arts, Lahore.	65
14	National Textile University Faisalabad	131
15	NFC Institute of Engineering & Technology, Multan	37
16	Pakistan Institute of Fashion and Design, Lahore.	138
17	Pir Meher Ali Shah Arid Agriculture University, Rawalpindi.	233
18	The Government Sadiq College Women University Bahawalpur.	75
19	The Women University Multan.	128
20	University of Agriculture, Faisalabad.	593
21	University of Education, Lahore.	347
22	University of Engineering & Technology, Taxila	240
23	University of Engineering and Technology, Lahore.	940
24	University of Health Sciences, Lahore.	34

Table 3.1 Continued

25	University of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, Lahore.	301
26	Government College University, Faisalabad.	615
27	Islamia University, Bahawalpur.	568
28	University of Gujrat.	346
29	University of Sargodha.	682
30	University of the Punjab, Lahore	956
	Total	8829

Source: Web Site Higher Education Commission Pakistan

Since it is not practical to conduct a survey on all the thirty public universities, one university was selected from each of the nine cities of Punjab, Pakistan. Because all 30 universities are located in those nine major cities of Punjab, Pakistan and one university was selected from each nine cities, which was earlier established (List of selected nine universities is provided in Table 3.1) as explained in section 3.4.

A large sampling ration (30%) is needed for a small population (under 1000) (Neuman, 1997). For instance, to achieve a higher degree of accuracy, a sample size of about 300 is required. A smaller sampling ratio (10%) is needed for a moderately large population (10000). For instance, a sample size of about 1000 is needed.

Sekaran (2003) suggested that the sample size can be determined by using the rule of thumb: sample size that is greater than 30 and fewer than 500 are suitable for most research and the sample size for multivariate research should be a few times greater than the number of variables in the study (preferably 10 times or more). The most significant element that can be controlled by the researcher in designing the multiple regression analysis is the sample size (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). The

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influences of sample size can be observed most clearly in the generalizability of the research and the statistical power of the significance testing.

Apart from the ability to influence statistical power, sample size can also influence the generalizability of the analysis by the ratio of observations to independent variables. Generally, the rule suggests that the ratio should never be less than 5 to 1 where each independent variable should have 5 observations in the variate. If the ratio is less than 5 to 1, the risk of "over-fitting" the variate to the sample may arise, thus, it makes the results to be precise to the sample and ultimately decrease its generalizability. The recommended level will increase to 50 observations for each variable if a stepwise procedure is used (Hair et al., 1998). The researcher can be assured that the results are able to maintain the generalizability when the available sample meets the criteria stated earlier.

The total population of public sector universities in Punjab is 8829. The population of teachers of nine universities selected is 4069 (Refer Table 3.3). A population size of 4069 would require a sample size of 354, based on the sample size table by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). However, with the intention to receive a higher response rate, 600 questionnaires were distributed.

3.5 Sampling Technique

In this study, a simple random sampling technique has been used. Simple random sampling is a technique of probability sampling.

3.5.1 Stage 1: Selection of the universities

As described previously, all 30 universities in the Punjab province are located in 9 major cities. In the first stage, one university was selected from each city, which was

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earlier established in that city (Refer Table 3.3).

3.5.2 Stage 2: Selection of the academic staff

In the second stage, a list comprising all the academic staff was downloaded from the websites of these selected universities and simple random sampling method was applied to select academic staff from each university. Six hundred respondents were randomly selected from 4069 academic staff from the nine selected universities. The sample was ascertained by the proportional allocation method.

Distribution of respondents for each university is presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.2

Distribution of Respondents for Each University

University	Total number of academic staffs (N = 4069)	% of sampling	Compulsory Sample	Proposed Sample
Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan	502	12%	43	72
Fatima Jinnah Women University, Islamabad	162	4%	14	24
Ghazi University, D.G.Khan	160	4%	14	24
Government College University, Faisalabad	615	15%	53	90
Government College University for Women, Sialkot.	78	2%	7	12
Islamia University, Bahawalpur	568	14%	50	84
University of Gujrat	346	9%	32	54
University of Sargodha	682	17%	60	102
University of the Punjab, Lahore	956	23%	81	138
Total	4069	100%	354	600

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3.6 Instruments

To collect data from respondents, this research has utilized a set of questionnaire which comprised of 5 sections A, B, C, D and E. Section A consisted of demographic data and there are 7 items. In section B, there are 31 items on work commitment. Section C inquires about emotional intelligence based on 51 items. Section D is about work motivation comprised of 18 questions. Section E comprised of organizational culture instrument composed of 6 questions. All the instruments were adopted from previous researches developed by original authors and were not translated as the respondents of this study were well-educated university academic staff. Moreover, previously these instruments have been used in different researches conducted in Pakistan and there are no doubts about the cultural issues.

3.6.1 Demographic Variables

Section A consisted of the demographics section regarding personal background. Employees' demographic data were collected by means of questions related to a number of personal and organizational characteristics including gender, age, work experience, work position, qualification and income.

3.6.2 Work Commitment

Section B consisted of Work Commitment Index developed by Blau, Paul and St. John, (1993). Work Commitment Index comprised of total 31 items to measure five forms of work commitment which are occupational commitment, affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment, job involvement and value of work. Items 1 to11 measure occupational commitment. These items are taken from Blau's (1988) career commitment, Gould's (1979) career involvement, and Sekaran's (1982) measures of career salience scale. Items 12 to 18 measure organizational

commitment taken from Meyer and Allen's (1984) scale. Items 19 to 25 measure job involvement taken from Kanungo's (1982) scale and items 26 to 31 measure value of work: which consists of 4 items from Blood's (1969) work ethic scale and 3 items from Kanungo's (1982) work involvement scale.

WCI use 6 points Likert scale (1, strongly disagree to 6, strongly agree). WCI consists of 21 positive items and 10 negative items. The study findings of Blau, Paul and St. John (1993) demonstrated support for the Morrow's idea for developing a Work Commitment Index. According to Ogasawara (1997), the Work Commitment Index is a comprehensive, valid and reliable measure. In the previous study reported Cronbach's alpha value was 0.72 (Divkan, Sartipi, Zanganeh, & Rostami, 2013) and in the present study its value is 0.77.

3.6.3 Emotional Intelligence

Section C comprised of Emotional Intelligence measure. The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) is a self-report instrument used to assess emotional and social intelligence. The instrument comprises of 133 items and it takes 30 to 40 minutes to be completed. Items are further classified into 5 composite scales and 15 subscales.

In the present study a short version of EQ-i (Bar-On, 2002) consisted of 51 items was used to measure emotional intelligence. It furnishes score for intrapersonal, interpersonal, stress management, adaptability and general mood dimensions. The EQ-i: Short provides a total EQ score and general mood scale that offers further evidence related to overall level of contentment and propensity to stay optimistic (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). Items 3,9,15,21,27,33,39,44,48 and 50 measure intrapersonal; 2,8,14,20,25,32,38,43,47 and 51 measure interpersonal; 5,11,17,23,29,35 and 41

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measure adaptability; 4,10,16,22,28,34,40 and 45 measure stress management; 1,7,13,19,26,31,37,42,46 and 49 measure general mood and 6,12,18,24,30 and 36 measure positive impression.

Average to above average scores on the emotional intelligence and its subscales reveal higher levels of emotional and social competency. It is appropriate for individuals 17 years and above. It consists of 30 positive items and 21 negative items. Each item is rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "very seldom or not true of me" to 5 = "very often true of me or true of me". Standard scores are based on a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 15. The instrument has been reported to have adequate internal consistency, ranging from 0.78 to 0.80 (Bar-On, 2002). Information regarding factorial validity, construct validity, and predictive validity is accessible (Dogget & Sheperis, 2005). Reported Cronbach's alpha range concerning the Bar-On EQ-I and Bar-On EQ-i:S subscales was 0.69 to 0.86 (Bar-On, 2002) and in the current study Cronbach's alpha value range from 0.74 to 0.97.

3.6.4 Work Motivation

Section D consisted of Work Extrinsic Intrinsic Motivation scale. This measure was originated from Blais Inventory of Work Motivation (BIWM) (Blais, Lachance, Vallerand, Briere & Riddle, 1993). Tremblay et al. (2009) decreased the number of items to minimize scale difficulty and completion time while translating WEIMS in English. The current version of the scale follow the 6-factor structure of self-determination theory (Tremblay et al., 2009). By distinguishing between the six motivation levels of SDT (intrinsic motivation, integrated, identified, introjected and external regulations, and amotivation), it is devised to study the work motivation of employees. Scale's reliability and validity have been established on health care workers

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and soldiers (Tremblay et al., 2009). Several articles have cited the WEIMS and it has been utilized in diversified areas such as service industry, education and police (Fernet, 2011; Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2011; Gillet, Huart, Colombat, & Fouquereau, 2013).

The scale consisted of 18 items ranging from 1 = "Doesn't correspond at all" to 7 = "Corresponds exactly". Items 3,12 and 17 measures amotivation; items 2, 9 and 16 measure external regulation; items 6, 11 and 13 measure introjected regulation; items 1, 7 and 14 measure identified regulation; items 5, 10 and 18 measure integrated regulation and items 4, 8 and 15 measure intrinsic motivation.

WEIMS was utilized to observe the effect of work self-determined as opposite to work non-self-determined motivation in past researches. By adding the average score of each of the three work self-determined subscales (intrinsic motivation, integrated and identified regulation), a score for W–SDM can be calculated and a score for W–NSDM can be generated by adding the average score of the three work non-self-determined subscales (introjected, external and amotivation). when investigator wants to decrease the number of indicators to render acceptable tests of models, these two types of work motivation are valuable for prediction purposes or testing general theoretical models with tools such as structural equation modeling. In the past study, reported Cronbach alpha values for work self-determined and work non-self-determined motivation were 0.87 and 0.72 accordingly (Tremblay et al., 2009). In the present study, Cronbach alpha range is between 0.89 to 0.97.

Probable score range is $\pm$ 24 for W–SDI on 5-point Likert- scale). The total score resulting from this formula reproduce respondent's particular level of self-

determination. A work self-determined profile is indicated by a positive score and a negative score reflect a work non-self-determined profile.

3.6.5 Organizational Culture

Section E consisted of Organizational Culture which is the moderator variable for this study. Cameron and Quinn's (1999) popular instrument named as Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) was used to assess organizational culture. OCAI is founded on the competing values framework introduced by Cameron and Quinn (1999). The instrument comprised of 24 items that measure four subscales named as clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market. Six questions in each subscale is about employees' perceptions of basic cultural elements such as leading cultural type, organizational glue, management of employees, leadership, criteria of success, and strategic emphases (Shilbury & Moore, 2006).

Reliability and validity of the OCAI in measuring organizational culture as well as its effectiveness in the diversify organizations has been proved in many previous studies (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Colyer, 2000; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991). For example, Cronbach's alpha coefficient of more than 0.70 for each culture type has been reported in a sample of 800 participants from 86 different public utility firms (Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991). Cronbach's alphas that ranged from .58 to .88 were reported by Colyer (2000). The results of reliability coefficients were: the clan culture = .79, the adhocracy culture = 0.80, the hierarchy culture = 0.76 and the market culture = 0.77 (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Yeung, Brockbank, & Ulrich, 1991). In the present study Cronbach alpha value is: the clan culture = 0.91, the adhocracy culture = 0.91, the hierarchy culture = 0.94 and the market culture = 0.736.

Each type of organizational culture is represented by a single item of a component and combination of four items one from each component categorize a culture type. For instance, clan culture = items 1,5,9 and 13; adhocracy culture= items 2,6,10 and 14; hierarchy culture= items 3,7,11and 15, and market culture = items 4,8,12 and 16. An ipsative rating scale is used in OCAI to categorize perceptions of organizational culture. In an ipsative scale, respondents allocate points to their responses and then responses sum to a preset entire value. In the case of OCAI, 100 points are divided among substitute responses. For statistical reasons, a Likert scale is appropriate to evaluate the organizational culture. According to Cameron and Quinn (2011) examiner's plan and core study questions determined the choice between an ipsative or a Likert scale. Therefore, this research has selected a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Organization's current and future culture can be determined by using this instrument. But this research has used this instrument just to identify the current culture of the public sector universities in Pakistan. All the instruments are summarized in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3

Research Instruments

	Variables	Items	Scale	Minimum Score	Maximum Score
1	Work Commitment Index (Blau, Paul & St. John, 1993)	31	1 = Strongly disagree to 6 = Strongly agree	31	186
2	Emotion Quotient Inventory (EQ-i: Short) (Bar-On, 2002)	51	1 = Very seldom or not true of me to 5 = Very often true of me or true of me.	51	255
3	Work Motivation Scale (Tremblay et al., 2009)	18	1 = Does not correspond at all to 7= corresponds exactly	18	126

Table 3.3 Continued

4	Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) (Cameron & Quinn, 1999)	24	1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree	24	120

3.7 Data Collection Method

The data was collected from the public sector universities in the province of Punjab, Pakistan during the academic year of 2016-2017. Participants completed a self-report questionnaire pack, which incorporated the measures of emotional intelligence, work motivation, work commitment and organizational culture questionnaires. Participants were informed about the confidentiality issue.

This research employed cross-sectional self-administered survey and this choice was based on the benefits and drawbacks of the various methods available. This research method enables the researcher to study and investigate ambiguous variables. It also allows several variables to be included for a broader study which involves the collection of the considerable amount of data. Besides, this method maintains the privacy of the respondents as they do not directly interact with the respondents, hence, a personal space and a complete discretion are preserved which eventually leads to the formation of honest opinion.

Several steps were performed prior to initiate the data collection procedure:

1. A permission letter was obtained from the respective department and sent to all six universities where the academic staff supplied information for the survey of this study.

2. Postal and e-mail addresses, as well as other contact details of the

respondents, were gathered from different websites of the selected universities.

3. Data was collected through mail survey and in personal meetings with the respondents.

4. The teachers from selected universities were contacted to obtain their willingness to participate in the research.

5. The survey packets have consisted of a covering letter, informed consent form, a set of questionnaire, an envelope with stamp and address. Certain packets were arranged and respondents were requested to get them complete also by their co-workers. Reminder calls and messages were also sent since the response rate was insufficient after the initial posting.

6. The researcher also visited the universities in person to get complete questionnaires from the academic staff.

3.8 Reliability and validity of Instrument

In order to obtain the target outcome that is authentic, it's essential to meet both reliability and validity criteria. This result can only be achieved if the variable used provide the same result every time given, the circumstance stays the same while the outcome is measured at different times. Reliability refers to the consistent results and findings produced from the repetitive studies. This study applied a Cronbach's alpha as an indicator of the reliability of the research instrument. Onwuegbuzie and Daniel (2002) stated that Cronbach's alpha is commonly used as an indicator to measure the items' internal consistency. An acceptable value for Cronbach's alpha is 0.6. When the value approaches one, it means that the instrument has higher reliability and it shows higher inner-item consistency.

An instrument is valid when it can actually measure what it aims to measure. Most of the questionnaires were espoused from the previous studies. According to Sekaran (2005), the instrument should ascertain content validity. It should make sure that the measures are appropriate and can represent the concept that is measured. When an instrument is valid and reliable, the results can be accurately understood and applied.

3.9 Ethics

Ethical considerations remained the researcher's priority and respondents and their respective organizations were able to access research outcomes. The concern to protect confidentiality encompassed to the storage, reclamation and arrangement of data about respondents. Besides contact details of the researcher and supervisor were furnished and any inconvenience about the research was taken into account. Additionally, before commencing the research each respondent was requested to sign a consent form to assure their willingness for the participation in research. The participants were informed that the information will become the part of the researcher's Ph.D. dissertation and findings will be presented in the conferences and will be printed in journals, however, participant's identity will be excluded from the final work.

All collected data was kept unidentified. No attempt was made to make psychological and physical harm to participants' worthiness. Participants were not forced to reveal information against their will. There were no obvious benefits for individual participants other than the anticipated benefits for the participant as a consequence of the eminence of the subject matter being examined. Respondents hold the right to refuse to participate at any time. There were no obvious risks for respondents beyond those endured in daily life. The norm of compassion was maintained during the research process and research furnished more benefit than detriment.

3.10 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted to ascertain the internal reliability of the questionnaires. The pilot study was performed not only to obtain data but also to study the questionnaire, the research process and to examine the language of statements and questions. According to Sekaran (2000), respondents' misunderstanding may arise during the execution process of the actual research survey. The pilot study is designed to prevent problem arises from the research questionnaire. It also aims to discover whether there are any ambiguous questions or biased questions. Pre-testing of the items is applied. A small sample was selected to make sure that it would get the same responses when it would be used in large scale sample.

The pilot study involves the following steps: examine the questionnaire's wording, check the questions' sequencing, test questionnaire layout, familiarize the researcher with respondents, estimate the time needed to complete the interview or questionnaire, estimate the rate of response, and examine the integrity of the analysis procedure.

The pilot study was conducted in three public universities in Pakistan. Thirty-five respondents participated in the pilot study (10% of the required sample size) and their answers were utilized for measurement of internal consistency for each measure. Researchers have recommended that 10% of the final sample is appropriate and sufficient to perform a pilot study, primarily in social sciences research (Lackey & Wingate, 1998).

Furthermore, it is argued that for adopting existing instruments, criteria are established on individual-based internal consistencies achieved through satisfactory Cronbach's alpha values (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Therefore, the Cronbach's alpha

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reliability coefficients were computed for all instruments. Basically, the pilot study seeks to confirm the validity and reliability of the instrument and to avoid measurement error. Higher values of Cronbach's alpha reflect greater reliability. Table 3.4 shows that all Cronbach's alpha values are greater than 0.7 which is consistent with the suggestion given by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) as a threshold. Overall all instrument items adequately verified to reveal a sufficient level of internal consistency relating to their particular instruments.

Table 3.4

Reliability Analysis of Pilot Study

Variables	No of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Work Commitment	31	0.774
Intrapersonal	10	0.845
Interpersonal	10	0.764
Adaptability	7	0.796
Stress Management	8	0.977
General Mood	10	0.749
Work self-determined Motivation	9	0.979
Work non-self-determined Motivation	9	0.896
Clan	6	0.915
Adhocracy	6	0.918
Hierarchy	6	0.949
Market	6	0.736

3.11 Data analysis

A combination of descriptive and inferential statistics was performed for data analysis. Descriptive analysis was performed by utilizing SPSS 22.0 which supply the overall understanding of the respondents' profile and demographic variables. Moreover, in descriptive statistics, the central tendency along with the variability of the data was

depicted and described to obtain further comprehension of the subject matter. Additionally, the inferential analysis was performed by using Partial Least Squares structural equation modeling by using Smart PLS 3.0 for making predictions from the data.

3.11.1 Partial Least Squares (PLS) Technique

Despite being a popular statistical method for multivariate data analysis in behavioral and social sciences, the application of structural equation modeling (SEM) in education has been increased lately. SEM groups a set of data analysis methods to simultaneously investigate relationships between observed and latent variables. Such application is particularly useful in understanding phenomena that cannot be directly observed such as perceptions, intentions, abilities, and attitudes, characteristics that often relate to education research. Generally, SEM combines linear regression and factor analysis.

There are two approaches to perform analysis using SEM framework, namely partial least-squares SEM (PLS-SEM) and covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM). CB-SEM is the commonly popular method frequently applied using software such as MPLUS, LISREL, and AMOS. Since each type of SEM applies different estimation procedures, make different distributional assumptions and have different objectives. Originally developed by Wold (1985, 1982,1966) and Lohmoeller (1989), PLS-SEM aims to maximize the explained variance of dependent variables by using an ordinary least squares estimation method.

Previously, covariance-based structural equation modeling approach was very common. Currently, researchers select variance-based structural equation modeling since it is more beneficial concerning the issues of convergence. Numerous researchers

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have described the methodological advancement and prominence of PLS-VBSEM (Chin, 1998; Ringle, Sarstedt, & Straub, 2012).

Moreover, PLS-SEM is a nonparametric method which makes no distributional assumption. On one the hand, CB-SEM employs maximum likelihood estimation method which assumes a multivariate normal distribution in estimating model parameters so that the difference between the model implied and sample covariance matrices is minimized. PLS-SEM is more suitable when there is little development in theory and it is mainly used to develop theories in exploratory research. PLS-SEM offers a helpful solution when maximum likelihood assumptions are difficult to be satisfied. On the other hand, CB-SEM is more suitable for extensively-researched fields where theoretical and practical knowledge is sufficient.

To be specific, the PLS technique was employed in this study due to several reasons. First, Partial Least Square Path Modelling technique is a more effective approach when applied in complicated models with several latent and manifest variables. Second, PLS analysis does not have stringent criteria for the residual distribution and error term. Third, the PLS path modeling can be used in formative and reflective measurement models (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009). Forth, PLS is able to explain the measurement error and give more accurate estimates of interaction effects like mediation/moderation (Chin, 1998). Chin, Marcolin and Newsted (2003) suggested that the PLS path modeling is suitable for complex models such as the models with moderating and mediating effects as well as hierarchical constructs (with a complete disaggregation method). Lastly, PLS-SEM gives more expressive and valid results, while other techniques give less lucid conclusions and would have need of performing

various separate analysis (Bollen, 1989). Therefore, PLS path modeling was selected instead of CB-SEM to analyze the data in the present study.

3.12 Summary

This chapter described the overall research design of the present study. This quantitative study which was conducted in Pakistan followed a simple random sampling method to accomplish the criteria of random sampling. A detailed description of survey instruments relying on 5-point and 7 Likert scale was provided. Data collection method and strategies of data analysis were also explicated in this chapter. Furthermore, a pilot study results were presented which empirically established the internal reliability of the instruments. The next chapter describes the data analysis results.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the analysis of findings based on objectives of the study variables namely organizational culture, emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment. It is structured into thirteen sections commencing with the introduction of the chapter in the first section and followed by response rate under the second section. The third section deals with the data screening issues while the fourth section discuss common method bias. Fifth section provides the respondents' demographic profile. Section six describes the descriptive analysis of the data. The application of Partial Least Squares method to structural equation modeling is explained in the seventh section followed by the eighth section to evaluate the measurement model through several validity and reliability measures. The second order construct establishment is presented in section nine. The section ten established the structural model and presented the results of direct hypotheses testing. It also discusses the assessment of model's strength through R^2 values, estimation of effect size and predictive relevance of the model. Hypotheses testing on moderating relationship is presented in section eleven. In the twelfth section, hypotheses testing results based on demographic variables are presented. Finally, hypotheses results have been summarized in section thirteen.

4.2 Response Rate

To measure the response rate, the number of respondents are divided by the sample size (Mitchell & Carson, 1989). To fulfill the data collection prerequisites, 600 questionnaires were distributed to public university academic staff in Pakistan. To attain an adequate response rate, the researcher made several phone calls and follow up

visits to the selected universities. Subsequently, a total of 360 questionnaires were collected from nine public universities, giving a response rate of 60%. A total of 9 questionnaires were excluded from analysis because of missing data and finally 351 useable questionnaires, with a response rate of 58.50%, were examined for data analysis. This response rate is adequate according to Sekaran (2003), he recommended that in survey research greater than 30 percent response rate is satisfactory.

It can be seen in Table 4.1 that out of 600 questionnaires 360 were reverted whereas 9 questionnaires were omitted because of missing data. Hence, 351 questionnaires were finally used for analysis.

Table 4.1

Response Rate of the Questionnaires

Response	Frequency/Rate
Number of questionnaires distributed	600
Number of returned questionnaires	360
Number of returned/usable questionnaire	351
Number of excluded questionnaires	09
Questionnaires not returned	240
Response rate	60%
Valid response rate	58.50%

4.3 Data Screening and Missing Values

Before proceeding to data analysis, data screening is critical in multivariate analysis

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for handling missing values because in SEM analysis existing tools do not work if dataset contains missing values (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Furthermore, the quality of data analysis mainly determined by the appropriateness of data composition as well as adaptation suitable for analysis (Kristensen & Eskildsen, 2010). The issue of missing data is somewhat a common phenomenon in data analysis and it can significantly impact the findings (Graham, 2009). There are different approaches to deal with missing data. Hair et al, (2010) suggest replacing missing values with mean in SPSS if the rate of missing value is low. Another method is the case deletion method. In this commonly used method, cases with missing data are simply excluded and residual data is being evaluated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The current study used the case deletion method because the required sample of the study was 354 and after omission of 9 cases the study had yielded 351 sample which was enough for PLS modeling.

4.4 Common Method Bias

Common method bias has been indicated as the main cause responsible for measurement errors, which has a significant negative effect on the empirical associations amongst measured constructs (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Common method variance (CMV), as a forged variance, refer to the measurement procedure rather than to the real constructs that the measures are supposed to represent (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Researchers pay attention to the sources which can eliminate common method bias. With the perspective of this study, self-reported data from nine universities in Pakistan was collected, which generates the potential for common method bias. The present study used a variety of procedures to diminish CMV effect. It involves clear and concise wording and lucidness in the language of indicators and by notifying subjects about the

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confidentiality of responses. In addition, the present study adopted Harman's single factor to assess common method variance as recommended by Podsakoff and Organ (1986). The key supposition of Harman's (1967) single factor test is that the presence of a large amount of common variance develops single factor or one common factor that would explain maximum covariance among the measures (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

Principal component factor analysis was performed on all indicators of the present study according to the suggestion of Podsakoff and Organ (1986). The findings of the analysis showed that the single factor explained only 34.17 percent of the entire variance. Hence, the findings presented that no single factor was accountable for the most of covariance in the exogenous and endogenous variables (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012), signifying insignificance of common method bias in the present study.

4.5 Respondents' Profile

It is appropriate to know the respondent's profile for a comprehensible discussion and logical elucidation of the findings, which are shown in Table 4.2. The current study has evaluated responses of 351 respondents which includes 211 males and 140 females. Moreover, 21.1 % respondents were from the age group of fewer than 25 years, 41.9% respondents were from the age range 25-34 years and this was followed by the age range of 35-44 years with 16.5%. Respondents with age range 45-54 constituted 19.9% whereas only 0.6% were 55 years and above. Among these respondents, 7.4% were with the qualification of Post- Doctorate, 31.3% Ph.D. and 61.3% M.Phil.

Table 4.2

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Demographics	Frequency(n)	Percentage(%)
Gender		
Male	211	60.1
Female	140	39.9
Age		
Less than 25 years	74	21.1
25-34 years	147	41.9
35-44 years	58	16.5
45-54 years	70	19.9
55 and above	2	0.6
Qualification		
M.Phil.	215	61.3
PhD	110	31.3
Post-Doctorate	26	7.4
Work Position		
Lecturer	186	53.0
Assistant Professor	108	30.8
Associate Professor	35	10.0
Professor	22	6.3
Work Experience		
5 years and below	117	33.3
6 to 10 years	133	37.9

Table 4.2 Continued

11 to 15 years	32	9.1
16 to 20 years	39	11.1
21 to 25 years	28	8.0
25 to 30 years	2	0.6
Income		
Less than 40000	78	22.2
40000 to 79,999	130	37.0
80000 to 99,999	100	28.5
More than 100,000	43	12.3

Majority of the respondents (53%) were lecturers, 30.8% were assistant professors, 10% were associate professors and 6.3% were professors. Results highlighted that 33.3% of the respondents had 5 years or below work experience, proceeded by 37.9% respondents with 6 to10 years of work experience, 9.1% respondents with 11 to 15 years of work experience, 11.1 % respondents with 16 to 20 years of work experience, 8% with 21 to 25 years of work experience and lastly 0.6% respondents with 25 to 30 years of work experience. Regarding the income level, the maximum number of respondents (37%) were observed between the range of RS 40000-79,999, 28.5% were in the range of RS 80000-99,999, 22.2% had less than RS 40,000 and 12.3% had more than RS 100,000 per month. Statistical values of response rate are presented in Table 4.2.

4.6 Descriptive Analysis of the Latent Constructs

In the present study, a descriptive analysis was employed to explain the key characteristics of the study constructs. The descriptive analysis of dimensions that offer

an overall understanding related to survey responses was described by way of mean and standard deviation (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

Table 4.3

Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables

Variables	*N*	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Intrapersonal	351	1	5	3.135	1.254
Interpersonal	351	1	5	3.657	0.962
Adaptability	351	1	5	4.157	0.482
Stress-Management	351	1	5	4.305	0.602
General Mood	351	1	5	3.109	1.169
Work Self-determined Motivation	351	1	5	10.704	3.866
Work Non-self-determined Motivation	351	1	5	9.146	3.230
Work Commitment	351	1	6	3.476	1.100
clan	351	1	5	2.974	1.348
Adhocracy	351	1	5	3.671	1.260
Hierarchy	351	1	5	3.367	1.275
Market	351	1	5	3.799	.869

Table 4.3 shows the findings of the descriptive analysis. All constructs and dimensions obtained above average mean ranged between 2.974 to 10.704. The standard deviation values for all dimensions were also within the acceptable range which was between

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0.482 to 3.866. Hence, it can be ascertained that responses showed support and acceptable level of execution in relation to all dimensions.

4.7 Partial Least Square (PLS) Structural Equation Modeling Approach

The present research employed PLS-SEM for analyzing hypotheses which were developed from the proposed research framework. Partial least square (PLS) is currently a well-known alternative to SEM method like LISREL. It is in accordance with the contemporary trend as highly indexed journals appreciate it. In the early stage of theoretical development, PLS modeling is used to evaluate and validate exploratory models. Besides, one of its strong aspects is its appropriateness in prediction-oriented research where the researcher is assisted by the methodology to focus on the explanation of dependent variables. SEM involves two approaches to measure relationship: covariance based (AMOS, LISREL) and variance based (Partial Least Squares). Choice of approach is not based on the superiority of either approach. Instead, researcher selects an approach depending on the research objectives and data characteristics.

The present study employed Smart PLS 3.0 (Beta) software developed by Ringle, Wende and Becker (2015) for the SEM, since it is based on a complex model involving various independent, dependent and moderating variables. A comprehensive elucidation of the findings of the PLS modeling is presented in the succeeding section.

4.8 Measurement Model (Outer Model) Evaluation

First of all, in PLS analysis, the measurement model was assessed to determine the relevance of indicators' loadings of particular constructs. Reliability test ascertains the consistency of the measurement instrument to measure the construct they were expected

to measure. Validity test examines the ability of a respective instrument to measure a construct that it purports to measure (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Moreover, the outer model also establishes the relationship between observable and latent constructs. Furthermore, estimation of content, discriminant and convergent validity of the instruments provide estimation for construct validity (Hair et al., 2010).

4.8.1 Individual Items Reliability

By evaluating the outer loadings of individual construct item reliability was measured with PLS-SEM technique. The common approach is to preserve items with loadings in the range of 0.40 and 0.70 (Hair et al., 2014). Though, it is appropriate to keep item loadings greater or equal to 0.70 (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009; Hair et al., 2014). According to Chan (2003), items loadings less than 0.30 are considered poor, between 0.31 and 0.50 are fair, moderate if it falls between 0.51 to 0.60, while the range between 0.61 to 0.80 is termed as moderately strong and very strong if it falls between 0.81 to 1.00 (Krause, Gathmann, & Gorschewsky, 2008). Moreover, for the mutual relationship, item loadings should be greater than 0.30 (Andresen, 2000).

Table 4.4 shows that items loadings were greater on their relevant constructs as compared to their loadings on other constructs, and they entailed significantly higher loadings. It can be seen in Table 4.4 that except for 5 loadings all other were greater than 0.61 which has indicated either moderately strong or very strong loadings for individual indicators taken in this research. A total of 5 indicators (IER8, IER9, AT6, AT7, GM1) were removed because of poor loadings as per above-mentioned conditions.

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Table 4.4
Cross Loading of the Items

Variables	Items	Intra	Inter	Adapt	SM	GM	SDM	NSDM	Clan	Adho	Hirar	Mar	OCP	JI	VOW	Org
Intra	1	**0.569**	0.284	-0.032	0.081	0.387	0.199	-0.105	0.214	0.218	-0.010	0.141	0.221	0.122	0.217	0.208
	2	**0.693**	0.368	-0.025	0.143	0.414	0.143	-0.149	0.258	0.216	0.001	0.075	0.202	0.164	0.256	0.259
	3	**0.726**	0.422	-0.022	0.171	0.456	0.192	-0.070	0.263	0.202	0.072	-0.032	0.198	0.163	0.266	0.264
	4	**0.820**	0.542	0.055	0.166	0.574	0.141	-0.020	0.310	0.293	-0.020	0.103	0.236	0.146	0.286	0.317
	5	**0.815**	0.534	0.030	0.222	0.531	0.187	-0.009	0.277	0.284	-0.022	0.034	0.227	0.165	0.299	0.313
	6	**0.836**	0.521	0.044	0.257	0.521	0.112	-0.049	0.274	0.272	0.008	0.005	0.242	0.214	0.344	0.387
	7	**0.835**	0.512	0.043	0.169	0.498	0.207	-0.044	0.303	0.276	-0.005	0.022	0.222	0.171	0.301	0.317
	8	**0.768**	0.490	-0.004	0.175	0.581	0.126	-0.035	0.309	0.236	0.142	0.112	0.177	0.126	0.247	0.268
	9	**0.627**	0.444	0.054	0.137	0.606	0.134	-0.116	0.316	0.238	-0.011	0.146	0.228	0.134	0.270	0.302
	10	**0.576**	0.370	0.038	0.150	0.478	0.025	-0.116	0.231	0.202	0.008	0.056	0.182	0.100	0.228	0.255
Inter	1	0.293	**0.651**	0.092	0.253	0.219	0.090	0.176	-0.038	0.108	0.128	0.236	0.022	-0.021	0.070	0.082
	2	0.294	**0.676**	0.066	0.278	0.259	0.051	0.072	-0.036	0.129	0.105	0.178	0.042	0.027	0.102	0.121
	3	0.320	**0.690**	0.048	0.451	0.304	0.056	0.126	0.002	0.110	0.109	0.187	0.055	0.007	0.106	0.110
	4	0.362	**0.760**	0.047	0.346	0.345	0.138	0.148	0.061	0.179	0.094	0.212	0.090	0.044	0.113	0.130
	5	0.511	**0.826**	0.113	0.279	0.417	0.135	-0.029	0.165	0.275	-0.015	0.174	0.211	0.169	0.275	0.323
	6	0.370	**0.737**	0.086	0.322	0.360	0.103	0.133	0.060	0.180	0.127	0.279	0.054	0.006	0.113	0.125
	7	0.341	**0.709**	0.037	0.381	0.295	0.116	0.113	0.050	0.188	0.112	0.236	0.059	0.042	0.126	0.143
	10	0.558	**0.718**	-0.020	0.279	0.603	0.307	-0.243	0.376	0.277	-0.145	-0.153	0.364	0.326	0.445	0.462
Adapt	1	-0.049	-0.012	**0.907**	0.021	-0.024	-0.101	0.175	-0.076	-0.066	0.065	0.050	-0.157	-0.122	-0.172	-0.152
	2	0.094	0.062	**0.826**	-0.019	0.035	-0.127	0.122	-0.026	-0.034	0.038	0.052	-0.129	-0.121	-0.108	-0.067
	3	0.048	0.056	**0.760**	0.032	-0.026	-0.046	0.098	0.005	0.086	0.006	0.096	-0.057	-0.035	-0.025	-0.034

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Table 4.4 Continued

Variables	Items	Intra	Inter	Adapt	SM	GM	SDM	NSDM	Clan	Adho	Hirar	Mar	OCP	JI	VOW	Org
	4	0.018	0.096	**0.851**	0.127	0.024	-0.008	0.121	0.013	0.028	0.057	0.064	-0.065	-0.021	-0.078	-0.081
	5	0.077	0.127	**0.694**	0.335	0.098	0.027	0.130	0.100	0.073	0.056	0.080	-0.041	-0.038	-0.065	-0.056
SM	1	0.057	0.223	-0.027	**0.604**	0.131	-0.007	0.087	-0.025	-0.036	0.070	0.002	-0.021	-0.019	0.004	0.028
	2	0.134	0.239	-0.025	**0.666**	0.162	0.042	0.104	0.037	0.012	0.075	0.059	-0.013	-0.023	0.004	0.006
	3	0.262	0.596	0.067	**0.645**	0.292	0.048	0.179	0.085	0.114	0.141	0.149	0.003	-0.015	0.050	0.073
	4	0.070	0.232	0.006	**0.675**	0.191	0.012	0.083	-0.005	0.002	0.125	0.090	-0.009	0.020	0.092	0.086
	5	0.153	0.182	0.050	**0.809**	0.215	0.113	0.076	0.177	0.087	0.022	0.100	0.052	0.023	0.069	0.095
	6	0.132	0.207	0.068	**0.833**	0.228	0.124	0.037	0.198	0.107	0.006	-0.010	0.088	0.069	0.082	0.113
	7	0.138	0.138	0.057	**0.705**	0.207	0.098	0.093	0.181	0.082	0.018	0.054	0.042	0.015	0.042	0.082
	8	0.271	0.535	0.067	**0.838**	0.316	0.166	0.123	0.142	0.163	0.107	0.155	0.081	0.091	0.153	0.165
GM	2	0.351	0.223	0.035	0.151	**0.594**	0.162	-0.032	0.201	0.152	-0.035	0.154	0.180	0.066	0.155	0.174
	3	0.456	0.361	0.009	0.182	**0.785**	0.264	-0.242	0.345	0.270	-0.157	0.066	0.310	0.248	0.293	0.326
	4	0.381	0.286	0.026	0.221	**0.729**	0.078	0.002	0.157	0.154	-0.027	0.171	0.109	0.062	0.134	0.171
	5	0.550	0.460	0.027	0.281	**0.864**	0.251	-0.156	0.354	0.315	-0.094	-0.011	0.283	0.238	0.329	0.362
	6	0.575	0.452	-0.020	0.266	**0.883**	0.241	-0.123	0.384	0.295	-0.036	0.111	0.260	0.206	0.304	0.344
	7	0.551	0.365	0.040	0.164	**0.790**	0.190	-0.194	0.385	0.244	-0.171	0.137	0.270	0.209	0.263	0.331
	8	0.584	0.644	-0.029	0.330	**0.727**	0.332	-0.214	0.436	0.386	-0.136	-0.058	0.423	0.351	0.484	0.498
	9	0.550	0.551	0.039	0.288	**0.650**	0.205	-0.171	0.397	0.308	-0.019	0.038	0.282	0.210	0.315	0.352
	10	0.136	-0.011	0.048	-0.170	**0.070**	-0.020	-0.072	0.022	0.005	0.068	-0.069	0.010	0.018	0.064	0.117
SDM	1	0.142	0.173	-0.088	0.121	0.262	**0.904**	-0.362	0.670	0.701	-0.369	-0.116	0.664	0.615	0.615	0.512
	2	0.177	0.184	-0.090	0.099	0.294	**0.875**	-0.363	0.622	0.669	-0.423	-0.043	0.656	0.571	0.537	0.481
	3	0.092	0.109	0.012	0.054	0.148	**0.525**	-0.083	0.448	0.430	-0.233	0.197	0.330	0.275	0.235	0.233

Table 4.4 Continued

Variables	Items	Intra	Inter	Adapt	SM	GM	SDM	NSDM	Clan	Adho	Hirar	Mar	OCP	JI	VOW	Org
	4	0.139	0.203	-0.067	0.149	0.293	**0.906**	-0.342	0.647	0.714	-0.368	-0.080	0.667	0.621	0.619	0.503
	5	0.163	0.203	-0.060	0.145	0.286	**0.925**	-0.375	0.664	0.692	-0.413	-0.090	0.681	0.602	0.585	0.529
	6	0.230	0.290	-0.098	0.148	0.301	**0.923**	-0.375	0.656	0.692	-0.413	-0.090	0.681	0.602	0.585	0.529
	7	0.194	0.265	-0.064	0.172	0.288	**0.909**	-0.386	0.683	0.766	-0.338	-0.050	0.717	0.681	0.660	0.570
	8	0.216	0.243	-0.090	0.140	0.271	**0.896**	-0.360	0.646	0.700	-0.389	-0.098	0.686	0.630	0.577	0.506
	9	0.199	0.252	-0.107	0.129	0.273	**0.918**	-0.355	0.676	0.725	-0.349	-0.027	0.688	0.621	0.610	0.524
NSDM	1	-0.153	-0.059	0.110	0.002	-0.342	-0.454	**0.653**	-0.591	-0.427	0.597	0.162	-0.534	-0.503	-0.442	-0.408
	2	-0.203	-0.088	0.121	0.007	-0.357	-0.415	**0.721**	-0.557	-0.408	0.618	0.270	-0.569	-0.567	-0.477	-0.472
	3	-0.024	0.038	0.067	0.004	-0.123	-0.300	**0.807**	-0.437	-0.405	0.660	0.327	-0.561	-0.570	-0.446	-0.415
	4	-0.020	-0.053	0.164	-0.029	-0.151	-0.312	**0.799**	-0.399	-0.376	0.588	0.389	-0.539	-0.565	-0.459	-0.427
	5	-0.128	-0.087	0.045	0.024	-0.119	-0.205	**0.767**	-0.398	-0.357	0.599	0.278	-0.480	-0.559	-0.418	-0.411
	6	-0.025	-0.085	0.191	0.228	-0.113	-0.237	**0.839**	-0.256	-0.296	0.604	0.304	-0.490	-0.546	-0.438	-0.380
	7	0.002	-0.029	0.142	0.248	-0.085	-0.145	**0.778**	-0.192	-0.209	0.579	0.261	-0.419	-0.502	-0.385	-0.347
	8	-0.033	-0.048	0.163	0.195	-0.088	-0.331	**0.773**	-0.312	-0.326	0.454	0.211	-0.440	-0.525	-0.431	-0.412
	9	-0.030	-0.042	0.160	0.170	-0.078	-0.274	**0.765**	-0.288	-0.291	0.441	0.164	-0.390	-0.481	-0.382	-0.362
Clan	1	0.283	0.190	-0.046	0.163	0.377	0.665	-0.379	**0.890**	0.660	-0.288	-0.003	0.550	0.497	0.479	0.439
	2	0.397	0.263	0.009	0.199	0.461	0.617	-0.404	**0.906**	0.639	-0.384	0.063	0.614	0.544	0.536	0.525
	3	0.360	0.252	-0.038	0.240	0.467	0.646	-0.470	**0.922**	0.649	-0.350	-0.021	0.616	0.562	0.571	0.558
	4	0.348	0.208	-0.004	0.186	0.438	0.623	-0.443	**0.911**	0.625	-0.378	0.053	0.597	0.545	0.522	0.496
	5	0.372	0.282	-0.018	0.118	0.461	0.558	-0.534	**0.789**	0.701	-0.337	0.064	0.586	0.566	0.555	0.561
	6	0.100	0.062	-0.033	0.044	0.140	0.594	-0.313	**0.606**	0.560	-0.298	-0.001	0.480	0.515	0.421	0.317
Adho	1	0.330	0.294	-0.059	0.071	0.381	0.721	-0.462	0.725	**0.896**	-0.334	-0.032	0.688	0.614	0.643	0.535

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Table 4.4 Continued

Variables	Items	Intra	Inter	Adapt	SM	GM	SDM	NSDM	Clan	Adho	Hirar	Mar	OCP	JI	VOW	Org
	2	0.358	0.284	-0.051	0.133	0.357	0.686	-0.472	0.719	**0.870**	-0.360	-0.054	0.665	0.624	0.622	0.540
	3	0.239	0.199	-0.062	0.062	0.270	0.705	-0.389	0.666	**0.905**	-0.312	0.070	0.649	0.595	0.609	0.490
	4	0.298	0.294	0.030	0.160	0.362	0.689	-0.414	0.611	**0.899**	-0.339	0.036	0.687	0.614	0.633	0.552
	5	0.253	0.273	0.022	0.143	0.299	0.744	-0.379	0.688	**0.899**	-0.322	0.036	0.673	0.618	0.604	0.547
	6	0.265	0.271	0.077	0.203	0.311	0.464	-0.177	0.504	**0.698**	-0.146	0.253	0.392	0.353	0.361	0.352
Hirar	1	0.152	0.082	0.059	0.082	0.013	-0.379	0.662	-0.351	-0.362	**0.827**	0.264	-0.502	-0.578	-0.397	-0.301
	2	0.052	-0.001	0.075	0.114	-0.087	-0.366	0.691	-0.352	-0.285	**0.896**	0.391	-0.556	-0.553	-0.397	-0.395
	4	-0.043	-0.104	0.020	0.023	-0.171	-0.385	0.681	-0.392	-0.384	**0.889**	0.392	-0.566	-0.571	-0.451	-0.397
	5	0.006	0.018	0.085	0.057	-0.120	-0.383	0.632	-0.338	-0.255	**0.912**	0.431	-0.539	-0.543	-0.430	-0.400
	6	0.039	0.054	0.054	0.112	-0.105	-0.374	0.665	-0.372	-0.315	**0.902**	0.343	-0.543	-0.560	-0.406	-0.361
Mar	1	0.114	0.126	0.127	0.155	0.073	0.036	0.327	0.102	0.072	0.380	**0.799**	-0.167	-0.194	-0.170	-0.160
	2	0.042	0.007	-0.038	0.082	0.044	-0.071	0.207	0.061	-0.026	0.355	**0.738**	-0.186	-0.209	-0.231	-0.213
	3	-0.002	-0.005	0.019	0.043	-0.004	-0.022	0.294	0.010	0.055	0.335	**0.785**	-0.172	-0.171	-0.162	-0.200
	4	0.061	0.068	0.023	0.019	0.087	-0.117	0.163	-0.035	0.012	0.187	**0.687**	-0.119	-0.134	-0.100	-0.121
	5	0.076	0.167	0.034	0.105	0.067	-0.022	0.237	-0.013	0.072	0.219	**0.677**	-0.140	-0.185	-0.077	-0.108
	6	0.092	0.084	0.149	0.079	0.046	-0.127	0.273	-0.015	0.016	0.291	**0.681**	-0.197	-0.216	-0.139	-0.177
OCP	1	0.341	0.306	-0.084	0.132	0.397	0.659	-0.479	0.594	0.641	-0.481	-0.136	**0.837**	0.692	0.733	0.619
	2	0.349	0.317	-0.165	0.076	0.418	0.648	-0.535	0.590	0.627	-0.487	-0.165	**0.883**	0.739	0.772	0.657
	3	0.388	0.331	-0.118	0.105	0.460	0.680	-0.491	0.630	0.696	-0.461	-0.148	**0.879**	0.727	0.773	0.657
	4	-0.105	-0.042	-0.104	-0.095	0.010	0.462	-0.585	0.376	0.465	-0.622	-0.292	**0.669**	0.668	0.511	0.409
	5	0.231	0.219	-0.122	-0.001	0.330	0.555	-0.573	0.532	0.581	-0.585	-0.199	**0.816**	0.643	0.633	0.601
	6	0.188	0.176	-0.125	0.010	0.271	0.549	-0.568	0.543	0.554	-0.569	-0.202	**0.811**	0.663	0.630	0.591

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Table 4.4 Continued

Variables	Items	Intra	Inter	Adapt	SM	GM	SDM	NSDM	Clan	Adho	Hirar	Mar	OCP	JI	VOW	Org
	7	0.214	0.205	-0.111	0.071	0.289	0.646	-0.577	0.574	0.658	-0.527	-0.218	**0.889**	0.769	0.719	0.623
	8	0.265	0.257	-0.066	0.108	0.327	0.659	-0.569	0.619	0.662	-0.524	-0.158	**0.885**	0.790	0.751	0.699
	9	0.286	0.282	-0.118	0.096	0.360	0.687	-0.568	0.647	0.666	-0.496	-0.183	**0.900**	0.806	0.765	0.649
	10	0.246	0.246	-0.109	0.097	0.343	0.680	-0.567	0.626	0.630	-0.532	-0.250	**0.861**	0.771	0.732	0.662
	11	0.251	0.262	-0.136	0.086	0.321	0.697	-0.562	0.611	0.664	-0.501	-0.225	**0.880**	0.797	0.776	0.686
JI	1	0.256	0.294	-0.137	0.085	0.343	0.699	-0.605	0.605	0.719	-0.501	-0.225	0.844	**0.856**	0.808	0.705
	2	0.186	0.214	-0.044	0.051	0.281	0.605	-0.583	0.572	0.589	-0.554	-0.171	0.746	**0.869**	0.693	0.577
	3	0.246	0.244	-0.044	0.094	0.327	0.553	-0.587	0.576	0.545	-0.523	-0.196	0.726	**0.891**	0.723	0.657
	4	0.199	0.215	-0.106	0.093	0.261	0.560	-0.577	0.541	0.533	-0.565	-0.240	0.709	**0.875**	0.671	0.614
	5	0.188	0.178	-0.117	0.068	0.292	0.554	-0.648	0.572	0.528	-0.557	-0.237	0.752	**0.865**	0.691	0.649
	6	0.132	0.136	-0.098	0.034	0.182	0.520	-0.550	0.463	0.525	-0.489	-0.208	0.643	**0.751**	0.709	0.602
	7	-0.037	0.019	-0.063	-0.046	0.014	0.455	-0.555	0.372	0.456	-0.509	-0.240	0.550	**0.735**	0.606	0.460
vow	1	-0.030	0.049	-0.080	-0.041	0.045	0.449	-0.591	0.366	0.445	-0.500	-0.276	0.572	0.642	**0.643**	0.500
	2	0.414	0.374	-0.138	0.127	0.436	0.628	-0.491	0.603	0.644	-0.431	-0.144	0.797	0.756	**0.929**	0.767
	3	0.387	0.355	-0.115	0.146	0.454	0.613	-0.472	0.581	0.645	-0.384	-0.148	0.752	0.716	**0.908**	0.734
	4	0.390	0.386	-0.124	0.166	0.422	0.621	-0.484	0.581	0.654	-0.396	-0.184	0.785	0.761	**0.949**	0.768
	5	0.390	0.385	-0.147	0.155	0.414	0.595	-0.476	0.536	0.621	-0.385	-0.165	0.771	0.754	**0.925**	0.751
	6	0.379	0.377	-0.113	0.116	0.412	0.618	-0.525	0.568	0.638	-0.444	-0.197	0.793	0.789	**0.937**	0.782
	7	0.317	0.307	-0.119	0.082	0.354	0.546	-0.500	0.541	0.553	-0.436	-0.225	0.712	0.722	**0.875**	0.796
Org	1	0.342	0.343	-0.122	0.123	0.361	0.559	-0.509	0.523	0.551	-0.455	-0.233	0.714	0.753	0.845	**0.846**
	2	0.350	0.362	-0.109	0.165	0.432	0.516	-0.459	0.518	0.504	-0.386	-0.187	0.632	0.616	0.700	**0.908**
	3	0.397	0.385	-0.100	0.135	0.470	0.513	-0.488	0.539	0.538	-0.381	-0.202	0.669	0.650	0.740	**0.947**

Table 4.4 Continued

Variables	Items	Intra	Inter	Adapt	SM	GM	SDM	NSDM	Clan	Adho	Hirar	Mar	OCP	JI	VOW	Org
	4	0.394	0.374	-0.101	0.147	0.438	0.515	-0.484	0.524	0.541	-0.376	-0.207	0.677	0.657	0.739	**0.948**
	5	0.384	0.384	-0.080	0.155	0.457	0.505	-0.462	0.548	0.530	-0.360	-0.210	0.663	0.636	0.725	**0.934**
	6	0.324	0.343	-0.112	0.116	0.399	0.520	-0.498	0.520	0.554	-0.396	-0.225	0.682	0.694	0.766	**0.892**

4.8.2 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which two measures which are supposed to be related to one another also appear related after the analysis. Factor loadings, composite reliability, and average variance extracted are the frequently used measures to determine convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). Primarily, item loadings were analyzed. The literature indicates that the acceptable value of items loading is 0.50 or more (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010). Table 4.5 shows that all items loadings were greater than 0.50 except for only 1 item loading. Next, the composite reliability was tested which indicate the extent of the items to reliably indicate the underlying construct (Hair et al., 2010). The acceptable CR value is 0.70 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010). Table 4.5 shows that the CR values for all constructs range between 0.872 and 0.968 which is exceeding the suggested values.

The degree of common variance among the indicators of the latent variable is termed as average variance extracted (AVE) (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998) was also analyzed and suggested value for AVE is greater than 0.50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010). Table 4.5 shows the AVE values range from 0.512 to 0.834, indicating convergent validity.

CR values for the dimensions of work commitment (for the establishment of the second-order construct) are also presented in Table 4.5. Since dependent variable work commitment is a reflective – reflective model and it is suggested to report composite reliability in this case.

Table 4.5

Convergent Validity

Variables	Items	Loading	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	AVE
Intrapersonal	INTRA1	0.569	0.901	0.919	0.538
	INTRA2	0.693			
	INTRA3	0.726			
	INTRA4	0.820			
	INTRA5	0.815			
	INTRA6	0.836			
	INTRA7	0.835			
	INTRA8	0.768			
	INTRA9	0.627			
	INTRA10	0.576			
Interpersonal	INTER1	0.651	0.916	0.897	0.522
	INTER2	0.676			
	INTER3	0.690			
	INTER4	0.760			
	INTER5	0.826			
	INTER6	0.737			
	INTER7	0.709			
	INTER10	0.718			
Adaptability	ADAPT1	0.907	0.877	0.905	0.658
	ADAPT2	0.826			
	ADAPT3	0.760			
	ADAPT4	0.851			
	ADAPT5	0.694			
Stress-Management	SM1	0.604	0.891	0.898	0.529
	SM2	0.666			
	SM3	0.645			
	SM4	0.675			
	SM5	0.809			
	SM6	0.833			

Table 4.5 Continued

	SM7	0.705			
	SM8	0.838			
General Mood	GM2	0.594	0.861	0.894	0.512
	GM3	0.785			
	GM4	0.729			
	GM5	0.864			
	GM6	0.883			
	GM7	0.790			
	GM8	0.727			
	GM9	0.650			
	GM10	0.070			
Work Self-determined Motivation	SDM1	0.904	0.958	0.966	0.762
	SDM2	0.875			
	SDM3	0.525			
	SDM4	0.906			
	SDM5	0.925			
	SDM6	0.923			
	SDM7	0.909			
	SDM8	0.896			
	SDM9	0.918			
Work non-self-determined Motivation	NSDM1	0.653	0.913	0.928	0.591
	NSDM2	0.721			
	NSDM3	0.807			
	NSDM4	0.799			
	NSDM5	0.767			
	NSDM6	0.839			
	NSDM7	0.778			
	NSDM8	0.773			
	NSDM9	0.765			
Clan	CLAN1	0.890	0.915	0.936	0.714

Table 4.5 Continued

	CLAN2	0.906			
	CLAN3	0.922			
	CLAN4	0.911			
	CLAN5	0.789			
	CLAN6	0.606			
Adhocracy	ADHO1	0.896	0.931	0.946	0.747
	ADHO2	0.870			
	ADHO3	0.905			
	ADHO4	0.899			
	ADHO5	0.899			
	ADHO6	0.698			
Hierarchy	HIRAR1	0.827	0.944	0.955	0.781
	HIRAR2	0.896			
	HIRAR3	0.873			
	HIRAR4	0.889			
	HIRAR5	0.912			
	HIRAR6	0.902			
Market	MAR1	0.799	0.825	0.872	0.532
	MAR2	0.738			
	MAR3	0.785			
	MAR4	0.687			
	MAR5	0.677			
	MAR6	0.681			
Occupational Commitment	OCP1	0.837	0.960	0.966	0.720
	OCP2	0.883			
	OCP3	0.879			
	OCP4	0.669			
	OCP5	0.816			
	OCP6	0.811			
	OCP7	0.889			
	OCP8	0.885			
	OCP9	0.900			

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Table 4.5 Continued

	OCP10	0.861			
	OCP11	0.880			
Job Involvement	JOB1	0.856	0.928	0.942	0.700
	JOB2	0.869			
	JOB3	0.891			
	JOB4	0.875			
	JOB5	0.865			
	JOB6	0.751			
	JOB7	0.735			
Value of Work	VW1	0.643	0.952	0.962	0.785
	VW2	0.929			
	VW3	0.908			
	VW4	0.949			
	VW5	0.925			
	VW6	0.937			
	VW7	0.875			
Organizational Commitment	ORG1	0.846	0.960	0.968	0.834
	ORG2	0.908			
	ORG3	0.947			
	ORG4	0.948			
	ORG5	0.934			
	ORG6	0.892			
Work Commitment	OCP-WC	0.950		0.959	0.853
	JOB-WC	0.929			
	VW-WC	0.939			
	ORG-WC	0.875			

4.8.3 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity seeks to confirm that after running an analysis a particular measure is not related to other measures. It ensures the construct validity of the outer model. According to Chin (2010) suggestions, this was done by examining square roots

of the average variance extracted (AVE) with correlations amongst the latent constructs. The AVE score of 0.50 and above is suggested and the square root of AVE should be greater than the correlations amongst the latent constructs.

Table 4.6 on page 152 entails the values for the discriminant analysis.

Table 4.6

Discriminant Validity (Fornell-Larcker Criterion)

Variables	ADHO	ADAPT	CLAN	GM	HIRAR	INTER	INTRA	MAR	NSDM	SDM	SM	WC
Adhocracy	**0.864**											
Adaptability	-0.015	**0.811**										
Clan	0.759	-0.025	**0.845**									
General Mood	0.380	0.015	0.474	**0.715**								
Hierarchy	-0.359	0.059	-0.404	-0.122	**0.884**							
Interpersonal	0.309	0.056	0.256	0.599	-0.019	**0.723**						
Intrapersonal	0.335	0.028	0.377	0.690	0.019	0.620	**0.733**					
Market	0.042	0.072	0.032	0.067	0.418	0.093	0.086	**0.730**				
Work non-self-determined Motivation	-0.455	0.167	-0.508	-0.218	0.751	-0.066	-0.093	0.347	**0.769**			
Work self-determined Motivation	0.782	-0.088	0.730	0.312	-0.416	0.249	0.201	-0.073	-0.393	**0.873**		
Stress Management	0.142	0.076	0.192	0.322	0.078	0.413	0.233	0.113	0.114	0.151	**0.727**	
Work Commitment	0.733	-0.134	0.688	0.421	-0.593	0.337	0.338	-0.251	-0.666	0.729	0.110	**0.801**

It can be seen from Table 4.6 that diagonal values were greater than the rest of the values of their respective column and row as suggested by Fornell and Larcker, (1981) indicating outer model discriminant validity. Generally, the outer models' construct validity was ascertained and moreover, it was assumed that the succeeding outcomes of hypothesis analysis would be reliable and valid.

4.9 Second-order Construct Establishment

After the establishment of measures, according to Chin (2010), the next stage involved presenting evidence to support the theoretical model as indicated in the structural part of the model. Higher-order models commonly incorporate testing second-order structures which comprise two layers of components (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013). In accordance with previous studies, the present study hypothesized to evaluate the overall moderating effect of organizational culture for which it is essential to consider it as a second-order measurement model since organizational culture comprised of four types (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market). From a statistical viewpoint, in these cases, latent variable scores of construct's (organizational culture in this study) types (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market) are taken into account as its indicators for estimation.

It was also sub-hypothesized to assess the individual effects of types of organizational culture where types employed as first-order constructs. Apart from that the two independent variable, emotional intelligence (intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management and general mood) and work motivation (work self-determined motivation and work non-self-determined motivation) and dependent variable work commitment (occupational commitment, job involvement, value of work and organizational commitment) were also assessed as second-order constructs.

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Furthermore, as recommended by Byrne (2010) for considering first-order constructs and with regards to their conceptual description by the second order construct, they should be elucidated properly by the hypothesized second order construct. Besides, it is anticipated that they are remarkably different. Therefore, before advancing towards the estimation of the research model, it was indispensable to confirm that the first-order constructs are surmised to be sufficiently capable to be theoretically described by the second order construct under discussion.

Three steps are involved in assessing formative measures: (1) test for weight significance (t-Value), (2) test for multi-collinearity (VIF) and (3) Indicator Weights. Table 4.7 shows no indication of collinearity among the indicators. All the values are less than the threshold of VIF = <5.0 (Hair et al., 2014). Insignificant dimensions of constructs were also retained because all the dimension were important to study the variables and it is in accordance with the composite method of Bollen and Bauldry (2011). According to Bollen and Bauldry (2011) composite method dimensions of the second-order construct are retained, even if they are not significant.

Table 4.7 presents the findings relating to the formation of organizational culture, emotional intelligence and work motivation as the second order construct in this study.

Table 4.7

Second-order Construct Establishment

Variables	Items	Weight	VIF	*t*-values	*p*-Values
Emotional Intelligence	INTRA	0.086	2.210	0.577	0.149
	INTER	0.335	1.973	1.992	0.168
	ADAPT	-0.309	1.007	3.589	0.086
	SM	-0.113	1.235	1.100	0.103
	GM	0.691	2.141	4.515	0.153

Table 4.7 Continued

Organizational Culture	CLAN	0.277	2.513	4.104	0.068
	ADHO	0.564	2.396	8.803	0.064
	HIRAR	-0.304	1.556	7.169	0.042
	MARKET	-0.209	1.294	5.121	0.041
Work Motivation	SDM	0.655	1.183	2.129	0.308
	NSDM	-0.535	1.183	2.712	0.007

Note: INTRA: Intrapersonal; INTER: Interpersonal; ADAPT: Adaptability; SM: Stress-Management; GM: General Mood; SDM: Work self-determined Motivation; NSDM: Work non-self-determined Motivation; WC: Work Commitment.

4.10 Assessment of Significance of the Structural Model and Hypothesis Testing

After establishing the outer model, the next step is to assess the inner model which involves testing hypotheses by calculating path coefficients and t-values. Using Smart PLS 3.0 current study applied a bootstrapping process with 500 resamples to ascertain the significance of path coefficients to test hypothesized relationships as indicated by Chin (2010). Who suggested that 200 to 1000 number of bootstrap samples result in sufficient standard error estimates. To determine the significance of path coefficient present study depended on bootstrapping method which is set in Smart PLS software. It can be seen in Figure 4.1 and 4.2 the estimates of the complete structural model.
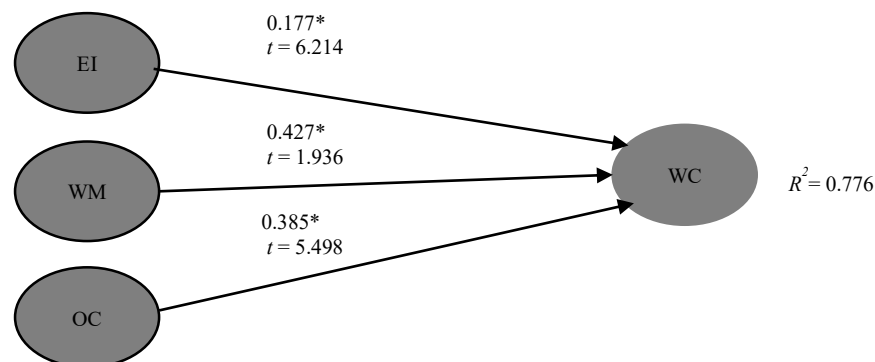
Figure 4.1. Path Model Significance Results (Path coefficients and t-values): Second Order Hypotheses

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Hypothesis H1 anticipated that emotional intelligence has a significant relationship with work commitment. Table 4.8 and Figure 4.1 reveals a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment ($\beta = 0.177$, $t = 6.214$, $p < 0.05$) and validating hypothesis H1. The results showed that emotional intelligence is associated with increased work commitment.
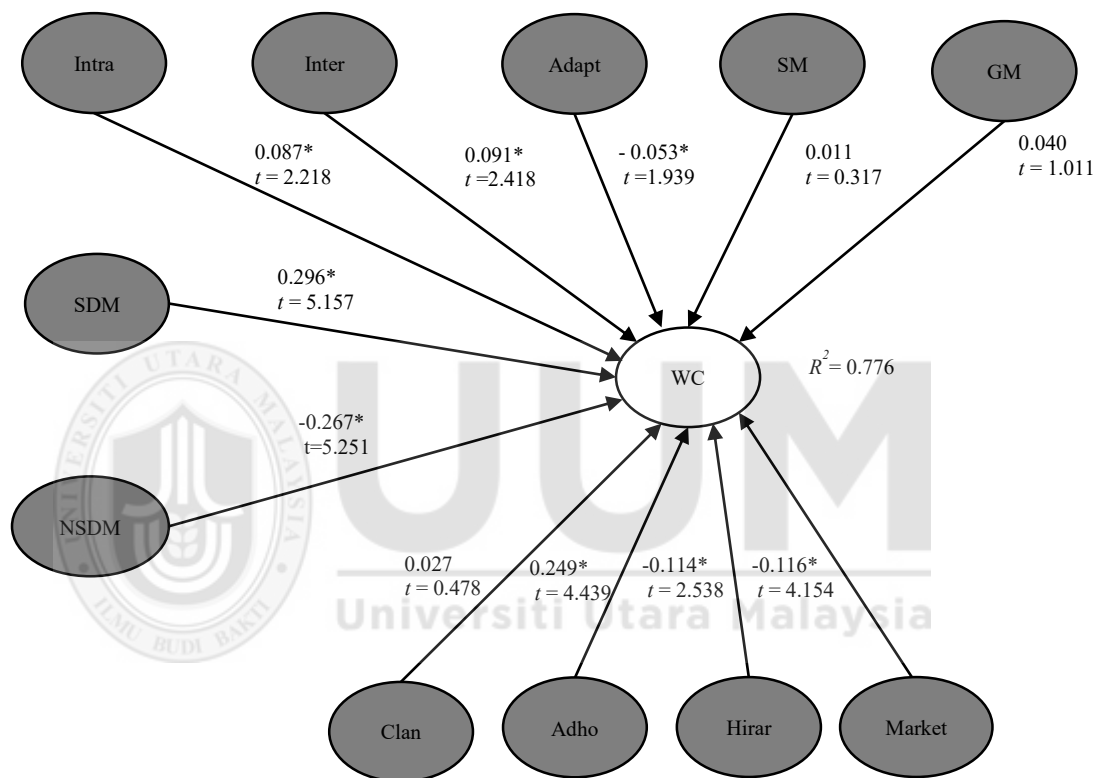
Figure 4.2. Path Model Significance Results (Path coefficients and t-values): Direct Hypotheses.

Hypothesis H1a revealed a significant positive relationship between the intrapersonal dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment ($\beta = 0.087$, $t = 2.218$, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, hypothesis H1a is confirmed and findings showed a significant positive relationship between the intrapersonal dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment. Hypothesis H1b found a significantly positive relationship between

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the interpersonal dimension of emotional intelligence ($\beta = 0.091$, $t = 2.418$, $p < 0.05$) and work commitment. Hypothesis H1c found a significantly negative relationship between the adaptability dimension of emotional intelligence ($\beta = -0.053$, $t = 1.939$, $p < 0.05$) and work commitment. Therefore, hypothesis H1a and H1b were supported and demonstrated that academic staff with intrapersonal and interpersonal dimensions of emotional intelligence show more work commitment. Hypothesis H1d and H1e were not supported, which showed that stress-management ($\beta = 0.011$, $t = 0.317$, $p > 0.05$) and general mood ($\beta = 0.040$, $t = 1.011$, $p > 0.05$) dimensions of emotional intelligence were not significantly related to work commitment. The findings demonstrated that stress management and general mood dimensions of emotional intelligence were not related to work commitment.

Hypothesis H2 anticipated that work motivation has a significant relationship with work commitment. Results showed a significant positive relationship between work motivation and work commitment ($\beta = 0.427$, $t = 1.936$, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, hypothesis H2 was accepted. Results demonstrated that academic staffs' work motivation was associated with work commitment. Hypotheses H2a showed a significant positive relationship between work self-determined motivation and work commitment ($\beta = 0.296$, $t = 5.157$, $p < 0.05$) and hypothesis H2b exhibited a significant negative relationship between work non-self-determined motivation and work commitment ($\beta = -0.267$, $t = 5.251$, $p < 0.05$). Results revealed that work self-determined motivation was positively associated with work commitment whereas work non-self-determined motivation was negatively associated with work commitment.

Hypothesis H3 predicted a significant relationship between organizational culture and work commitment. Findings indicate a significant positive relationship between

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organizational culture and work commitment ($\beta = 0.385$, $t = 5.498$, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, hypothesis H3 was confirmed and established that organizational culture of the university is positively related with the work commitment of academic staff.

Table 4.8

Second order Hypotheses Results

Hypo.	Variables	Std. beta	Std. error	t-values	p-Values	Result	10.00%	90.00%
H1	EI -> WC	0.177	0.028	6.214	0.000	Supported	0.135	0.208
H2	WM -> WC	0.427	0.220	1.936	0.027	Supported	0.322	0.526
H3	OC -> WC	0.385	0.070	5.498	0.000	Supported	0.298	0.481

Note: EI: Emotional Intelligence; WM: Work Motivation; WC: Work Commitment.

Hypothesis H3a predicted a significant relationship between clan culture and work commitment. Findings showed insignificant relationship between clan culture and work commitment ($\beta = 0.027$, $t = 0.478$, $p > 0.05$). Therefore, hypothesis H3a was not accepted. Findings showed that clan culture in universities is not associated with the work commitment of academic staff. Hypotheses H3b was supported and showed a significant positive relationship between adhocracy ($\beta = 0.249$, $t = 4.439$, $p < 0.05$) and work commitment. The results suggest that adhocracy culture in universities is linked with increased work commitment.

Hypotheses H3c and H3d showed a negative relationship between hierarchy culture and work commitment ($\beta = -0.114$, $t = 2.538$, $p < 0.05$) and market culture and work commitment ($\beta = -0.116$, $t = 4.154$, $p < 0.05$). These hypotheses were also supported and indicated that hierarchy and market culture in universities is associated with decreased work commitment.

The results of path model significance with t-values can be seen in Figure 4.2 and 4.3 and Table 4.8 and 4.9 which lend support to compute p-values for direct relationships and provided the support for attaining decision regarding the significance of hypotheses.

4.10.1 Assessment of Variance Explained in the Endogenous Latent Variable

For the assessment of structural model in PLS-SEM, the coefficient of determination is a pertinent condition, termed as R-squared value (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011). Model strength is indicated by R^2 value of endogenous construct. R^2 value is specified by the amount of variance in the endogenous variable elucidated by exogenous variables. Literature indicates that minimum acceptable level of R^2 value as 0.10 (Hair et al., 2010). The R^2 values of 0.19, 0.33, and 0.67 are considered as small, medium and large respectively (Chin, 1998). In this research, the R^2 values of the criterion variable (work commitment) fulfill the criteria as presented in Table 4.9 on page 160.

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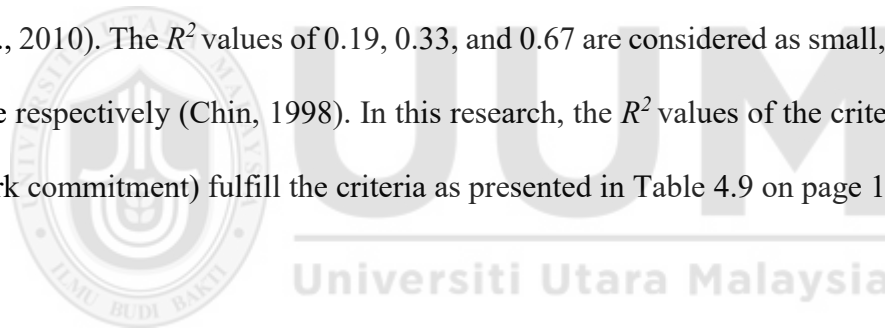
Table 4.9

Direct Hypotheses Result

Hypo.	Variables	Std. beta	Std. Error	*t*-values	*P*-Values	Result	5.00%	95.00%	VIF	*f²*	*R²*	*Q²*
H1a	INTRA -> WC	0.087	0.039	2.218	0.013	Supported	0.031	0.131	2.431	0.014	0.776	0.463
H1b	INTER -> WC	0.091	0.038	2.418	0.008	Supported	0.039	0.134	2.117	0.018		
H1c	ADAPT -> WC	-0.053	0.028	1.939	0.026	Supported	-0.086	-0.016	1.078	0.012		
H1d	SM -> WC	0.011	0.034	0.317	0.376	not-supported	-0.048	0.045	1.328	0.000		
H1e	GM -> WC	0.040	0.039	1.011	0.156	not-supported	-0.006	0.099	2.416	0.003		
H2a	SDM -> WC	0.296	0.057	5.157	0.000	Supported	0.226	0.373	3.449	0.113		
H2b	NSDM -> WC	-0.267	0.051	5.251	0.000	Supported	-0.334	-0.207	3.087	0.103		
H3a	CLAN -> WC	0.027	0.056	0.478	0.316	not-supported	-0.045	0.095	3.603	0.001		
H3b	ADHO -> WC	0.249	0.056	4.439	0.000	Supported	0.175	0.322	3.581	0.077		
H3c	HIRAR -> WC	-0.114	0.045	2.538	0.006	Supported	-0.172	-0.056	2.703	0.021		
H3d	MAR -> WC	-0.116	0.028	4.154	0.000	Supported	-0.150	-0.077	1.373	0.044		

Note: INTRA: Intrapersonal; INTER: Interpersonal; ADAPT: Adaptability; SM: Self-Management; GM: General Mood; SDM: Work self-determined Motivation; NSDM: Work non-self-determined Motivation; WC: Work Commitment; ADHO; Adhocracy; HIRAR: Hierarchy; MAR: Market.

*p < 0.10; **p < 0.05; ***p < 0.01

4.10.2 Assessment of Effect Size f^2

Besides the evaluation of R^2 values for endogenous variables to reflect the model's strength, it can also be utilized to assess the persistent impact on the endogenous construct by an exogenous construct. Changes in the value of R^2 as a result of excluding a specific exogenous construct from the model and then by maintaining the exogenous construct, can be used to assess the effect size(f^2) which shows the significance of excluded construct for the endogenous construct. It is computed as the increase in R-squared of the latent variable to which the path is connected, in relation to the proportion of the latent construct's unexplained variance (Chin, 1998). Hair et al., (2013) suggested f^2 values of 0.02 as small, 0.15 as medium and 0.35 as large effect.

By noticing f^2 values in Table 4.8, it is apparent that the effect sizes for adhocracy, hierarchy and market dimensions of organizational culture were 0.077, 0.021 and 0.044. Therefore, in line with Cohen's (1988) benchmark, the effect size of these exogenous latent variables on work commitment was reflected as small. Besides, the effect size for intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability dimensions of emotional intelligence on work commitment were 0.014, 0.018 and 0.012 respectively. Likewise, as suggested by Cohen (1988) these three exogenous latent variables indicate small effect size on work commitment. The effect size of work self-determined motivation and work non-self-determined motivation on work commitment was 0.113 and 0.103 and can be described as small.

4.10.3 Assessment of Predictive Relevance

Moreover, the predictive relevance of the model was also measured as suggested by Hair et al., (2010) to assess the model's quality. Cross-validated redundancy measure can be utilized to evaluate the predictive quality of the model, signified as Q^2. It's a

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customarily established sample re-use method. Q^2 value higher than 0 specifies the predictive relevance of the model for an endogenous construct (Hair et al., 2014). Without it, the model is devoid of predictive relevance. In Smart PLS software blindfolding is used for the estimation of predictive relevance. In blindfolding technique, few cases are omitted and manipulated as missing values for the estimation of parameters (Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2014). Afterward, the estimated parameters are administered to re-establish the basic data, previously which were presumed as missing. Subsequently, general cross-validating metrics generate Q^2 (Chin, 1998).

Table 4.8 shows that Q^2 value is greater than 0 which indicates adequate level of predictive relevance for the model (Chin, 1998; Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009).

4.11 Testing Moderation Effects

In the present study, using Smart PLS, the two-stage approach was performed to identify and evaluate the strength of the moderating effect of organizational culture on the relationships between emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment. Though organizational culture consists of four types, initially it was evaluated as a second-order construct and latent variable scores of the four types of organizational culture were utilized as its measurement indicators. For examining moderation, the two-stage approach was employed because of the fact that moderating variable is a continuous variable (Rigdon, Schumacker, & Wothke, 1998).

In SEM terminology, the interaction of organizational culture is presented as EI*OC and WM*OC. Then, for further contribution to knowledge the types (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market) of organizational culture variable were also separately sub-hypothesized as (H4a-H4d) and (H5a-H5d) to moderate the relationship between

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emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment. For the estimation of the possible moderation effects of four types of organizational culture in the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment, the individual interaction of these were produced and presented as EI*CLAN, EI*ADHO, EI*HIRAR, EI*MAR.

For the evaluation of the probable moderation effects of four types of organizational culture in the relationship between work motivation and work commitment, the individual interaction of these were produced and shown as WM*CLAN, WM*ADHO, WM*HIRAR, WM*MAR.

To determine the existence of moderating effects, p-values were computed. Decisions were inferred based on path model results of the assumed moderating variable and its types and their significant findings. The findings of moderating effects are given in Table 4.10.

In Table 4.10 hypothesis H4 revealed that organizational culture negatively moderated the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment (β = -0.054, t =1.768, p < 0.05). Therefore, the results indicated that the association between emotional intelligence and work commitment is negatively moderated by organizational culture. Hypothesis H4b indicated that adhocracy culture negatively moderate (β = -0.098, t = 2.882, p < 0.05) the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. This hypothesis was supported and results signified that emotional intelligence and work commitment of academic staff is negatively moderated by adhocracy culture. Further, the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment was not moderated by clan (β = -0.044, t = 1.305, p

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> 0.05), hierarchy ($\beta = 0.020$, $t = 0.752$, $p > 0.05$) and market ($\beta = -0.016$, $t = 0.520$, $p > 0.05$) as described under hypotheses H4a, H4c and H4d respectively. Therefore, hypotheses H4a, H4c and H4d were not accepted and findings demonstrated that the association between emotional intelligence and work commitment is not moderated by clan, hierarchy and market culture.

Hypothesis H5 was supported. It can be seen that organizational culture ($\beta = -0.118$, $t = 2.110$, $p < 0.05$) negatively moderated the relationship between work motivation and work commitment. Therefore, results showed that relationship between work motivation and work commitment was negatively moderated by organizational culture. Hypotheses H5a, H5b, H5c and H5d were also supported. It shows that the relationship between work motivation and work commitment was negatively moderated by clan ($\beta = -0.169$, $t = 2.145$, $p < 0.05$), adhocracy ($\beta = -0.112$, $t = 2.053$, $p < 0.05$) and positively moderated by hierarchy ($\beta = 0.170$, $t = 2.076$, $p < 0.05$) and market ($\beta = 0.097$, $t = 1.904$, $p < 0.05$). Thus the findings confirmed that clan and adhocracy culture negatively moderated the relationship between work motivation and work commitment whereas hierarchy and market culture positively moderated the relationship between work motivation and work commitment.

Table 4.10

Results of Moderating Effects

Hypo.	Variables	Std. Beta	Std. Error	*t*-values	*p*-Values	Result	5.00%	95.00%
H4	EI*OC -> WC	-0.054	0.03	1.768	0.039	Supported	-0.094	-0.016
H4a	EI*CLAN -> WC	-0.044	0.033	1.305	0.096	not-Supported	-0.089	-0.002
H4b	EI*ADHO -> WC	-0.098	0.034	2.882	0.002	Supported	-0.139	-0.053
H4c	EI*HIRAR -> WC	0.020	0.027	0.752	0.226	not-Supported	-0.014	0.058
H4d	EI*MAR -> WC	-0.016	0.031	0.520	0.301	not-Supported	-0.059	0.022
H5	WM*OC -> WC	-0.118	0.056	2.11	0.018	Supported	-0.149	-0.09
H5a	WM*CLAN -> WC	-0.169	0.079	2.145	0.016	Supported	-0.200	-0.134
H5b	WM*ADHO -> WC	-0.112	0.055	2.053	0.020	Supported	-0.149	-0.071
H5c	WM*HIRAR -> WC	0.170	0.082	2.076	0.019	Supported	0.136	0.209
H5d	WM*MAR -> WC	0.097	0.051	1.904	0.029	Supported	0.055	0.140

Note: OC: Organizational Culture; EI: Emotional Intelligence; WM: Work Motivation; WC: Work Commitment; ADHO; Adhocracy; HIRAR: Hierarchy; MAR: Market.

*p < 0.10; **p < 0.05; ***p < 0.01

4.12 Testing Differential effects

This section discusses the inferential statistical analyses of the study. Hypothesis six was focused on the differential aspect to ascertain the differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment based on demographic factors which are gender, age, work experience, work position, qualification and income. Independent sample t-test and ANOVA were performed to compare two and more groups respectively. Findings of the analyses are presented in the subsequent section.

Table 4.11

Independent Sample t-test for Males and Females on Emotional Intelligence, Work Motivation and Work Commitment (N=351).

Males (n=213)	Females (n=138)				
Variables	**Male**		**Female**		***T***
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	
Emotional Intelligence	3.74	0.58	3.71	0.61	0.42
Work Motivation	20.33	4.55	19.09	0.34	2.59*
Work Commitment	3.48	1.16	3.46	1.00	0.18

*p < 0.05

Hypothesis 6a, 6b and 6c predicted significant differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment based on gender. Independent sample t-test was performed to examine the differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment based on gender. Table 4.11 shows that significant differences were only found in work motivation scores for males ($M = 20.33$, $SD = 4.55$) and females ($M = 19.09$, $SD = 0.34$), $t(349) = 2.59$, $p < 0.05$). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean difference = 1.24), was very small (eta squared = 0.01). Cohen (1988) suggested eta squared values of 0.01 as small, 0.06 as medium and 0.14 as large effect. Therefore, gender indicated a small effect size on work motivation. Therefore, hypothesis 6b was confirmed and indicated that males are different from

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females on work motivation. Males achieved a higher score on work motivation than their female counterparts.

Table 4.12

One Way Analysis of Variance for the Scores of Emotional Intelligence, Work Motivation and Work Commitment in Relation to Age (N=351).

Variables		*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
EI	Between Groups	2.167	4	.542	1.528	.194
	Within Groups	122.656	346	.354		
	Total	124.822	350			
WM	Between Groups	233.958	4	58.489	3.093	.016
	Within Groups	6542.795	346	18.910		
	Total	6776.753	350			
WC	Between Groups	2.290	4	.573	.470	.758
	Within Groups	421.731	346	1.219		
	Total	424.022	350			

Note: EI: Emotional Intelligence; WM: Work Motivation; WC: Work Commitment.

Hypothesis 7a, 7b and 7c predicted significant differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment based on age. A one-way analysis of variance was performed to examine the differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment on the bases of age. Table 4.12 shows that significant differences were only found in work motivation scores for the five age groups: $F(4, 346) = 3.093$, $p < 0.05$ Which indicated that age caused differences in work motivation. Regardless of getting statistical significance, the real difference in mean scores was relatively small. The effect size, computed using eta squared, was .03.

Table 4.13

Summary of Multiple Comparison Result of Five Age Groups

Work Motivation		Mean Diff	Std. Error	Sig.
Less than 25 years	25-34 years	**1.880**	0.559	**0.008**[*]
	35-44 years	1.865	0.803	0.140
	45-55 years	1.116	0.757	0.580
	56 and above	2.269	3.106	0.949
25-34 years	Less than 25 years	**-1.880**	0.559	**0.008**[*]
	35-44 years	-0.015	0.753	1.000
	45-55 years	-0.763	0.704	0.815
	56 and above	0.389	3.094	1.000
35-44 years	Less than 25 years	-1.865	0.803	0.140
	25-34 years	0.015	0.753	1.000
	45-55 years	-0.748	0.910	0.924
	56 and above	0.404	3.147	1.000
45-55 years	Less than 25 years	-1.116	0.757	0.580
	25-34 years	0.763	0.704	0.815
	35-44 years	0.748	0.910	0.924
	56 and above	1.153	3.135	0.996
56 and above	Less than 25 years	-2.269	3.106	0.949
	25-34 years	-0.389	3.094	1.000
	35-44 years	-0.404	3.147	1.000
	45-55 years	-1.153	3.135	0.996

*p < .05

Table 4.13 presents the post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test which shows

that the mean scores for Group 1 ($M = 21.10$, $SD = 4.46$) were significantly different

from group 2 (*M* = 19.22, *SD*= 4.13). Group 3,4,5 were not significantly different from either group 1 or 2. Therefore the hypothesis 7b was supported and signified that respondents whose age was less than 25 years was significantly different from respondents with age 25-34 years. Respondents with less than 25 years of age scored higher on work motivation than 25-34 years age group.

Table 4.14

One Way Analysis of Variance for the Scores of Emotional Intelligence, Work Motivation and Work Commitment in Relation to Work Experience (N=351).

Variables		*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
EI	Between Groups	2.591	5	.518	1.463	.201
	Within Groups	122.232	345	.354		
	Total	124.822	350			
WM	Between Groups	278.300	5	55.660	2.955	.013
	Within Groups	6498.453	345	18.836		
	Total	6776.753	350			
WC	Between Groups	3.886	5	.777	.638	.671
	Within Groups	420.136	345	1.218		
	Total	424.022	350			

Note: EI: Emotional Intelligence; WM: Work Motivation; WC: Work Commitment.

Hypothesis 8a, 8b and 8c predicted significant differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment based on work experience. A one-way analysis of variance was performed to examine the differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment on the bases of work experience. Table 4.14 shows

that no significant differences were found in emotional intelligence and work commitment scores for the six groups based on work experience. Differences were only found in work motivation based on work experience. Table 4.14 shows that differences were also found in work motivation scores for the six work experience groups: F (5, 345) = 2.955, $p < .05$. This indicated that work experience caused differences in work motivation. Regardless of getting statistical significance, the real difference in mean scores was relatively small. The effect size, computed using eta squared, was .04.

Table 4.15

Summary of Multiple Comparison Result of Six Work Experience Groups

Work Motivation		Mean Diff	Std. Error	Sig.
5 years and below	6 to 10 years	1.142	0.530	0.264
	11 to 15 years	1.982	0.826	0.160
	16 to 20 years	-0.613	0.782	0.970
	20 to 25 years	-2.569	1.679	0.645
	26 to 30 years	1.502	3.089	0.997
6 to 10 years	5 years and below	-1.142	0.530	0.264
	11 to 15 years	0.840	0.840	0.918
	16 to 20 years	-1.755	0.796	0.239
	20 to 25 years	-3.711	1.686	0.240
	26 to 30 years	0.360	3.093	1.000
11 to 15 years	5 years and below	-1.982	0.826	0.160
	6 to 10 years	-0.840	0.840	0.918
	16 to 20 years	-2.595	1.018	0.113
	20 to 25 years	-4.551	1.801	0.119
	26 to 30 years	-0.480	3.157	1.000
16 to 20 years	5 years and below	0.613	0.782	0.970

Table 4.15 Continued

	6 to 10 years	1.755	0.796	0.239
	11 to 15 years	2.595	1.018	0.113
	20 to 25 years	-1.956	1.781	0.882
	26 to 30 years	2.115	3.146	0.985
20 to 25 years	5 years and below	2.569	1.679	0.645
	6 to 10 years	3.711	1.686	0.240
	11 to 15 years	4.551	1.801	0.119
	16 to 20 years	1.956	1.781	0.882
	26 to 30 years	4.071	3.479	0.851
26 to 30 years	5 years and below	-1.502	3.089	0.997
	6 to 10 years	-0.360	3.093	1.000
	11 to 15 years	0.480	3.157	1.000
	16 to 20 years	-2.115	3.146	0.985
	20 to 25 years	-4.071	3.479	0.851

Table 4.15 presents the post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test, which shows insignificant mean differences in the six groups based on work experience. Although results of ANOVA test were significant yet no visible mean differences were shown in Tukey HSD test. Therefore, differences among groups cannot be determined.

Table 4.16

One Way Analysis of Variance for the Scores of Emotional Intelligence, Work Motivation and Work Commitment in Relation to Work Position (N=351).

Variables		*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
EI	Between Groups	.376	2	.188	.526	.591
	Within Groups	124.446	348	.358		
	Total	124.822	350			

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Table 4.16 Continued

WM	Between Groups	260.710	2	130.355	6.962	.001
	Within Groups	6516.042	348	18.724		
	Total	6776.753	350			
WC	Between Groups	3.126	2	1.563	1.292	.276
	Within Groups	420.896	348	1.209		
	Total	424.022	350			

Notes: EI: Emotional Intelligence; WM: Work Motivation; WC: Work Commitment.

Hypothesis 9a, 9b and 9c predicted significant differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment based on work position. Table 4.16 presents the findings of the one-way analysis of variance to study the differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment on the basis of work position. Significant differences were only found in work motivation scores for the three groups based on work position: $F(2, 348) = 6.962$, $p < 0.01$ Findings confirmed differences in work motivation based on work position. Regardless of getting statistical significance the real difference in mean scores was relatively small. The effect size, computed using eta squared, was .03.

Table 4.17

Summary of Multiple Comparison Result of Three Work Position Groups

Work Motivation		Mean Diff	Std. Error	Sig.
Lecturer	Assistant Professor	**1.865**	0.501	**0.001***
	Associate Professor	0.977	1.060	0.627

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Table 4.17 Continued

Assistant Professor	Lecturer	**-1.865**	0.501	**0.001**[*]
	Associate Professor	-0.887	1.098	0.698
Associate Professor	Lecturer	-0.977	1.060	0.627
	Assistant Professor	0.887	1.098	0.698

In table 4.17, Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test shows that the mean scores for Group 1 ($M = 20.49$, $SD= 4.40$) was significantly different from group 2 ($M = 18.63$, $SD= 4.19$). Group 3 was not significantly different from either group 1 or 2. Therefore hypothesis 9b was accepted and indicated that lecturers were different from assistant professors on work motivation scores. Lecturers scored higher than assistant professors on work motivation.

Table 4.18

One Way Analysis of Variance for the Scores of Emotional Intelligence, Work Motivation and Work Commitment in Relation to Qualification (N=351).

Variables		SS	df	MS	F	P
EI	Between Groups	2.180	2	1.090	3.093	.047
	Within Groups	122.642	348	.352		
	Total	124.822	350			
WM	Between Groups	305.836	2	152.918	8.224	.000
	Within Groups	6470.917	348	18.595		
	Total	6776.753	350			
WC	Between Groups	.827	2	.414	.340	.712

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Within Groups	423.194	348	1.216	
Total	424.022	350		

Hypothesis 10a, 10b and 10c predicted significant differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment based on qualification. Table 4.18 presents the findings of the one-way analysis of variance to examine the differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment on the basis of qualification. Hypotheses 10a and 10b were accepted. Differences were found in emotional intelligence scores for the three groups based on qualification: $F(2, 348) = 3.093$, $p < 0.05$. Regardless of getting statistical significance the real difference in mean scores was relatively small. The effect size, computed using eta squared, was .01.

Table 4.19

Summary of Multiple Comparison Result of Emotional Intelligence Based on Three Qualification Groups

Emotional Intelligence		Mean Diff	Std. Error	Sig.
M.Phil.	PhD	0.084	0.070	0.453
	Post-doc	-0.625	0.299	0.093
PhD	M.Phil.	-0.084	0.070	0.453
	Post-doc	-0.710	0.302	0.051
Postdoc	M.Phil.	0.625	0.299	0.093
	PhD	0.710	0.302	0.051

Table 4.19 presents the post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test which shows no significant mean differences in the groups based on qualification. It can be seen in Table 4.19 that significant differences were also found in work motivation scores for the three groups based on qualification: $F (2, 348) = 8.224$, $p < 0.01$. Regardless of

getting statistical significance the real difference in mean scores was relatively small. The effect size, computed using eta squared, was 0.04.

Table 4.20

Summary of Multiple Comparison Result of Work Motivation Based on Three Qualification Groups

Work Motivation		Mean Diff	Std. Error	Sig.
M.Phil.	PhD	**1.738**	0.512	**0.002**[*]
	Post-doc	**5.318**	2.173	**0.039**[*]
PhD	M.Phil.	**-1.738**	0.512	**0.002**[*]
	Post-doc	3.579	2.199	0.235
Post-doc	M.Phil.	**-5.318**	2.173	**0.039**[*]
	PhD	-3.579	2.199	0.235

In Table 4.20 Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test shows that the mean scores for Group 1 ($M = 20.40$, $SD = 4.47$) was significantly different from group 2 ($M = 18.66$, $SD = 3.94$) and group 3 ($M = 15.08$, $SD = 1.16$). Therefore, hypothesis 10b was also confirmed and demonstrated that academic staff with M.Phil. achieved a higher score on work motivation than those with Ph.D. and Post-Doctorate.

Table 4.21

One Way Analysis of Variance for the Scores of Emotional Intelligence, Work Motivation and Work Commitment in Relation to Income (N=351).

Variables		*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*P*
EI	Between Groups	4.153	3	1.384	3.981	.008
	Within Groups	120.669	347	.348		
	Total	124.822	350			

Table 4.21 Continued

WM	Between Groups	94.759	3	31.586	1.640	.180
	Within Groups	6681.994	347	19.256		
	Total	6776.753	350			
WC	Between Groups	3.627	3	1.209	.998	.394
	Within Groups	420.395	347	1.212		
	Total	424.022	350			

Note: EI: Emotional Intelligence; WM: Work Motivation; WC: Work Commitment.

Hypothesis 11a, 11b and 11c predicted significant differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment based on income. Table 4.21 presents the findings of the one-way analysis of variance to examine the differences in emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment on the basis of income. Significant differences were found only in emotional intelligence scores for the four groups based on income: $F(3, 347) = 3.981$, $p < 0.01$. Regardless of getting statistical significance the real difference in mean scores was relatively small. The effect size, computed using eta squared, was 0.03.

Table 4.22

Summary of Multiple Comparison Result of Four Income Groups

Emotional Intelligence		Mean Diff	Std. Error	Sig.
Less than 40000	40000-79,999	**0.238**	0.077	**0.012***
	80,000-99,999	0.002	0.107	1.000
	More than100,000	0.175	0.093	0.237

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Table 4.22 Continued

40000-79,999	Less than 40000	**-0.238**	0.077	**0.012***
	80,000-99,999	-0.235	0.102	0.102
	More than100,000	-0.062	0.086	0.888
80,000-99,999	Less than 40000	-0.002	0.107	1.000
	40000-79,999	0.235	0.102	0.102
	More than100,000	0.172	0.114	0.437
More than100,000	Less than 40000	-0.175	0.093	0.237
	40000-79,999	0.062	0.086	0.888
	80,000-99,999	-0.172	0.114	0.437

Table 4.22 presents Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test which shows that the mean scores for Group 1 ($M = 3.86$, $SD = .59$) was significantly different from group 2 ($M = 3.62$, $SD = .56$). Group 3 and 4 were not either different from group 1 and 2. Therefore hypothesis 11a was supported and indicated that income group of less than 40,000 was different on emotional intelligence than 40000-79,999 income group.

4.13 Summary of Hypotheses Results

The summary of hypotheses results including direct and moderating effects are displayed in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23

Summary of Hypotheses Results

Hyp.	Hypothesized Path	Decision
	Direct Relationship	
H1	Emotional Intelligence and Work Commitment	Supported

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Table 4.23 Continued

H1a	Intrapersonal and Work commitment	Supported
H1b	Interpersonal and Work commitment	Supported
H1c	Adaptability and Work commitment	Negatively Supported
H1d	Stress-Management and Work commitment	Not-Supported
H1e	General mood and Work commitment	Not-Supported
H2	Work Motivation and Work Commitment	Supported
H2a	Work self-determined Motivation and Work commitment	Supported
H2b	Work Non-self-determined Motivation and Work commitment	Negatively Supported
H3	Organizational Culture and Work commitment	Supported
H3a	Clan Culture and Work Commitment	Not-Supported
H3b	Adhocracy Culture and Work Commitment	Supported
H3c	Hierarchy Culture and Work Commitment	Negatively Supported
H3d	Market Culture and Work Commitment	Negatively Supported
	Moderating Effects	
H4	Emotional Intelligence*Organizational Culture and Work Commitment	Negatively Supported
H4a	Emotional Intelligence*Clan and Work Commitment	Not-Supported
H4b	Emotional Intelligence*Adhocracy and Work Commitment	Negatively Supported
H4c	Emotional Intelligence*Hierarchy and Work Commitment	Not-Supported
H4d	Emotional Intelligence*Market and Work Commitment	Not-Supported
H5	Work Motivation*Organizational Culture and Work Commitment	Negatively Supported
H5a	Work Motivation*Clan and Work Commitment	Negatively Supported

Table 4.23 Continued

H5b	Work Motivation*Adhocracy and Work Commitment	Negatively Supported
H5c	Work Motivation*Hierarchy and Work Commitment	Supported
H5d	Work Motivation*Market and Work Commitment	Supported
	Differential Effects	
H6a	Gender and Emotional Intelligence	Not-Supported
H6b	Gender and Work Motivation	Supported
H6c	Gender and Work Commitment	Not-Supported
H7a	Age and Emotional Intelligence	Not-Supported
H7b	Age and Work Motivation	Supported
H7c	Age and Work Commitment	Not-Supported
H8a	Work Experience and Emotional Intelligence	Not-Supported
H8b	Work Experience and Work Motivation	Supported
H8c	Work Experience and Work Commitment	Not-Supported
H9a	Work Position and Emotional Intelligence	Not-Supported
H9b	Work position and Work Motivation	Supported
H9c	Work position and Work Commitment	Not-Supported
H10a	Qualification and Emotional Intelligence	Supported
H10b	Qualification and Work Motivation	Supported
H10c	Qualification and Work Commitment	Not-Supported
H11a	Income and Emotional Intelligence	Supported
H11b	Income and Work Motivation	Not-Supported
H11c	Income and Work Commitment	Not-Supported

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CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

An empirical investigation was conducted to test the model based on the relationships among variables as postulated in the theoretical framework of this study pertaining to the moderating effects of organizational culture on the relationship between emotional intelligence, work motivation, and work commitment. The sources of information for hypothesis testing were university academic staff from nine public sector universities of Pakistan, which further led to achieving research objectives emerging from the problem statement and research questions. The measurement model went through several stages of desirable statistical analysis and it was refined adequately so as to reach to the structural model, which further enabled hypothesis testing. As such, in the subsequent sections, hypotheses results are discussed.

5.2 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Work Commitment

The first hypothesis was designed to examine the extent of the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan. Five sub-hypotheses (H1a-H1e) were developed in which relationship between dimensions of emotional intelligence (intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management and general mood) and work commitment was investigated.

Hypothesis H1 stated a significant positive relationship between general emotional intelligence and work commitment and was supported by a significant positive relationship between these two variables. This finding is in line with the findings of earlier studies, which established the relationship between emotional intelligence and

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attitudinal and behavioral outcomes of employees (Shrestha & Baniya, 2016) and positive correlation with organizational commitment (Carmeli, 2003; Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002; Salami, 2008). Emotionally intelligent academic staff possess attributes of collaboration, creativity and maintain interpersonal relationships which determine their attitude toward their coworkers, directors, occupation, and commitment with the organization.

EI competencies as described in Bar-On (1997) model of emotional intelligence guides individuals during demanding circumstances. It is linked with pliancy, adaptive coping approaches and welfare in the organization (Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2003). According to Bar-On model, individuals' ability to identify, comprehend and manage emotions is influenced by emotional intelligence competencies, which helps them in intrapersonal and interpersonal relationships, to accommodate with change and to capably manage everyday hassles and challenges (Bar-On, 2006). It is argued that EI is an imperative determining factor for success (Bar-On, 2001).

Moreover, Karakus (2013) found that emotionally intelligent teachers react very effectively in adverse conditions and come up with optimal solutions. EI is associated with decreased stress and increased commitment (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Employees having self-awareness, are more eager to preserve and retain their job and feel contented as compared to others in the organization (Letam, 2017). Chesnut and Cullen (2014) found that emotional intelligence was also a key feature of preservice teachers' commitment. Maintaining commitment to the teaching profession involves an optimistic attitude and the capability to adjust to stressful and changing situations. Emotional intelligence is associated with adaptive coping strategies, flexibility, and wellbeing in the organization. Emotional intelligence as assessed by using the Bar-On

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model could precisely envisage success in life. It could also distinguish between highfliers and wash-outs in social relations, army schools, air forces, organizations and academia in diverse states (Bar-On 2002). More precisely, EI and success at work are directly associated (Weisinger, 1998). Therefore, the association between emotional intelligence and work commitment was found positively significant.

Hypothesis H1a stated a significant positive relationship between the intrapersonal dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment. It was also supported. It is consistent with the findings of previous studies which proposed that preservice educators that were highly committed were those who were also emotional intelligent, particularly in terms of self-appraisal and employing emotions in cognitive processing (Chesnut & Cullen, 2014). Previous research concluded that concepts of self-awareness, self-management or self-control, social awareness, social skill as outlined in Goleman's (1995) mixed model of emotional intelligence and employees' attitude are the fundamental variables that have a direct association with personnel commitment to accomplish their tasks and to attain the targeted outcomes (Vasudevan, 2013).

Emotional self-awareness is stated as an effective characteristic for attuning to the performance at work and high level of self-awareness in employees is associated with increased effectiveness (Matthews, Zeidner, Roberts as cited in Tolmats & Reino, 2006). For developing high emotional intelligence in organizations emotional self-awareness is regarded as a key element (Caruso & Salovey, 2004; Weisinger, 1998). Dimensions of emotional intelligence (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness) were also found to correlate with organizational commitment (Dehghan & Saeidi, 2013). Aghabozorgi, Mehni, Alipour and Azizi (2014) revealed that the

emotional intelligence has a significant positive relationship with organizational commitment. Findings also showed that components of emotional intelligence, self-awareness and self-management described in Mayer and Salovey's (1997) four-branch model of emotional intelligence also have a positive relationship with organizational commitment.

Furthermore, intrapersonal, interpersonal dimensions of Bar-On's (1997) model of emotional intelligence have a positive relationship with professional ethics (knowledge, appropriate character, and performance) (Dorudi & Ahari, 2015). Moreover, self-awareness and relationship management competencies have a positive relationship with organizational commitment (Khalili, 2011).

Therefore, the intrapersonal dimension of emotional intelligence is very important for university academic staff to develop effective attitudes toward work, reliable conduct and healthy interaction with colleagues. It helps individuals to work volitionally as well as to integrate others' suggestions when appropriate. Intrapersonal factors described in Bar-On's (1997) model of emotional intelligence bring capacity to resolve conflicts effectively, enhance collaboration and effective communication of ideas, which consequently headed toward improved individual and collective functioning (Chakrabarti & Chatterjea, 2017).

Hypothesis H1b specified a significant positive relationship between the interpersonal dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment and this hypothesis was supported. It is consistent with the findings of previous studies, which demonstrated that interpersonal abilities of Bar-On's (1997) model of emotional intelligence are

linked with organizational commitment (Shafiq & Rana, 2016) and general teaching efficiency (Hassan et al., 2015).

According to Bar-On's (2000) model, the interpersonal dimension of emotional intelligence involves awareness of the emotions, feelings, and needs of other individuals, and ability to initiate and preserve supportive, beneficial and jointly pacifying relations. An optimistic, positive approach and self-motivation facilitate this process. Thus, interpersonal features assist in advancing useful communication and organized performance that supports working as a team member and eventually guides to overall substantial influence on society (Chakrabarti & Chatterjea, 2017).

Holt and Marques (2012) indicated that leaders who lack empathetic and supporting behavior disenchant committed personnel which can influence the progress of the organization. EI clusters which are social awareness and relationship management have a strong and positive relationship with organizational commitment (Masrek, Osman, Ibrahim & Mansor, 2015). Ability to manage one's feelings and understand feelings of others help employees to adapt with the organization and expedite healthy work relationship, which further promotes proficiency, job enactment, and attitudes (Kanthasamy, 2009; Shooshtarian, Ameli, & Aminilari, 2013). Alternatively, growing evidence shows that insufficient interpersonal skills and emotional maturity lead toward turnover, absenteeism, and lack of commitment (Carmeli, 2003). Hence, interpersonal competency enables university academic staff to manage their emotions and that of others which is substantial for working in a demanding and challenging university environment.

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Hypothesis H1c stated a significant positive relationship between adaptability dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment, this hypothesis was supported and indicated a negative relationship between adaptability dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment.

Findings are consistent with the previous study which demonstrated an insignificant relationship between adaptability competency of senior leaders and personnel engagement and after controlling other proficiencies, the relationship was negative (Stroud, 2009). In another study, adaptability was not considered as predictors of academic achievement (Zahed-Babelan & Moenikia, 2010). Aghdasi, Kiamaneshb and Ebrahimb (2011) also did not find any significant effect of emotional intelligence on organizational commitment.

According to Bar-On (1997), coping with change and problem-solving abilities are associated with the adaptability dimension. Positive consequences such as effective leadership, commitment, greater job satisfaction, and enhanced interpersonal relations have been observed to associate with emotional intelligence. All these features have been linked with organizational climate (Jing, Avery, & Bergsteiner, 2011).

Abdulkarim (2013) found a negative relationship between adaptability and organizational climate. Findings represented that high adaptability scores were linked with low organizational climate scores and vice versa. This negative correlation indicated that increased flexibility may produce less steady organizational climate.

Jones (2007) maintained that organizations with more flexibility consist of organic structures. In organic structures, decision power is disseminated, roles are not well-defined, and organizational necessities spoke individual decisions. Though there are

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various benefits of flexibility in the organization, yet it could give rise to insecurity and unpredictability in the organization, since the role of the mentor is moderated by flexibility. Hence, the negative relationship between adaptability dimension of emotional intelligence may be the consequence of endorsing flexibility, that is why the relationship between adaptability and work commitment was negative.

Hypothesis H1d and H1e stated a significant positive relationship between stress management and general mood dimensions of emotional intelligence and work commitment. The hypotheses were not supported and indicated an insignificant relationship between stress management and general mood dimensions of emotional intelligence and work commitment. Results are consistent with the past researches. Livingstone (2001) found an insignificant relationship between stress management, intrapersonal skills, and job satisfaction. Intrapersonal skills and stress management were also insignificantly related with job satisfaction in a study by Hosseinian, Yazdi, Zahraie, and Fathi-Ashtiani (2008). Brown, George-Curran and Smith, (2003) found that less emotionallly intelligent individuals feel difficulty to commit since they are less capable in understanding and managing their emotions.

In another study, stress management was not considered as a predictor of academic achievement (Zahed-Babelan & Moenikia, 2010). Past studies also revealed that trait-based emotional intelligence in managers was not potential in nurturing greater normative commitment and continuous commitment (Bozionelos & Kiamou, 2008). Another study found an insignificant relationship between stress management, general mood components of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction (Millet, as cited in Mousavi et al., 2012). Khalili (2011) found an insignificant correlation between self-awareness, relationship management, and organizational commitment. Whereas Seyal

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and Afzaal (2013) found a significant relationship between emotional self-awareness, emotional self-management and job satisfaction.

Individuals with less degree of emotional intelligence experience more stress because of the low level of self-awareness. Therefore, while encountering stressful circumstances in the organization, they experience incompetence to cope with their feelings, which may result in low levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Utami et al., 2014)

Emotional intelligence abilities incorporate realistic and resilient coping to survive individual, social and environmental change, solve intrapersonal and interpersonal difficulties and make a decision (Bar-On, 2000). Regulation of emotions is essential to encounter these challenges (Chakrabarti & Chatterjea, 2017). Some differences in the results may be due to differences in organizational culture in various communities.

Moreover, competencies of stress management and general mood do not guarantee committed behavior because academic staff may be good at displaying these abilities but if organizational values are incongruent with individuals' values, it negatively influences work commitment. A specific value consistency can be assumed for both organizations and people since values are based on individual's identity (Dose, 1997). Anthropologists suggested that the regulation of emotions is influenced by cultural conventions and norms (Ekman, 1980; Lutz, 1988). To be precise, individuals' elucidation and reaction to emotional stimuli are produced by cultural norms. Therefore, Cherniss and Goleman (2001), recommended that the infrastructure of the organizational culture should be frequently revised and correlated with the employees' needs, otherwise malfunctioned dispositions might appear. Kim and Han (2017) also

suggested that culture is a key factor for job outcomes depending on employees' perception of organizational culture and discrepancy in perception may cause diverse outcomes regarding job attitudes.

Therefore, the relationship between stress management, general mood dimensions of emotional intelligence and work commitment was not supported. The dearth of a significant relationship between stress management and work commitment seems logical. Stress management refers to managing internal emotions and is not directly related to work commitment of employees (Mousavi et al., 2012).

5.3 Relationship between Work Motivation and Work Commitment

The second hypothesis H2 was established to examine the relationship between work motivation and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan. Two sub-hypotheses (H2a-H2b) were also developed to examine the relationship between dimensions of work motivation (work self-determined motivation and work non-self-determined motivation) and work commitment. In general, hypothesis H2 was supported and indicated a significant positive relationship between general work motivation and work commitment. With regards to bases of commitment, earlier research recommended that attitudes are founded on diverse motivational processes such as compliance, identification, and internalization. In the process of compliance attitudes and behaviors are espoused to acquire particular favorable outcome or escape unfavorable one. In identification, individuals approve attitudes and behaviors to associate with a self-defining and satisfying interpersonal relationship. Lastly, internalization occurs when individuals take on the attitudes and behaviors because of the compatibility of the content with their own value systems (Kelman, 1958).

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Self-determination theory describes the degree to which an external regulation has been internalized by emphasizing on a controlled to the autonomous continuum. The degree of internalization determines the self-determining nature of the subsequent externally motivated behavior.

The findings are in line with the past researches which found that work motivation and organizational commitment have a positive significant relationship (George & Sabapathy, 2011; Salleh et al., 2016). Adeyemo and Aremu (1999) maintained that motivated individual feel encouraged to advance their performance that improves their level of commitment. Gupta and Gupta (2014) and Sinani (2016) also indicated a positive association between work motivation and organizational commitment and its various attributes. Sohail et al. (2014) studied the impact of work motivation and organizational commitment on job performance and job satisfaction in the education sector of Pakistan. It was found that variables were positively associated. Another study also showed that a significant positive relationship exist among work motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Tentama & Pranungsari, 2016). Sinclair, Dowson and McInerney (2006) have stated that teachers' motivation is related to their occupational commitment.

Hypothesis H2a indicated a significant positive relationship between work self-determined motivation and work commitment. This hypothesis was also supported and showed a significant positive relationship between work self-determined motivation and work commitment. The SDT postulates that to support the self-motivation process, individuals must be capable of gratifying their needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. By considering the significance of individual and organizational features, organizations should provide their employees the prerequisites to advance work self-

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determined motivation. Such features are able to enhance commitment and constructive behaviors and decrease turnover (Gagne & Deci, 2005).

Finding of the study is consistent with the study of Ganesan and Weitz (1996) who found that intrinsic motivation and affective commitment have a positive relationship. Evans (as cited in Absar & Jameel, 2017) maintained that teachers' motivation and job satisfaction are influenced more by immediate context where they work such as job specification and less by external factors like pay and educational policy. Fernet, Austin and Vallerand (2012) observed that work self-determined motivation positively influence commitment and negatively influence exhaustion. Though, work non-self-determined motivation positively impact exhaustion.

Ryan and Deci (2000b) have stated in the self-determination theory that self-determined feeling refers to the perception of innovativeness, autonomy, and independence of action. Amotivation can fall into both categories (self-determined or non- self-determined). Inquisitiveness, exploration, impulse, and concern toward the environment are intrinsically motivated action and referred as self-determined behavior. A spontaneous inclination to accomplish an action give rise to intrinsically motivated activities. High motivation level can be achieved by interpersonal relationships in a society, effective functioning in that situation, and with a sense of initiatives. Consequently, personnel experience intrinsic motivation and involve in self-determined actions in the organizational settings which foster need satisfaction.

According to Hackmanand Oldham's (1980), individuals who have intrinsic motivation, consider good performance as a self-reward which reinforce them to perform well. Poor performance stimulates unpleasant feelings and individual strive hard to evade adverse

consequences. Therefore, internally motivated individuals show more commitment. Vujcic, Oerlemans and Bakker (2016) study also confirmed the presence of the association between self-determined motivation and commitment. Intrinsic work inducements in the organization have been described as strong predictors of commitment, and qualified teachers with intrinsic motivation possess more commitment to teaching than teachers who are extrinsically motivated (Martinez-Pons, as cited in Sinclair, 2008).

Researchers found that introjected regulation which is a sub-type of work self-determined motivation, has a positive influence on continuance and normative commitment and intrinsic motivation has a positive influence on affective and normative commitment (Imran et al., 2017). The relationship between motivation and commitment is obvious from the past researches (Bang, Ross, & Reio, 2012; Siti Nazila, Rozmi, & Fauziah, 2012). According to Park and Rainey (2012), intrinsic motivation was considerably linked with job involvement of managers.

Moreover, self-determined motivation has a significant relationship with organizational commitment (Lam & Gurland, 2008) and occupational commitment (Fernet, 2011) in the workplace. Employees motivation lead toward commitment and autonomous motivation is more effective than controlled motivation (Fernet, Guay, Senécal, & Austin, 2012). Self-determined employees approve their conduct completely and honestly, without any compulsion, and have fully adopted the worth of the work and experience more organizational commitment (Gagne & Koestner, 2002).

According to Perry (1996), increased public service motivation in academic staff of public sector university is grounded on idealism and the desire to serve society by providing education. The desire to accept social responsibility develops work self-

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determined motivations and when they are intrinsically motivated they feel more committed. Therefore, work self-determined motivation is important to enhance work commitment among academic staff of public universities in Pakistan.

Hypothesis H2b stated a significant negative relationship between work non-self-determined motivation and work commitment and was also supported. The finding is reflecting a negative relationship between work non-self-determined motivation and work commitment. According to the self-determination theory, with controlled motivation (non-self-determined), a behavior is managed by external forces and employees' performance is based on getting a reward or evading a punishment. Hence externally managed behavior is instigated and preserved by external contingencies (Gagne & Deci, 2005).

Since extrinsic motivation is an example of controlled motivation which is opposite to intrinsic motivation. The distinctiveness in the SDT proposed continuum is that extrinsic motivation can differ depending on diverse regulations, which determine the autonomous or controlled nature of motivation. External regulation is the highest form of controlled motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Therefore, when employees have work non-self-determined motivation, they feel less committed. Because their work commitment is contingent on external regulation.

Moreover, Deci and Ryan (2000) postulated in the self-determination theory that when primary psychological needs of staff are not fulfilled, they feel less autonomously motivated to complete their work, which maximizes exhaustion and minimizes commitment. Controlled motivation also causes these unfavorable consequences. When employees lack job resources, they may be able to preserve their functioning

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through psychological accommodation. Hereafter, controlled motivation might further diminish staffs' exuberance (Fernet, Guay, Senécal, & Austin, 2012) and subsequently minimize commitment and escalate enervation (Fernet et al., 2012).

This finding is also in line with the study of Kurzdorfer (2016) which reveals that work non-self-determined academics select career at university not because of altruistic morals but determined by self-concern and interest in research, extraneous recompenses that serve as reputation, conceit and scientific professions. Past researcher also found a significant relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment (Van den Berg, 2011). Controlled motivation was found to be positively associated with turn over intentions and negatively associated with job satisfaction (Gillet, Gagné, et al., 2013). That is why work commitment is not high among university academic staff. Hence, it raises a need to advance autonomous motivation (work self-determined motivation) to enhance work commitment in academic staff.

5.4 Relationship between Organizational Culture and Work Commitment

Hypothesis H3 was developed to determine the relationship between organizational culture and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan. Four sub-hypotheses (H3a-H3d) were also established to examine the relationship between sub-types of organizational culture (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market) and work commitment.

Hypothesis H3 was supported. It is indicating a significant positive relationship between general organizational culture and work commitment. Findings are in agreement with the past researches in which organizational culture was found to be positively related to organizational commitment. This signifies that shared values are

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associated with increased engagement (Moon, 2000). It is evident from the previous researches that positive relationship exist between organizational culture and organizational commitment (Ahmed, 2012; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Padma & Sumitha, 2009). In a strong culture, personnel exhibit more commitment to their jobs since the cultural values and beliefs are compatible with their own beliefs and values (Sola, Femi, & Kolapo, 2012). Past studies have reported positive association between organizational culture and organizational commitment in diversified samples (Hsiao, Chang, & Tu, 2012; Momeni, Marjani, & Saadat, 2012; Agwu, 2013; Dwivedi, Kaushik, & Luxmi, 2014; Mitić, Vukonjanski, Terek, Gligorović, & Zorić, 2016).

Further, Cameron and Freeman (2011) maintained that numerous important organizational variables are influenced by organizational culture. Peters and Waterman (2004) commended the qualities of organizational culture in improving organizational performance. Literature also proposes that individuals' attitudes and behaviors are influenced by organizational culture (Maclntosh & Doherty, 2010). Consequently, employees' perception about organizational culture is a key component in human resource management.

Hypothesis H3a stated a significant positive relationship between clan type of organizational culture and work commitment and was not supported. It is indicating an insignificant relationship between clan culture and work commitment. The finding is consistent with the study of Kim and Han (2017), who also found a negative relationship between clan culture and organizational commitment.

In past studies, all scholars do not describe culture as something that keeps the organization together. Martin (as cited in Kim & Han, 2017), claims that the function

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of organizational culture is not essentially unifying. She maintained that culture is not stagnant over the period and in one organization diverse cultures can exist. Therefore, she suggested considering the possibility of competing subcultures for defining culture.

The competing values framework (CVF) by Cameron and Quinn (2011) is important for offering an instrument that perceives organizations as having a leading culture as well as identifies that culture may change with the passage of time. Moreover, while emphasizing cultural values, CVF acknowledges the existence of a unique culture within the departments of an organization. Mutual cultural values can be considered as the fundamental source of disparity among organizational groups.

This finding is contrary with the past researches which demonstrated a positive relationship between clan culture and commitment (Padma & Sumitha, 2009). Clan culture was established to have a positive relationship with organizational commitment and job involvement (Goodman, Zammuto & Gifford (2001) and affective commitment (Richard et al., 2009). In another study, results supported a positive association between clan culture and organizational commitment (Aldhuwaihi, 2013). Neelam, Bhattacharya, Sinha and Tanksale (2015) maintained that perceived autonomy and collaboration influence affective commitment. These inconsistent results can be attributed to the possibility that in Pakistan most of the universities have hierarchy culture and employees feel less collaboration and support. Although Asian culture was considered collectivistic in the past, yet it has adopted the characteristics of individualistic culture because of globalization and competition. Therefore, clan culture did not correlate with work commitment.

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Hypothesis H3b specified a significant positive relationship between adhocracy type of organizational culture and work commitment and was supported. It is showing that adhocracy culture leads toward work commitment. It is consistent with the findings of Silverthorne (2004) who indicated that innovative culture is associated with medium level commitment. According to the competing values framework, dominant features of adhocracy cultures involve innovativeness, nurturing creativity, self-sufficiency, and assortment, which makes work demanding and inspiring (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Open system model in the competing values framework supports this type of organizational culture. Focus on these characteristics will promote the progress, advancement, and proficiency and employees' job assortment (Hartnell, Ou, & Angelo, 2011).

Furthermore, by furnishing employees with prospects for being self-determined, creative and engaging them in a diversify responsibilities and promoting personal and occupational advancement have been associated to work engagement (Krog, 2014; Hackman & Oldham, 1976), which eventually increase work commitment. Literature generally revealed that greater degree of affective commitment was associated to learning climate which was beneficial for innovation, novelty and which supported the freedom of speech (Southcombe, Fulop, Carter, & Cavanagh, 2015). In another study, results supported a positive association between adhocracy culture and organizational commitment (Aldhuwaihi, 2013).

Similarly, Acar (2012) maintained that adhocracy cultures support newly hired educated staff to accomplish their objectives. In this way, they develop a sense of obligation for the organization. Thus, the employees continue to work for the kind of organization that also ease the fulfillment of individual goals. Hence, the positive

relationship between adhocracy cultures and work commitment seems logical. Moreover, both clan and adhocracy cultures focus on flexibility and discretion. Besides, the higher education institution is a place that demands flexibility and innovation to please expectations of students. Therefore, it is meaningful to find a positive relationship between adhocracy culture and work commitment.

Hypothesis H3c stated a significant negative association between the hierarchy type of organizational culture and work commitment. The hypothesis was supported and showed a negative relationship between hierarchy culture and work commitment. These findings are consistent with the past research which established a negative relationship between hierarchy culture and affective commitment (Richard et al., 2009). Alvi et al. (2014) argued that bureaucratic culture significantly influences staff commitment and job satisfaction.

In the competing values framework, Cameron and Quinn (2006) stated that the characteristics of hierarchy cultures include efficiency, routines, structure, and having formal procedures, policies, and rules that govern employees' actions. With control mechanisms that enhance predictability and conformity, hierarchy cultures emphasize detailed communication, well-defined roles, and routines (Hartnell et al., 2011). Although job resources like well-defined roles and communication are parts of hierarchy culture, surveillance, control, and routines are the key elements of hierarchy culture. Therefore, formalized regulations and rules are believed to eventually shape attitudes and behavior (Quinn & Kimberly, 1984).

Hence, with the risk of being misinterpreted, these characteristics of hierarchy cultures may be seen as negative parts of a job which reduce work engagement. For instance,

according to Krog (2014), employees may feel surveillance as emotionally challenging and perceive strict rules, control, and policies as a sign of deficient autonomy. Employees driven by the values of uniformity and efficiency in hierarchy culture tend to feel obligated to work more and this may result in physical and psychological stresses on the employees in long-term. In fact, hierarchy cultures only offer them a limited set of functional and positive job resources. Hence, in Pakistan the main concern of hierarchy culture is on control and stability, which restrict the availability and existence of job resources and thus makes hierarchy cultures unfavorable for the work commitment.

Hypothesis H3d assumed a significant negative relationship between the market type of organizational culture and work commitment was supported and showed a negative relationship between market culture and work commitment. Kim and Han (2017) also maintained that competition and result-orientated values of market culture can have a negative effect on the commitment of staff.

Findings occurred may be due to the likelihood that there is inconsistency between the values of market culture and academic staff (Schimank, 2005). It is also consistent with the study of Kurzdorfer (2016), who examined the influence of organizational culture on public service motivation and showed that only market culture was not emerged as prevailing culture in universities, whereas it described to a lesser distinctive degree at the German and the Dutch university faculties of natural sciences. Despite the enhanced competitive and result orientation values of universities, the emphasis on production and market share did not show relevance to universities and institutions in Pakistan, which mostly depend on the government for budget and predetermined tuition dues.

Abdulkarim (2013) indicated that staff of non-profit organizations may be influenced and motivated in a different way than staff of for-profit organizations.

Furthermore, Cameron and Quinn (2006) stated in the competing values framework that market culture have the characteristics of being achievement-oriented and result-oriented, valuing aggressiveness and competitiveness, maintaining control via rules, and centralizing decision-making with demanding and challenging management. Besides, in order to encourage aggressive performance, market culture appreciate well-defined goals and communication (Hartnell et al., 2011). Also, rewards are given depending on achievement, decisions are made by the central management, managers are demanding, and satisfying shareholders' expectations is fundamental (Quinn & Kimberly, 1984).

Alternatively, characteristics such as absolute achievement-orientation, satisfactory rewards, and aggressiveness may be considered as undesirable features of the job. For instance, giving rewards based on achievement alone may restrict personal development, and this will lead to a lack of appropriate feedback, while the articulation of aggressiveness may be seen as emotionally challenging to the employee. The interpretation of the characteristics of market culture in emphasizing aggressive competition may cause employees to suffer high work pressure, which in turn can be physically and psychologically challenging. In the long run, market culture offer employees only with a limited set of functional and positive job resources. Krog (2014) concluded that the availability and existence of job resources are limited in a culture that mainly emphasizes on winning through encouraging aggressiveness and competition in employees, and this makes market culture unfavorable for work engagement.

5.5 Moderating Effects of Organizational Culture on the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Work Commitment

Hypothesis H4 was established to investigate the moderating effects of organizational culture on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment among university academic staff in Pakistan. Four sub-hypotheses (H4a-H4d) were also formulated to examine the moderating effects of sub-types of organizational culture (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market) on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment.

Hypothesis H4 stated that organizational culture moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment and was negatively supported. This finding is consistent with the previous study in which the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational culture was insignificant (Haghighy, Shahrakimojahed, & Vahed, 2016). In another study perceived organizational politics did not moderate the association between emotional intelligence and job involvement and between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior. Although the moderating role of perceived organizational politics in the association between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction was significant (Shrestha & Baniya, 2016).

However, some of the past studies are inconsistent with this finding, which revealed the moderating role of organizational culture in the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment (Letam, 2017). Lee, Kim, and Kang (2013) investigated the moderating effects of organizational culture on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance. Results showed a significant relationship among study variables.

According to Cameron and Quinn (1999), basic values, assumptions, interpretations, and approaches are defined by the culture that describes an organization. The literature recommended that organizational culture and other situational norms and processes offer the contextual borders for emotional intelligence (Dougherty & Krone, 2002).

Scholars have argued that the culture regulates employees' emotions (Weisinger, 1998). This cultural approach to understanding emotional intelligence, rather than the individual approach, proposes emotional intelligence as a product of the continuing organizational process. Isen and Baron (as cited in Dougherty & Krone, 2002) maintained that cultural values and beliefs can have significant positive influence in organizations. Researchers indicated that culture essentially influences emotional intelligence that results from compliance with cultural standards (Kluckhohn as cited in Scott-Halsell, Saiprasert & Yang, 2013). Although positive cultural orientations in organizations tend to encourage increased emotional bonds yet incongruences between employees and cultural values cause low commitment (Tolmats & Reino, 2006).

The failure to find support for the moderating effect of organizational culture on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment could be attributed to the possibility that some forms of work commitment such as work ethics and job involvement are characterized as a somewhat fixed attribute (Cohen, 1999) which is improbable to be modified because of organizational culture (Carmeli, 2005). As the study supports the direct effect of EI on work commitment, the findings can have significant practical implications in organizations. EI can be considered as one of the solutions for increasing employees' work commitment.

Hypothesis H4a stated that the clan type of organizational culture moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment and was not supported. This finding shows the inability of the clan culture to moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. This result is contrary to the previous literature, which revealed a significant relationship between organizational culture and job satisfaction and the relationship between clan culture and job satisfaction was stronger than the other culture types. Besides, the organizational culture was also associated with organizational commitment, particularly clan culture appeared to have a strong positive association (Hartnell et al., 2011). Brown and Leigh (1996) reported that job settings observed to be innocuous and abetting were linked with higher job involvement, hard work, and organizational commitment. Chong, and Ismail (as cited in Al Issa & Mahmood, 2016) found that Malaysian public higher education institutes had the maximum mean in clan culture, followed by hierarchical culture.

Existing literature proposed that when employees recognize their work organization as promoting group values that encourage social support and positive interpersonal relationships, an accomplishment of objective and self-actualization, they prefer to persevere with the organization and develop a sense of moral exchange towards it. These morals have been speculated to be compatible with the values of benevolence, universalism, and self-direction, which characterized pan-culture and fulfill basic human needs (Abbott, White, & Charles, 2005).

Generally, emotional intelligence has a positive relationship with human relations, rational goal and open system models of the competing values framework. Cohesion and morale are emphasized in the human relations model of CVF, while novelty,

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development, dynamics, imagination, and readiness for change are the focus of open system model and the rational goal model promotes attaining productivity, competence, and effective functioning (Parker & Bradley as cited in Sin & Yazdanifard, 2013).

Tolmats and Reino (2006) proposed human relations model of organizational culture as the predominant culture of public organizations. But their study did not support this proposition and rational goal model of organizational culture was observed as a predominant culture. Researchers explained that the preference for performance and accomplishments in public organizations is the possible reason for this finding. Mukhopadhyay (as cited in Absar & Jameel, 2017) suggested that lack of autonomy, excessive tasks, lack of communication, ambiguous goals and uncertainty as well as role ambiguity, lack of recognition, organizational complications, scarce resources, insufficient rewards, conflicts, and organizational politics are the features that reduce the development of the human relations model of organizational culture.

In Pakistan dominant culture is hierarchy and according to the competing values framework, in hierarchy culture processes and structures are more important than support and collaboration. It also involves high boundary hierarchies in management, centralized decision making procedure, hard monitoring, inflexible working practices and absence of initiative (Ahmed, Khan, Memon, & Siddiqui, 2014). The clan type of organizational culture requires increased organizational commitment which is attained through internalized social norms (Yu & Wu, 2009), which is lacking in the public universities of Pakistan. Hence, the hierarchy culture is adopted as a control mechanism, when it is not feasible to accomplish the prerequisites of the clan culture (Sin & Yazdanifard, 2013). Therefore, in the current study clan culture did not appear to moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment.

Thus, in order to improve work commitment in university academic staff, it is necessary to focus on developing the human relations model of CVF.

Hypothesis H4b indicated that adhocracy type of organizational culture moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. It was negatively supported. This is somehow contradictory with the past studies. Previously, researchers found a significant relationship between emotional intelligence, innovative culture and employees performance (Altındag & Kosedagı, 2015). However, there is scarcity of research on the moderating effects of adhocracy or innovative culture on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment.

According to Cameron and Quinn (1999), development of adhocracy culture is based on executing innovation, establishing future and regulating constant development. These characteristics are given least attention in public universities in Pakistan. Therefore, this finding can be attributed to the possibility that adhocracy is not the dominant culture in the universities of Pakistan, which shows the incapacity of adhocracy culture as a moderator in the above-mentioned relationship.

Hypothesis H4c specified that hierarchy type of organizational culture moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment and hypothesis H4d stated that market type of organizational culture moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. Both hypotheses were not supported. Findings are consistent with the previous study, in which the association between directive leadership behavior and organizational commitment was not moderated by bureaucratic culture (Ying & Ahmad, 2009). It is in alignment with the claim of Moynihan et al. (as cited in Kurzdorfer, 2016) who stated that academic staffs'

motivation is lesser in universities where market or hierarchy culture is dominant and consistent with the findings that market and hierarchy cultures decrease public service motivation (Panagiotis, Alexandros & George, 2014) and reduces affective commitment (Padma & Sumitha, 2009).

In the study of Tolmats and Reino (2006), insignificant associations were found between emotional intelligence and its dimensions and the internal process model of organizational culture. Formalization, structure, and procedures are features of the internal process model (hierarchy culture) (Dastmalchian, Lee, & Ng, 2000). Van Muijen and Koopman (1994) explained this in terms of environmental change, where only task-oriented culture is no more sufficient. It requires a shift towards more informal setups from standardized work processes. Harrison (as cited in Tolmats & Reino, 2006) maintains that the members of current industrial organizations are emphasizing to move towards relationship orientation. A considerable amount of research has focused to examine the modern organizations and it was observed that organizations having characteristics of internal process model are losing their prominence. However, in some sectors the internal process type is still dominant.

Similarly, Parker and Bradley (2000) also found internal process model as the dominant organizational culture, when he investigated Australian public sector organizations. Helfrich, Li, Mohr, Meterko and Sales (2007) also observed the internal process model (hierarchy culture) as the predominant culture in health organizations. Trivellas and Dargenidou (2009) revealed that in the educational institutions the dominant type of organizational culture was hierarchy culture.

Contrary to the above studies, in Estonian service organizations, Kallas (2010) observed that the dominant culture was rational goal model (market culture) and the least represented culture was human relations model (clan culture). There is an increased interest over the accomplishment of results in the rational goal model of organizational culture, but interpersonal behaviors are also considered important to achieve goals because high performance and goal achievement in modern organizations are commonly possible through firm collaboration and teamwork.

Relationships are given least importance in the internal process model and rational goal model of culture. Therefore, both of these cultures are not conducive to the development of emotional intelligence competencies. In the flexible cultures, relationships are given more importance in such a way that the behaviors linked with increased emotional intelligence are more likely to be recognized and rewarded. It is obvious that the empirical and theoretical research differently emphasis on the relationship between emotional intelligence and the different types of organizational culture. Kallas (2010) found an insignificant or low relationship between emotional intelligence and internal process model, moderate with rational model and strong with human relations and open system models of organizational culture.

Although the finding of this study showed a significant positive relation between emotional intelligence and work commitment, yet interaction of hierarchy and market culture in the aforesaid relationship was not significant. While the prerequisites for internal process model of organizational culture are supplementary procedures and standards and rational goal model of organizational culture is achievement oriented. Emotional intelligence competencies are not very effective in managing these types of cultures. Therefore, the moderating effects of hierarchy and market cultures were not

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significant in the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment in university academic staff.

5.6 Moderating Effects of Organizational Culture on the Relationship between Work Motivation and Work Commitment

Hypothesis H5 was established to examine the moderating effects of organizational culture on the relationship between work motivation and work commitment. Four sub-hypotheses (H5a-H5b) were formulated to investigate the moderating effects of types of organizational culture (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market) on the relationship between work motivation and work commitment.

Hypothesis H5 was negatively supported. The finding shows that organizational culture negatively moderates the relationship between work motivation and work commitment. These results are inconsistent with past studies in which social environment and individual differences such as autonomous causality orientation were established to influence work motivation, performance, and commitment (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Results of Joo and Shim (2010) study showed that organizational learning culture moderates the link between psychological empowerment (proficiency and self-determination) and organizational commitment. A strong organizational culture of recompensing and conceding personnel's work is linked with improved motivation and greater performance (Sokro, 2012).

Contrary to the past literature, this negative relationship can be attributed to the possibility that employees in organizations with weak organizational culture do not share core beliefs and values. That may be the reason why organizational culture in Pakistan negatively moderates the relationship between work motivation and work commitment. Hence, cultural values should be clearly defined and universities should

motivate their academic staff to realize the significance of those values. Identification with the preferred values of the organization facilitate the development of a strong culture where employees perceive compatibility between personal and organizational values.

Hypothesis H5a stated that the clan type of organizational culture moderates the relationship between work motivation and work commitment. It was negatively supported. The finding is inconsistent with the study of other researchers who indicated the role of organizational characteristics (degree of interpersonal social communication and mentoring socialization) associated with organizational culture as a moderator in the relationship between intrinsic motivation (which is a part of self-determined motivation) and job engagement (Park & Word, 2009). Researchers have reported a positive correlation between cooperation and motivation. Their study revealed that employees feel more motivated towards their work when they acquire genuine and desired collaboration from their colleagues within the organization (James et al., 1977).

This contradictory finding can be attributed to the likelihood that dominant culture in the universities of Pakistan is the hierarchy culture (Ahmed et al., 2014). Universities in Pakistan do not support clan culture. Management of universities focuses more on competition and achievement. Lack of coordination may lead to low involvement, lack of commitment and trust, poor team collaboration, conflicts between top management and staff and eventually which advance bureaucracy or hierarchy culture. That is why clan culture did not appear to moderate between work motivation and work commitment.

Additionally, Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) claimed that employees may have a different level of commitment with the organization, colleagues, supervisors and careers. The insignificant finding may be due to the possibility of a specific focus of academic staffs' commitment. According to the competing values framework, clan culture emphasizes on close and caring relations and in the absence of these features work commitment may decrease. As in the analysis of the direct relationship between types of organizational culture and work commitment, only adhocracy type of organizational culture was positively related with work commitment.

Hypothesis H5b stated that adhocracy type of organizational culture moderates the relationship between work motivation and work commitment. It was negatively supported. It shows agreement with the study of Moynihan and Pandey (2007) who did not come up with anticipated findings, when they examined the organizational predictors of public service motivation and it is in line with the findings of Panagiotis et al. (2014), who established a negative relationship between adhocracy culture and motivational factors of collegiality and working properties.

According to the competing values framework, adhocracy culture promotes a dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative place to work. Where innovation and risk-taking are acknowledged. Growth and acquiring new resources is the part of long term planning. Getting distinctive products or services exemplifies success (Kargas & Varoutas, 2015). Above mentioned characteristics does not relate with the universities' culture in Pakistan where the dominant culture is the hierarchy culture. Organizations with weak adhocracy culture do not show flexibility to environmental changes and thereby reduce efficiency and negatively effects employees' performance. Although the association

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between work motivation and work commitment is significantly positive yet adhocracy culture appeared insignificant in strengthening this relationship.

Hypothesis H5c indicated that hierarchy type of organizational culture moderates the relationship between work motivation and work commitment and was supported. It is showing the moderating effects of hierarchy culture on the relationship between work motivation and work commitment. This finding is in line with the research results of Din, Bashir, Cheema and Zafar (2014). They maintained that the autocratic management style characterizes high power distance culture. Their study revealed that power distance (characteristic of hierarchy organizational culture) acts as a moderator between employee motivation and organizational commitment in public and private sector universities of Pakistan.

Moreover, Kim and Han (2017) demonstrated that employees' job satisfaction is negatively influenced by perceived attributes of hierarchy culture but these attributes positively affect organizational commitment. Aldhuwaihi and Shee (2015) maintained that the hierarchy culture is positively linked with organizational commitment. It is due to the collective and traditional nature of the society. Kim and Han (2017) also stated that employees' commitment increase by their perception of hierarchical culture.

As the study supports the direct effect of work motivation on work commitment, the findings can have significant practical implications in universities. The direct relationship between work motivation and work commitment was positive and relationship between hierarchy culture and work commitment was negative, however, when hierarchy culture interacted in the relationship between work motivation and work commitment, it positively moderated the relationship. Support for moderating effects of hierarchy culture on work motivation and work commitment indicates that

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employees' perceptions of the prevalence of culture in the organization negatively affect the work commitment but by developing work motivation in university academic staff, work commitment could be enhanced.

According to the SDT, a dialectic process determines the motivation by intervening between the person and environment, which can support or confine individual's development and well-being. Originating from the above-mentioned dialectic process, organizational commitment can be considered as a sign of organizational well-being, since it denotes how much an individual is attached to the organization, and describes the organization's capacity to gratify his necessities.

Moreover, SDT states that environment's capacity to gratify the individuals' needs stimulate internalization of motivation. Which in turns enhance their affective attachment to the organization and intrinsic motivation (a self-determined form of motivation). Consequently, it engendered outcomes such as citizenship behaviors, satisfaction, performance efficacy and well-being (Deci et al., 2001)

Furthermore, values motivate employees to perform in a specific manner (Rokeach, 1973), however, when such values are shared with others, it gives strength to the motivational basis of values. Besides, the similarity between an organizational and employees values may further increase motivation (Van Vuuren, 2006). Values are the key feature of employees and organizations (Schein, 1992) since they are inherent and broad objectives that direct the conduct of employees (Chatman, 1989). Therefore, they are essentially associated with the employees' motivation in the organization. Sheridan (1992) expounded on the connection between the perceived values of organizational

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culture and the employees' motivation to stay with an organization by displaying that job performance and turnover significantly differ based on organizational culture.

When an individual perceives compatibility between personal and organizational values, he identifies with the preferred values of the organization. By doing this he realizes that personal success is contingent on organizational membership. For example, if an employee has a preference for bureaucracy and stable organization with the characteristics of unambiguous job descriptions and order, it will lead towards commitment. Moreover, shared elucidations enrich interpersonal relations and diminish ambiguity and stimulus overload, which further enhance commitment (Schein as cited in Van Vuuren, 2006). Besides, when the social conditions of the clan culture are impossible to achieve, the bureaucratic mechanism becomes the preferred method of control. Since, larger organizations like universities are characterized by standardized procedures, limited flexibility, and bureaucratic control Child (as cited in Kargas & Varoutas, 2015). Therefore, hierarchy culture appeared to moderate the relationship between work motivation and work commitment.

Hypothesis H5d stated that market type of organizational culture moderates the relationship between work motivation and work commitment and was also supported. This finding is showing the moderating effects of market culture in the relationship between work motivation and work commitment. Finding is consistent with the past study which showed that market orientation significantly impacts organizational commitment (Pinho, Rodrigues, & Dibb, 2014). Market-oriented behaviors are manageable variables and organizations can attempt to increase the organizational commitment and to improve performance (Buchanan, 1974; Rashid, Sambasivan, & Johari, 2003; Yiing & Ahmad, 2009). According to the competing values framework,

in market culture, the focus is on competition and accomplishment of assessable goals and targets (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This finding is inconsistent with the study of Panagiotis et al. (2014) who come up with a negative relationship between market culture and motivation.

Roots (2003) revealed that in Estonia private organizations are adopting an achievement-oriented management culture. Andren, Andersson et al. (as cited in Tolmats & Reino, 2006) performed research on leadership orientations and come up with the similar finding that in general concern for task over people is emphasized by Estonian managers. Tolmats and Reino (2006) showed that the rational goal type of organizational culture (market culture) was the dominant culture in Estonian organizations.

Additionally, Ouchi (1979) claimed that the bureaucratic and market mechanisms become dominant because of the high turnover rate and an increased level of diversity in contemporary society. On the other hand, it is very difficult to assess performance due to the increasing interdependence and technological imprecision, compelling the organization to espouse the clan culture. According to Ouchi (1984), a particular mechanism would not manage an organization, rather a combination of teamwork and competition is vital for the success of the large organizations. This argument is compatible with the Cameron and Quinn's (2006) opinion on the existence of four types of cultures in the competing values framework (Yu & Wu, 2009).

In Pakistan, this finding seems to arise due to the likelihood that the higher education commission of Pakistan, has accentuated on research. The quantity of published research papers is a major criterion for promotion, salary, and incentives in universities (Hoodbhoy, 2017). Consequently, academics prioritize research publications on

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teaching. Generally, Asian culture reflects a collectivistic approach but now because of competitive environment it has assimilated the features of idiosyncratic culture. As the market becomes more competitive, management is likely to demonstrate more hierarchical leadership patterns in order to manage procedures whereas the overall organizational culture is likely to be more market-oriented in the direction of market condition (Kargas & Varoutas, 2015). Therefore, in the present study hierarchy and market cultures appeared as a moderator in the relationship between work motivation and work commitment.

5.7 Differences in Emotional Intelligence, Work Motivation and Work Commitment According to Gender.

The hypothesis H6a was developed to examine the differences in emotional intelligence according to gender among university academic staff in Pakistan. Hypothesis H6a was not supported and showed insignificant differences in emotional intelligence based on gender. This findings is consistent with the past studies that showed insignificant differences in emotional intelligence based on gender (Abdullah, 2006; Aquino & Alberto, 2003; Bar-On, 1997; Bastian, Burns, & Nettelbeck, 2005; Carr, 2009; Hopkins & Bilimoria, 2008; Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008; Tyagi, 2004; Whitman, Van Rooy, Viswesvaran, & Kraus, 2009).

This finding can be attributed to the possibility that both genders are exposed to the similar social and educational settings; henceforth both genders may be likewise emotionally intelligent (Naeem et al., 2014).

Findings are also in contrary with some of the past studies in which females had high scores on emotional intelligence than males (Shukla & Srivastava, 2016). Schutte et al. (1998), Bradberry and Greaves (2005) and Hasankhoyi (2006) also come up with the

same results. Other studies showed that the male teachers had higher scores than female (Karakuş, 2013). This discrepancy in the findings prevents us from making definite inferences about differences in emotional intelligence based on genders.

Hypothesis H6b stated that there are significant differences in work motivation according to gender among university academic staff in Pakistan and was confirmed and revealed significant differences in work motivation based on gender. Finding shows that males got a high score than females in work motivation. Past researches demonstrated somewhat contrasting results that females were found to be more intrinsically motivated than males (Brown & Hughes, 2008) and females were more motivated to work for interpersonal and emotional reasons than their male counterparts (Chen & Zhao, 2013; Muller, Alliata, & Benninghoff, 2009).

However, males emphasize more on achievement (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2000; Warr, 2008), the prospect to an enterprise, a responsible job, and promotion opportunities, whereas females focus more on friendly colleagues, suitable working hours, and interaction with others (Warr, 2008). Gender differences may be visible in terms of shifts in the lifetime: such as when females occupy a dominant role in nurturing a family; significances may alter due to career discontinuity, part-time job, suffering conflict between family and work roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, as cited in Inceoglu, Segers, & Bartram, 2012).

Additionally, there are two categories of attitudinal preferences in gender differences, namely a focus on independence (agentic behavior) and concern for others (communal dimensions). In a working environment such as in universities, men are perceived to be more agentic while women are perceived to be more communal given their assigned

roles (Williams & Best, 1990). Nonetheless, maturation alters attitudinal preferences. For example, men become mentors at work and in the community, and are more connected with others; women are more independent and self-confident Gutmann (as cited in Inceoglu, Segers, & Bartram, 2012).

The significant differences in this study may emerge due to the possibility that in Pakistan, males certainly appear to be motivated more by instrumental values, while females likely to admire interpersonal relations, acknowledgment or reverence.

Hypothesis H6c specified that there are significant differences in work commitment according to gender among university academic staff in Pakistan. This hypothesis was not supported and exhibited insignificant differences in work commitment based on gender. Findings are in agreement with earlier studies which did not find any differences in the commitment based on gender (Konya et al., 2016; Rabindarang et al., 2014). Other studies exposed significant differences in the organizational commitment based on gender. Males got slightly higher score than females (Agwu, 2013; Akintayo, 2010; Sola et al., 2012) while in other studies females achieved higher scores in organizational commitment (Aydin, Sarier, & Sengul, 2011; Dalgıc, 2014; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). These uneven findings can be attributed to the possibility that in Pakistan with the decline of gender discrimination both genders can approach equal opportunities, which is why insignificant differences appeared in work commitment based on gender.

5.8 Differences in Emotional Intelligence, Work Motivation and Work Commitment According to Age.

Hypothesis H7a stated that there are significant differences in emotional intelligence according to age among university academic staff in Pakistan. The hypothesis was not supported. It is indicating insignificant differences in emotional intelligence based on age and it is consistent with the previous findings in which age was not appeared to be linked with EI (Naeem et al., 2014). Roberts (as cited in Kewalramani & Rastogi, 2013) and Casper (as cited in Mousavi et al., 2012) also come up with the same conclusions. This finding is also in line with the findings of other researchers, who have also established an insignificant relationship between EI and age (Day & Carroll, 2004; Palmer et al., 2005), but not in line with the findings of Van Rooy, Alonso and Viswesvaran (2005), who found significant increase in EI with age.

Ability model of emotional intelligence proposes that EI should improve with age since it is not a fixed trait and it is expected to improve with the cognitive and social skills (Mayer, 1999). The finding that age is not associated with EI may be elucidated according to Piaget theory which describes that the individual's brain is entirely developed during adolescence (Wadsworth, 1996).

Hypothesis H7b stated that there are significant differences in work motivation according to age among university academic staff in Pakistan. It was supported and displayed significant differences in work motivation based on age. It is consistent with the previous studies which revealed significant differences in work motivation based on age (Jackalas & Martins, 2016; Kamdron, 2015). Inceoglu, Segers and Bartram (2012) indicated that with increased age, motivation change rather than decline. This difference seems to emerge from the possibility that the motivating factors of academic

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staff may modify as their needs are being satisfied and as they aged and acquire experience in their profession. Findings showed that first group (less than 25 years) achieved a high score on work motivation than the second group (25-34 years). This indicates that early stage of the job is characterized by planning and enhanced work motivation but with the increasing age (25-34) academic staff gain extensive information about educational and vocational opportunities, that may be a factor to decrease their work motivation.

The literature on life-span development has shown that despite being relatively consistent, a person's motives can be different across the life cycle in terms of absolute levels, motive strength, and rank ordering as the self-concept and life-goals change (Fleeson & Heckhausen, 1997). Asserting a person's self-concept and guiding a person's energies onto results that bring positive effect is more critical (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). As the individual grows older responsibility such as child rearing, serving the society and forthcoming generations becomes more imperative (McAdams & de St. Aubin, as cited in Inceoglu, Segers, & Bartram, 2012) and cooperation is accentuated in place of competition. Kanfer and Ackerman (2000) established that individuals below 30-year old achieved greater scores on achievement and competitive excellence-orientated scales than above 30-year olds counterparts. Hence, it is obvious from the past literature that with the increasing age, shifts occur in work motivation but it does not decline.

Hypothesis H7c stated that there are significant differences in work commitment according to age among university academic staff in Pakistan. The hypothesis was not supported and displayed insignificant differences in work commitment based on age. This finding is consistent with the past study in which age had no influence on

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organizational commitment (Irving, Coleman, & Cooper, 1997). Other researchers have inconsistent results that older employees displayed higher organizational commitment than younger employees (Agwu, 2013; Ellemers, de Gilder, & van den Heuvel, 1998; Konya et al., 2016; Sola et al., 2012). Some scholars found age as a significant predictor of organizational commitment because when employees work in the organization for a long time, they show more commitment (Salami, 2007). As older employees particularly aged females had more commitment towards the organization (Konya et al., 2016; Petrides & Furnham, 2006). These contradictory findings can be attributed to the availability of different opportunities and individual targets. That is why no differences appeared for work commitment based on age.

5.9 Differences in Emotional Intelligence, Work Motivation and Work Commitment According to Work Experience.

Hypothesis H8a stated that there are significant differences in emotional intelligence according to work experience among university academic staff in Pakistan. This hypothesis was not supported and indicated insignificant differences in emotional intelligence based on work experience. This finding shows agreement with the past study in which years of service had not influenced emotional intelligence (Roberts, as cited in Kewalramani, 2015). It can be explained in a way that emotional intelligence is a trait which can be enhanced with training and by adopting relevant measures which support and advance emotional intelligence. It has nothing to do with work experience. Therefore, work experience did not make any difference in emotional intelligence.

Hypothesis H8b stated that there are significant differences in work motivation according to work experience among university academic staff in Pakistan and was supported and presented significant differences in work motivation based on work

experience. This finding is consistent with the earlier study which showed that seniority increases employee motivation (Jackalas & Martins, 2016), since work experience is a significant factor in motivation. With increased work experience individuals feel more confident and competent which further motivate them to utilize their potential to become successful in their respective profession. Other researchers come up with contrary results in which insignificant differences were found in perceptions of teacher motivation based on work experience (Boyle, 2014) and length of service showed an insignificant difference in both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Brown & Hughes, 2008).These inconsistent results can be attributed to cultural differences.

Hypothesis H8c specified that there are significant differences in work commitment based on work experience among university academic staff in Pakistan and was not supported and presented insignificant differences in work commitment based on work experience. Past studies showed insignificant differences in the organizational commitment based on work experience (Akintayo, 2010). Other studies also found inconsistent results in which commitment increased with work experience (Agwu, 2013; Ellemers et al., 1998; Konya et al., 2016; Salami, 2008). This finding can be attributed to the likelihood that with increasing work experience individuals gain more opportunities for success and become career oriented. That is why work experience does not appear to make any difference in the overall work commitment.

5.10 Differences in Emotional Intelligence, Work Motivation and Work Commitment According to Work Position.

Hypothesis H9a stated that there are significant differences in emotional intelligence according to work position among university academic staff in Pakistan. This hypothesis was not supported and presented insignificant differences in emotional

intelligence based on work position. Findings are consistent with the previous work by Roberts (as cited in Kewalramani, 2015) and Casper (as cited in Mousavi et al., 2012) who found no differences in emotional intelligence based on work position. Another study reported the same insignificant outcomes (Ghoreishi et al., 2014).

Others researchers come up with contradictory findings. Jorfi, Yaccob and Shah (2011) found work position as an important factor that can influence emotional intelligence. Another study maintained that middle managers achieved the greater score in emotional intelligence. Conversely, apart from that, scores on emotional intelligence decrease as work position increase (Bradberry & Greaves, 2005). Bhalerao and Kumar (2016) specified that the work position or designation might be essential for the development of this relationship to nurture. The nature and demonstration of emotional proficiencies can differ depending on organizational hierarchy or position.

Hypothesis H9b stated that there are significant differences in work motivation according to work position among university academic staff in Pakistan and was supported and presented significant differences in work motivation based on work position. Findings are consistent with previous studies which have established the effect of work position on work motivation (Kamdron, 2015). Findings showed that academic staff working as lecturers showed better work motivation than assistant professors. These differences can be attributed to the likelihood that the early stage of the profession is characterized by fantasy, interest, and inquisitiveness and academic staff feel more motivated. But when their jobs become permanent, there may be a change in the motivation of academic staff that cannot be attributed as declination in motivation. However, Absar and Jameel (2017) reported insignificant differences in work motivation based on work position.

Hypothesis H9c stated that there are significant differences in work commitment according to work position among university academic staff in Pakistan. The hypothesis was not supported and presented insignificant differences in work commitment based on work position. It is expected that employees having higher education hold higher positions in the organizations. Hence, they assume a greater responsibility which demand more organizational commitment (Salami, 2008). Therefore, it can be explained in a way that work position does not directly influence work commitment and when employees realize greater responsibility, consequently they feel more committed.

5.11 Differences in Emotional Intelligence, Work Motivation and Work Commitment According to Qualification.

Hypothesis H10a specified that there are significant differences in emotional intelligence according to qualification among university academic staff in Pakistan. It was supported and presented differences in emotional intelligence of academic staff based on qualification. But the mean differences were very small between groups as shown in post-hoc comparison test which did not highlight significance for any of the three groups. This finding is in agreement with the past study. Shukla and Srivastava (2016) found that qualification is linked with emotional intelligence.

Other studies come up with contradictory findings such as Casper (as cited in Mousavi et al., 2012) and Ghoreishi et al., (2014) who found insignificant differences in emotional intelligence based on qualification. This difference can be explained in a way that education develops individuals' cognitive capability, enhances their knowledge, improve their skills, and ability to gain novel abilities and understanding. Therefore, higher qualification paves the way for emotional intelligence.

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Hypothesis H10b stated that there are significant differences in work motivation according to qualification among university academic staff in Pakistan. The hypothesis was supported and presented significant differences in work motivation based on qualification. Findings are in line with past study which maintained that qualification influence employee motivation. Highly educated employees were motivated to perform despite constraints and achieved maximum success promptly (Jackalas & Martins, 2016). Findings of the present study showed that academic staff with a MPhil degree were more motivated than academic staff who had Doctorate and Post-doctorate qualification. This difference can be attributed to the possibility that with the increasing qualification the focus of motivation change. Previously they may be motivated to improve their qualification but after getting maximum qualification the focus and intensity of motivation may change toward advancing other professional competencies.

Hypothesis H10c stated that there are significant differences in work commitment based on qualification among university academic staff in Pakistan. The hypothesis was not supported and presented insignificant differences in work commitment based on qualification. It was consistent with earlier studies in which researchers found insignificant differences in the organizational commitment based on qualification in technical and vocational education (Rabindarang et al., 2014). The finding was also consistent with the study by Yuen Onn (as cited in Rabindarang et al., 2014) and Mathieu and Zajac (1990). However, it is expected that employees who are highly educated likely to leave the organization for better opportunities.

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5.12 Differences in Emotional Intelligence, Work Motivation and Work Commitment According to Income.

Hypothesis H11a stated that there are significant differences in emotional intelligence based on income among university academic staff in Pakistan. The hypothesis was supported and presented significant differences in emotional intelligence based on income. It is consistent with the study of Harrod and Scheer (as cited in Kewalramani, 2015) who confirmed the link between income and emotional intelligence. Shukla and Srivastava (2016) also maintained that high income increases emotional intelligence since individuals who are financially secured feel less stressed and utilize their abilities and competencies in a much better way.

Hypothesis H11b stated that there are significant differences in work motivation based on income among university academic staff in Pakistan and was not supported and presented insignificant differences in work motivation based on income. The finding is inconsistent with the past study which suggested that job motivation significantly influences by change in income. However, it is contingent on the amount of change in income and higher increments associated with increased motivation (Kukanja, 2013). This finding can arise from the possibility that individuals who have work self-determined motivation, give less importance to monetary rewards. Non-material rewards in the form of appreciation and acknowledgment are more important for them. They work for altruistic reasons and for the wellbeing of society than material benefits.

Hypothesis H11c stated that there are significant differences in work commitment based on income among university academic staff in Pakistan. The hypothesis was not supported and showed that income cause no changes in work commitment. The finding is consistent with the past study which showed that extrinsic rewards does not indicate any noteworthy differences in lower class workers' commitment level ("Organizational

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commitment and pay satisfaction," 2017). Other studies have indicated significant differences between salary scale and affective and continuance commitment but did not show differences in normative commitment (Ariffin & Ha, 2014). Obasaolufemi (2015) maintained that less salary of public sector employees bears psychological, economic and social repercussions on their attitudes towards work in the organization. Although income is important yet there are other factors which play their role in improving commitment. Therefore, in the current study no differences appeared in work commitment based on income.

5.2 Implications and Suggestions

The implications based on research findings have been outlined and discussed in the subsequent subsections.

5.2.1 Theoretical Implications

This section presented some of the theoretical implications of the data discussed. Firstly, this study has numerous imperative implications for the organizational behavior literature. In this study, the construct of organizational culture was underpinned by employing competing values framework (CVF) developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981, 1983) and the construct of work commitment was underpinned by Morrow's (1993) model of work commitment. The outcomes of this study verified and broadened knowledge of CVF and work commitment model.

Ensuring a robust statistical analysis using Smart PLS, the study supplied support for the application of Quinn and Rohrbaugh's (1981, 1983) organizational culture assessment instrument and Blau, Paul and St. John's (1993) work commitment index in the context of Pakistan. Past researches have been using separate instruments for

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assessing five forms of work commitment. However present study applied work commitment index (Blau, Paul & St. John,1993), which measures all five forms of work commitment with a single instrument. Olsen, Sverdrup, Nesheim and Kalleberg (2016) also recommended measuring foci of commitment by employing a single instrument.

Secondly, while assessing the existing studies of organizational culture, emotional intelligence, work motivation, and work commitment, it appeared that there were associations between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment, work motivation and organizational commitment, and organizational culture and organizational commitment, but there was a dearth of research involving all of these four constructs in relation with work commitment. Past researches focused more on organizational commitment and very few studies paid attention to the construct of work commitment as a whole. Consequently, the present study has supported the unifying model of organizational culture, emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment.

5.2.2 Practical Implications

Findings reported in the current study have numerous practical implications for public sector universities in particular and private-sector universities in general. The current study has provided practical support for the application of organizational culture assessment instrument and work commitment index. By applying these instruments management can evaluate the organizational culture of the universities and work commitment of academic staff.

The findings proposed that to attract and retain the most valued assets - the academic staff- organizations might take advantage of organizational culture. The current study

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revealed that the dominant culture in the universities is market culture. Although market culture had a negative direct relationship with work commitment, yet market culture positively moderated the relationship between work motivation and work commitment.

Therefore, it is argued that universities might experience a critical problem in their strategic human resources management by observing a culture that has the direct negative influence on work commitment and also a culture that does not significantly contribute to work commitment. Hence, universities and higher education department in the region should be aware of the implications of the organizational culture on academic staff's work commitment.

The results of the current study are also deemed important from an organizational development viewpoint, as it signified that the genuine content of organizational culture is imperative for the promotion of emotional and normative bonds. The findings are also vital to the advancement of emotional intelligence training programs from human resource specialist. Policies should be developed to enhance the emotional intelligence competencies of academic staff, specifically through lectures and training workshops. The findings also emphasize the need to attract and recruit highly emotional intelligent personnel, train them at diverse levels and guide them towards the application of required skills. In this way, the personnel could effectively control and manage their feelings as well as they would be able to positively impact their students and colleagues.

Besides, the findings proposed that university management needs to reflect on the work motivation mechanisms which promote staffs' work commitment. Although the most common rewards are salary, incentive system and promotions yet the most important rewards are the recognition (intrinsic) like gratitude, acknowledgments and autonomy.

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These are likely to have a profound effect on employees' motivation and performance. Since the current study found a significant positive relationship between work self-determined motivation (intrinsic motivation) and work commitment which emphasizes the significance of non-material rewards.

Consequently, it is maintained that organizational culture is directly related to the effectiveness of an organization. Moreover, work motivation and emotional intelligence are also very crucial for organizational success. Organizational culture can affect the human behavior in the organization by influencing employees' emotions, motivations, performance, and attitudes. Therefore, management should be aware of how to govern organizational culture. If the management perceives that employees are demotivated and their commitment and performance are diminished because of organizational culture, then they should modify and change the culture.

Management in the higher education must facilitate their staff by supplying an organizational atmosphere where staff feel respected and attain indispensable support to know their potential. Management must certify that the cultural strategies and policies support academic staffs' objectives and organizational goals. Additionally, it is highlighted that initiatives should be taken to improve the self-determined motivation of academic staff through both psychological and material inducements. Not only research publication but also the quality of teaching should be considered for promotion criteria. There should be greater opportunity for motivated academic staff and reward system should be based on their performance and skills. Moreover, policies related to academic staff management in higher education should be conducive to their development.

5.3 Towards a Unifying Model of Organizational Culture, Emotional Intelligence, Work Motivation, and Work Commitment.

The theoretical analyses and research findings reviewed here provide a strong foundation for a comprehensive unifying model. This model has the potential for extensive application. This study provides new insights into the relationships between organizational culture, emotional intelligence, work motivation constructs and their respective contribution to work commitment. The major goal of the study was to empirically examine the theoretical and conceptual model proposed in the present study, which laid the foundation for integration between competing values framework (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), Bar-On (1997) model of emotional intelligence, self-determination theory of work motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and work commitment model (Morrow, 1993). In line with the hypotheses, findings showed that organizational culture, emotional intelligence, and work motivation are significantly related with work commitment.

A significant relationship among these variables may enhance our understanding of work behaviors. Following this indication, the moderating effects of organizational culture on the relationship between emotional intelligence, work motivation, and work commitment were also investigated. Outcomes from the structural equation modeling analyses have supplied support for the hypothesized model and it has established the moderating effects of hierarchy and market organizational culture on the relationship between work motivation and work commitment. Additionally, significant differences in work motivation and emotional intelligence were observed on a number of demographic variables.

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In brief, committed employees determine their behavior by internalizing and integrating work values and regulations emphasized by the organizational culture that in turn activate positive attitudes and behaviors toward work.
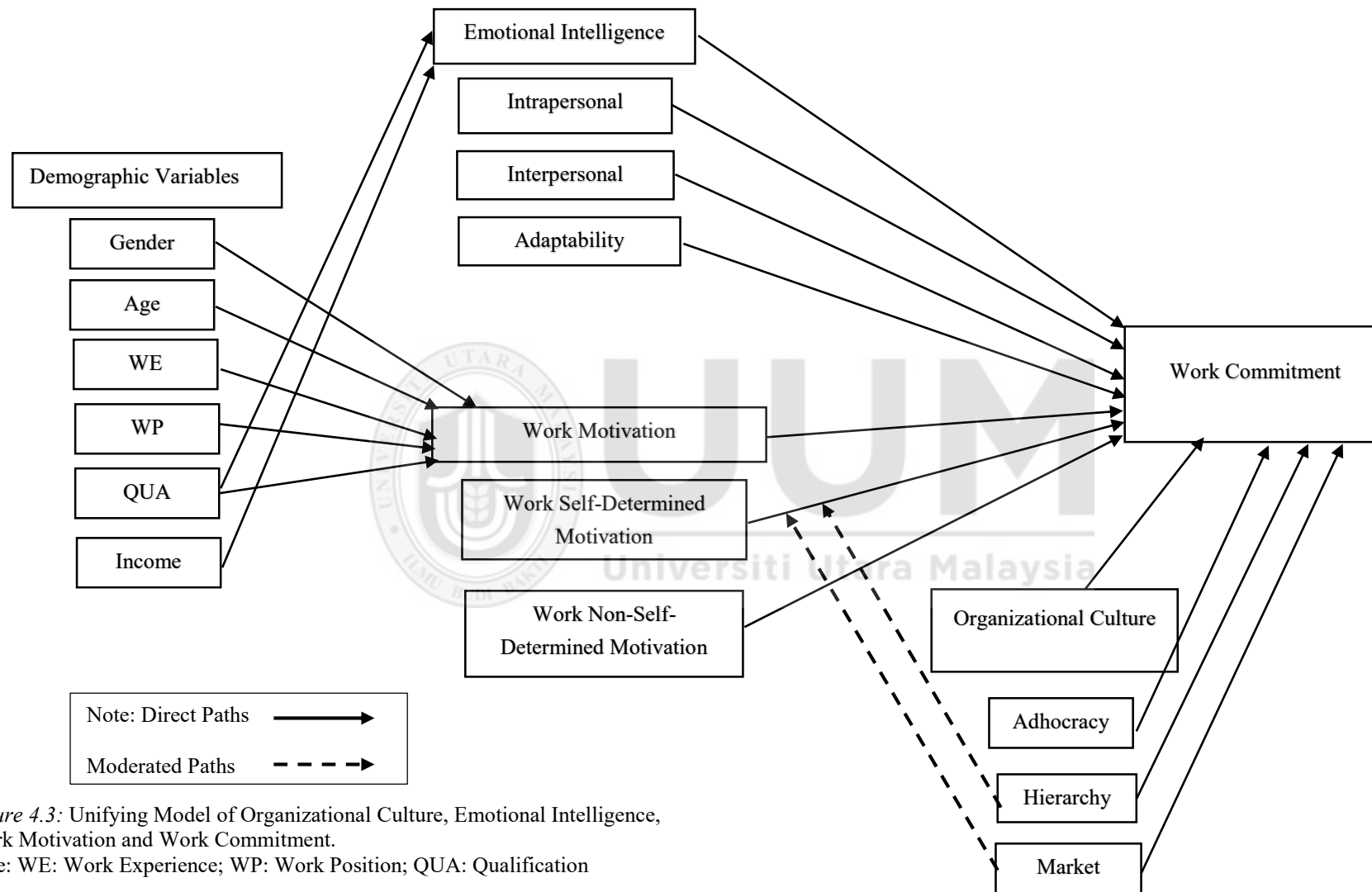
Figure 4.3: Unifying Model of Organizational Culture, Emotional Intelligence, Work Motivation and Work Commitment.
Note: WE: Work Experience; WP: Work Position; QUA: Qualification

5.4 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Findings offered in the current study should be taken into consideration with some envisioned limitations. First, no causal interpretation can be drawn since this is a cross-sectional research. The examination of the direction of the relationship between the constructs examined would be possible by employing the longitudinal method.

This study assessed the present culture of the public universities. Future studies may also evaluate the preferred culture, which can also be measured using the organizational cultural assessment instrument (OCAI). Forthcoming studies may incorporate broader sample and extend to multiple geographic locations in both public and private sectors to gain new experience and to enhance the generalization of the findings. Qualitative methods can be used to yield an in-depth and nuanced picture of the phenomena.

The present study adopted the existing instruments without translation because the respondents of the current study were well-educated. However, future studies can use back to back translation to validate the instruments in case of cultural or language barriers in diverse cultures and organizations. In this regard, the stated limitations of the research need to be considered as substitute avenues for forthcoming studies.

5.5 Conclusion

The present study aimed to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence, work motivation, and work commitment. Moreover, the moderating role of organizational culture was also examined on the relationship between emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment. Findings showed that organizational culture and its types (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market) either negatively or insignificantly moderated the relationship between emotional intelligence

and work commitment. Whereas previous few available studies showed significant moderating effects of organizational culture (particularly the clan and adhocracy culture) in the similar relationship.

It may be due to the possibility that in Pakistan public sector organizations support bureaucratic (hierarchy) culture. In this context, the characteristics of the bureaucratic culture involve management hierarchies with high boundaries, gradual decision making procedure, too rigorous monitoring, unyielding working process and strategies and absence of initiative. In the formal hierarchal cultures status is ascribed based on an individual's age, gender, and organizational position. Consequently, employees of both genders may undergo problems in organizations with hierarchal cultures. This problem is common in the Asian region such as Pakistan.

These hierarchical characteristics are not conducive to promote work commitment. As it was stated in the problem statement section that commitment is low in employees in general and specifically in academic staff. Despite the direct positive relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment, the interaction effect of organizational culture in the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment was negative, which lead us to conclude that prevailing hierarchy and market culture in public sector organizations of Pakistan is responsible for decreased work commitment in academic staff. That is why the academic staff in Pakistan lacks work commitment and educated youth prefer to migrate to developed countries and causing a brain drain in Pakistan.

The study has also shown that the relationship between organizational culture, emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment in public universities

of Pakistan is generally related to the study findings conducted in western countries. This uniformity proposes similarity in employees with regards to the features that improve their commitment in advanced and emerging countries, and thus highlight the generalizability of the theories of organizational culture, emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment, which were established and verified in Western perspectives and utilized in the Pakistani context. However, cultural variations might have caused some contradictory results in relation to the effect of some types of organizational culture on these vital characteristics of human attitudes within organizations.

Types of organizational culture, such as market and hierarchy culture, have displayed an unexpected association with work commitment through work motivation, presenting a gap for upcoming studies. However, it is evident from the findings of the present study that work motivation in interaction with the moderating variable of organizational culture could influence work commitment.

Regarding demographic variables findings have depicted significant differences in work motivation based on gender, age, work experience, and qualification, whereas significant differences in emotional intelligence were only found based on qualification and income. There were insignificant differences in work commitment based on demographic variables. Based on the study findings, the significance of work motivation among academic staff can be established.

Therefore, the current study establishes that a process which encourages features of work self-determined motivation and focuses on academic staffs' personal and professional development may motivate teachers to reflect upon wide-ranging

professional aspects. Teaching views and role perceptions may improve and change by this type of practice. Emotional intelligence and work motivation are inseparable in teaching and practice. By incorporating them into teacher-focused development efforts, clear advantages may be derived.

The influence of organizational culture on critical organizational features related to personnel, such as commitment has been emphasized in both theory and research. Organizational culture has become increasingly significant nowadays because of globalization, escalated competition, numerous staff developments, and technological change. Organizations can develop in employees a sense of loyalty for the organization by ensuring optimum human resource practices.

Therefore, policymakers in higher education can help to promote work commitment in academic staff by establishing a supportive organizational culture and by providing practices that sustenance innovation. Efforts can be directed to change organizational culture since hierarchy and market culture deters work commitment and reduce the impact of significant factor like emotional intelligence.

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Appendix A

Informed Consent Form

Title of Project: Moderating effects of organizational culture on the relationship between emotional intelligence, work motivation and work commitment.

Principal Investigator: Saira Irfan (+92 0345 7424232, sairairfan2005@gmail.com)

You are being asked to participate in a research study. Before you give your consent to volunteer, it is important that you read the following information to be sure you understand what you will be asked to do.

Purpose of The Study

This research study is designed to examine factors that might influence work commitment by looking into existing organizational culture and by observing the emotional intelligence and work motivation of university academic staff in Pakistan.

Procedures

Data will be gathered through questionnaire, which consists of questions about work commitment, emotional intelligence, work motivation and organizational culture. It will take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Discomforts and Risks

Your participation in this research project is completely voluntary and you may refuse to participate at any time. There are no known risks to participation beyond those encountered in everyday life. Some of the questions are personal and might cause discomfort.

Confidentiality

Your participation in this research is confidential. The data collection methods do not ask for any information that would identify who the responses belong to. In the event

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of any publication or presentation resulting from the research, no personally identifiable information will be shared because your name is in no way linked to your responses.

Voluntary Participation

Your decision to be in this research is voluntary. If you agree to participate in this project, please answer the questions on the questionnaire as best you can.

Benefits of Your Participation in the Study

Although you may not directly benefit from taking part in this study, however the outcomes of this study could assist management and practitioners in the educational setting, in designing and implementing relevant measures to better understand the importance of work commitment and improve work commitment among academic staff.

Participant:

_____ _____ _____

Name of Participant   Signature   Date

Researcher:

_____ _____ _____

Name of Researcher   Signature   Date

Appendix B
Instruments

Dear Participant,

This project is being conducted by Mrs. Saira Irfan as part of a Doctor of Philosophy program at University Utara Malaysia under the supervision of Prof. Dr. Najib B Hj Ahmad Marzuki from the School of Applied Psychology, Social Work and Policy, University Utara Malaysia, Malaysia. By giving twenty minutes of your valuable time, you are providing information that is pertinent to the study. Your answers are very important to the accuracy of the study. To this end, please find enclosed the Informed Consent Form, Personal Data Sheet and Survey Questionnaire for your attention and further action.

Questions regarding the survey, or the doctoral research, can be directed to the researcher: Saira Irfan (+92 0345 7424232, sairairfan2005@gmail.com).

Thank you for your cooperation in this important endeavor.

Regards

Saira Irfan

Section A: Demographic Information

> For each question check the response option that best describe you or write your response as appropriate:

1) **Gender:**
   ☐ Male   ☐ Female

2) **Age:**

   ☐ Less than 25 years   ☐ 25 to 34 years   ☐ 35-44 years
   ☐ 45-55 years   ☐ 55 and above

3) **Educational Level:**

   ☐ M.Phil.   ☐ PhD   ☐ Post-Doctorate

4) **Work Position:**

   ☐ Lecturer   ☐ Assistance Professor   ☐ Associate Professor
   ☐ Professor

5) **Work experience:**

   ☐ 5 years and below   ☐ 6 to 10 years   ☐ 11 to 15 years
   ☐ 16 to 20 years   ☐ 20 to 25 years   ☐ 26 to 30 years

6) **Salary**

   ☐ Less than 40,000   ☐ 40,000 – 79,999   ☐ 80,000 – 99,999
   ☐ More than 100,000

7) **University Name**

_____

Section B: Work Commitment:

For each of the following statements, please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement by circling a number from 1 to 6 using the scale below:

1 = Strongly Disagree
2= Moderately Disagree
3= Slightly Disagree
4= Slightly Agree
5= Moderately Agree
6= Strongly Agree

	ITEMS						
1	If I could, I would go into a different Job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I can see myself in my present occupation for many years.						
3	My occupation choice is a good decision.						
4	If I had a choice, I would not have chosen my present occupation.						
5	I would still continue in my occupation, if I didn't need the money.						
6	I am sometimes dissatisfied with my occupation.						
7	I like my occupation too well to give it up.						
8	My education/training is not related to my occupation.						
9	My occupation is in line with my values.						
10	I wish I had chosen a different occupation.						
11	I am disappointed that I entered my present occupation.						
12	The most important things in my life involve my job.						
13	My job is only small part of myself.						
14	I live, eat, and breathe my job.						
15	Most of my interests are centered around my job.						

16	Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	My job is very central to my existence.						
18	I like to be absorbed in job most of time.						
19	I believe hard work makes self a better person.						
20	I believe wasting time as bad as wasting money.						
21	I believe a person's worth depends upon how well he does his work.						
22	I think it's better to have more responsible work.						
23	I think people should get involved in work.						
24	I believe work should be central to life.						
25	I believe one's life goals should be work-oriented.						
26	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.						
27	I am not emotionally attached to organization.						
28	The organization has personal meaning for me.						
29	I do not feel like part of organization.						
30	I would be glad to spend rest of days with this organization.						
31	The organization's problems are mine too.						

Section C: Emotional Intelligence:

This section consists of statements that provide you with an opportunity to describe yourself by indicating the degree to which each statement is true of the way you feel, think, or act most of the time and in most situations. There are five possible responses to each sentence.

1= Very seldom or not true of me
2= Seldom true of me
3= Sometimes true of me
4= Often true of me
5= Very often true of me or true of me

	ITEMS	1	2	3	4	5
1	I am a fairly cheerful person.					
2	I like helping other.					
3	I am unable to express my ideas to others.					
4	It is a problem controlling my anger.					
5	My approach to overcoming difficulties is to move step by step.					
6	I don't do anything bad in my life.					
7	I feel sure of myself in most situations.					
8	I am unable to understand the way other people feel.					
9	I prefer others to make decision for me.					
10	My impulsiveness creates problem.					
11	I try to see things as they really are.					
12	Nothing disturbs me.					
13	I believe I can stay on top of tough situations.					
14	I am good at understanding the way other people feel.					
15	It is hard for me to understand the way I feel.					
16	I feel that it is hard for me to control my anxiety.					

17	When faced with a difficult situation, I like to collect all the information about it that I can.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I have not told a lie in my life.					
19	I am optimistic about most things I do.					
20	My friends can tell me intimate things about themselves.					
21	In the past few years, I have accomplished little.					
22	I tend to explode with anger easily.					
23	I like to get an overview of a problem before trying to solve it.					
24	I have not broken a law of any kind.					
25	I care what happens to other people.					
26	It is hard for me to enjoy life.					
27	It is hard for me to make decision on my own.					
28	I have strong impulses that are hard to control.					
29	When facing a problem, the first thing I do is stop and think.					
30	I don't have bad days.					
31	I am satisfied with my life.					
32	My close relationship means a lot to me and to my friends.					
33	I am more of a follower than a leader.					
34	It is hard to express my intimate feelings.					
35	I am impulsive.					
36	When trying to solve a problem, I look at each possibility and then decide on the best way.					
37	I have not been embarrassed for anything that I have done.					
38	I get depressed.					

		1	2	3	4	5
39	I am able to respect others.					
40	I have got a bad temper.					
41	In handling situations that arise, I try to think of as many approaches as I can.					
42	I generally expect things will turn out all right, despite setbacks from time to time.					
43	I am sensitive to the feelings of others.					
44	Others think that I lack assertiveness.					
45	I am impatient.					
46	I believe in my ability to handle most upsetting problems.					
47	I have good relations with others.					
48	It is hard for me to describe my feelings.					
49	Before beginning something new, I usually feel that I will fail.					
50	It is difficult for me to stand up for my rights.					
51	People think that I am sociable.					

Section D: Work Motivation:

> Using the scale below, please indicate to what extent each of the following items corresponds to the reasons why you are presently involved in your work.

1= Does not correspond at all
2= correspond a little
3= Moderately correspond
4= Corresponds a lot
5 = Corresponds exactly

	ITEMS	1	2	3	4	5
1	Because this is the type of work I chose to do to attain a certain lifestyle.					
2	For the income it provides me.					
3	I ask myself this question, I don't seem to be able to manage the important tasks related to this work.					
4	Because I derive much pleasure from learning new things.					
5	Because it has become a fundamental part of who I am.					
6	Because I want to succeed at this job, if not I would be very ashamed of myself.					
7	Because I chose this type of work to attain my career goals.					
8	For the satisfaction I experience from taking on interesting challenges					
9	Because it allows me to earn money.					
10	Because it is part of the way in which I have chosen to live my life.					
11	Because I want to be very good at this work, otherwise I would be very disappointed.					
12	I don't know why, we are provided with unrealistic working conditions.					
13	Because I want to be a "winner" in life.					

14	Because it is the type of work I have chosen to attain certain important objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
15	For the satisfaction I experience when I am successful at doing difficult tasks.					
16	Because this type of work provides me with security.					
17	I don't know, too much is expected of us.					
18	Because this job is a part of my life.					

Section E: Organizational Culture:

In this section we ask you to assess six key dimensions of your university's culture. You will be providing a picture of how your university operates and the values that characterize it. No right or wrong answers, just as there is no right or wrong culture. Every university will most likely produce a different set of responses. Therefore, be as accurate in response. Please circle a number from 1 to 5 using the scale below:

1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neutral
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

ITEMS						
1	The university is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.	1	2	3	4	5
2	The university is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.					
3	The university is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.					
4	The university is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.					
5	The leadership in the university is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.					
6	The leadership in the university is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.					
7	The leadership in the university is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.					
8	The leadership in the university is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.					

9	The management style in the university is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
10	The management style in the university is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.					
11	The management style in the university is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.					
12	The management style in the university is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.					
13	The glue that holds the university together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this university runs high.					
14	The glue that holds the university together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge					
15	The glue that holds the university together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.					
16	The glue that holds the university together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running bank is important.					
17	The university emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.					
18	The university emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.					
19	The university emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.					
20	The university emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.					
21	The university defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people	1	2	3	4	5

22	The university defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.	1	2	3	4	5
23	The university defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.					
24	The university defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.					