"Understanding the link between Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Empowerment and Organizational Commitment in the Banking Sector."

BAREKA, Eleni

This dissertation is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of Staffordshire University for the award of Master in Business Administration

October 2012

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to examine the effect of emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment on affective and continuance organizational commitment, in the banking sector in Greece.

A survey amongst banking employees of a large private bank of Greece (National Bank of Greece) was conducted. Primary data were collected by use of established questionnaires, in a sample of 200 employees, yielding 126 valid responses. The study employed well known measures from the literature. Specifically, Allen and Meyer's (1993) measure of organizational commitment, the Wong and Law's (2002) measure of emotional intelligence, and Spreitzer's (1995) measure of psychological empowerment. Multiple regression analysis was performed to test the hypothesized relationships.

The results show that there is a strong positive relationship between psychological empowerment and affective commitment, while the link between emotional intelligence and affective commitment was not found to be statistically significant. In addition, marital status was found to be significantly related with affective organizational commitment. This study adds to the body of knowledge on organizational commitment and could provide useful insight to human resource professionals and people who manage bank employees.

Acknowledgements

I am profoundly thankful to my supervisor Dr. Nikolaos Kakkos and to Dr. Panagiotis Trivelas for their invaluable guidance and support.

LIST OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: The link between Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Empowerment and Organizational Commitment

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Project background

Organizational commitment has been regarded as an important construct because of its effect on employee identification with the organization, level of effort, and turnover (Stroh & Reilly, 1997); (McKendall & Margulis, 1995). Organizational scientists have long been interested in organizational commitment. This interest derives from the fact that there are benefits to having a committed workforce (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Loyal committed employees usually generate high performance outcomes, measured in sales, productivity and profitability (Rogers, 2001); (Tsui, et al., 1995).

Although organizations still rely on a committed workforce to maintain or gain competitive advantage, the crisis itself, coupled with changes introduced in the name of efficiency (e.g., downsizing; reengineering; merger and acquisition) have the potential to undermine that commitment (Meyer, 2009); (Mowday, 1998). For example, restructuring is generally accepted to help organizations compete (Vance, 2006); however such changes can break the traditional psychological employment "contract" and its expectations of reciprocity (Cullinane & Dundon, 2006). Employees nowadays realize that they can no longer depend on organizations for job security, or count on working for a single employer long enough to retire. Their expectations of reciprocity have been reduced, leading them to feel less committed to their employers (Vance, 2006).

Many organizations are concerned about the level of loyalty and commitment which can be expected of employees when their incentive of security is no longer present. Indeed, secure, long term employment seems to become a less significant aspect of future careers (Handy, 1989) and for many employees it is already considered an unrealistic objective. The relational contract of a long term relationship is being replaced by a "transactional" contract in which rewards are based on performance (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). The consequences to an organization of employees with low commitment can be costly and therefore deserve the attention of management (Hartmann & Bambakas, 2000). Thus, it is arguably very important to understand the nature, development and implications of employee commitment.

The banking sector in Greece has also been under much pressure lately, due to the widespread environmental uncertainty, which is inevitably reflected in the attitude and perceptions of the employees. Today many employees in the Greek banking sector feel lucky to even have a job, due to the economic crisis that has terrorised Greece (and other countries) and almost paralysed any economic development.

Banks, as organizations that require interpersonal interaction, require high emotional labor. Most of these interactions are related to the performance of job duties, for example, serving customers, instructions and reporting to supervisors, or cooperating and coordinating with colleagues. Employees with high levels of emotional intelligence are those who can regulate their emotions effectively, and manage their interactions with others in a more effective manner (Wong & Law, 2002). Approximately 64% of the employees of the National bank of Greece, used for this study, (according to the published records of the bank on 31.12.2010), work at the branch network and have direct contact with clients. Their commitment is, therefore, important for customer satisfaction (Vance, 2006). The emotionally intelligent worker is more likely to succeed in such a work environment, ensuring customer satisfaction. Beyond helping the worker as an individual, emotional intelligence may also assist the function of work teams as a whole. The emotionally intelligent person is more likely to empathize with others and find ways to work together productively. (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004).

Emotionally intelligent employees are happier and more committed (Abraham, 2000), and organizations should seek to recruit and retain such individuals, and reward them with autonomy in decision making. Emotionally intelligent employees could be helped to thrive in an empowering environment, where the work goals fit their own values (meaning), where they feel confident about their abilities (competence), they have autonomy and responsibility for their actions (self-determination), and they have significant influence on operating outcomes (impact) (Spreitzer, 1995). As Spreitzer and Quinn (2001), suggest, companies may become successful in today's business environment by transforming into a company of leaders, in which employees at every level use their knowledge, ideas, energy and creativity to take initiative and act as if the business was their own.

Emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment have been selected for the purposes of this research, because, according to the existing literature, their relationship with organizational commitment remains relatively unexplored. The study provides useful insights, aiming at the creation of human resource management practices that could enhance organizational commitment. It is therefore assumed that this study will be of interest to human resource administrators and persons who need to manage bank employees.

An important aspect of this research is the fact that it is conducted in a highly volatile business environment, in which employees are faced with the constant threat of termination through downsizing, merging and continual change in job responsibilities because of internal restructuring.

1.2 Research objectives

Given the growing strategic importance of employee commitment to productivity, innovation, and talent retention (Fiorito, et al., 2007; Kim & Rowley, 2005) this study investigates the relationship between emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment (as independent variables) and the two dimensions of organizational commitment, affective and continuance commitment (as dependent variables) in the context of the banking sector.

Although there are diverse studies exploring organizational commitment, emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment, respectively, little research has analysed all above concepts simultaneously. This is considered to be a research gap that this study will attempt to address, in order to add to the existing literature.

The main goal of the present study is to begin to understand the predictive validity of emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment on organizational commitment. In particular a survey was undertaken to generate data about the likely link between:

1. Emotional intelligence and affective organizational commitment

2. Emotional intelligence and continuance organizational commitment

3. Psychological empowerment and affective organizational commitment

4. Psychological empowerment and continuance organizational commitment.

1.3 Overview of the study

The dissertation is structured as follows:

Chapter 2 contains a comprehensive and critical review of the theoretical background of organizational commitment, emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment. The models, methodologies and research procedures developed by the leading researchers in each field are discussed and evaluated.

Chapter 3 discusses the research model and the research hypotheses. The relationship between the independent and the dependent variables of the models, as found in the literature, is discussed and the relevant hypotheses are developed.

Chapter 4 presents the research methodology, describing the research and questionnaire design as well as the methods used for data collection.

Chapter 5 presents the statistical analysis of the data. Reliability analysis, t-test analyses, correlation analysis, and multivariate analysis were performed in order to analyse the gathered data and help come to useful results.

Chapter 6 discusses the research findings, followed by conclusions drawn from the research, recommendations, limitations and future research suggestions.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature on organizational commitment, emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment is widespread. The following section defines the three constructs and presents the main features of each. It becomes evident from this review that the three constructs are inter-related, with the presence of one being likely to have an effect on the other.

2.1 Organizational Commitment

2.1.1 Theoretical models of organizational commitment

Organizational commitment in the workplace is one of the most researched yet still challenging concepts in the fields of management, organizational behavior, and human resource management (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005).

Researchers have developed a large variety of definitions for the concept, making it difficult to interpret the results of the accumulated body of research. As stated by Kacmar, et al. (1999) however researchers define commitment they are essentially interested in assessing the psychological bond an employee has with an organization (Mowday, et al., 1979).

Two distinct views of organizational commitment had been originally developed, one that regards it as calculative (Becker, 1960) and the other as attitudinal (Porter, et al., 1974; Mowday, et al., 1979).

Howard Becker developed a theory of commitment, claiming that the relationship between employee and organization is based on a process of placing side-bets, which would be lost if the activity were discontinued. A person makes side-bets either consciously and deliberately or sometimes almost without his/her knowledge, producing commitment that constrains future behavior, making it difficult for the person to disengage from a consistent pattern of activity, namely his membership in the organization (Becker, 1964). Becker's theory has been rejected by Ritzer and Trice (1969) who suggested that organizational commitment is basically a psychological phenomenon and not a structural one as Becker contends, and that the side-bets may increase organizational commitment once it is established but cannot be considered as determining factors. Becker's theory has influenced Meyer and Allen's scale, namely the dimension of continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

According to Porter, et al., (1974); Mowday, et al., (1979), organizational commitment is defined as the relative strength of an individual's **identification with** and **involvement in** a particular organization and has three primary components:

a) A strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values.

b) A willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization

c) A strong desire to stay with the organization.

In other words, an employee who is highly committed to an organization intends to stay with it and work hard towards the organization's well-being. Commitment goes beyond simple, passive loyalty since the employee actively pursues to contribute to the organization's well-being (Porter, et al., 1974).

Both these approaches consider organizational commitment as unidimensional, but the focus has shifted from Becker's tangible side-bets to the psychological attachment of the employee to the organization, his dedication to it and his identification with its goals and values.

Based on the approach of Porter, et al. (1974) the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was developed by Mowday, et al. (1979). Critique lead to the development of a multidimensional model by O' Reilly & Chatman (1986) as well as Meyer and Allen (1984).

O' Reilly and Chatman conceived organizational commitment as the psychological attachment employees experience for the organization. Based on the taxonomy of Kelman (1958) they recognized three independent foundations that may predict an employee's psychological attachment to the organization:

"(a) *compliance* or instrumental involvement for specific, extrinsic rewards

(b) *identification* or involvement based on a desire for affiliation

(c) *internalization* or involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organizational values" (O' Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

Their approach, although interesting, has not been followed by many researchers. On the contrary, the model developed by Meyer and Allen (1984) has become the dominant one in the study of organizational commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1984) acknowledged the importance of both the attitudinal (Porter, et al., 1974) and the calculative approach (Becker, 1960), labeling them affective and continuance commitment accordingly. They developed and tested scales for measuring each. Their affective commitment scale appeared to be unidimensional and had good internal consistency reliability. The continuance commitment scale, however, consisted of two unique components. The first reflected commitment based on the perception of few existing employment alternatives, and the second reflected commitment based on high personal sacrifice associated with leaving the organization (McGee & Ford, 1987).

In 1990, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found some differences between the two dimensions of commitment (affective and continuance) and mentioned that researchers at the time were beginning to identify other forms of commitment.

Allen and Meyer (1990) added one more dimension, normative commitment which reflects a feeling of obligation to remain with the organization. Its derivation may be "external", for example if the organization has invested resources to train an employee causing him feelings of obligation, or "internal" through family or other socialization processes that convince the person to be loyal to the organization.

The affective (desire), continuance (need) and normative (obligation) dimensions of organizational commitment of the model developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) have been since approached and studied by many researchers in different contexts. The three dimensions are analyzed below:

Affective Commitment

For several authors, the term commitment has been a synonym of an affective orientation toward the organization. Kanter (1968), for example, defined what she called "cohesion commitment" as the attachment of an individual's fund of affectivity and emotion to the group, supported by renunciation and communion. Likewise, Buchanan (1974) described commitment as a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of the organization, to one's role in relation to this and attachment to the organization for its own sake, apart from its strictly instrumental value (p 553). Cook and Wall (1980) also approached commitment as a person's affective reactions to his/her employing organization.

Porter and his associates described commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday, et al., 1979; Porter, et al., 1974). Committed employees strongly believe and accept the organization's goals and values, they are willing to exert considerable efforts on behalf of the organization and have a strong desire to remain in the organization (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982, p 27). Therefore affective commitment can be defined as the employee's positive emotional attachment to the organization. In developing this concept, Meyer and Allen drew largely on Mowday, et al. (1982) concept of commitment. As defined by Allen and Meyer (1990), affective commitment is "an affective or emotional attachment to the organization such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in the organization". Meta-analyses demonstrate that employees high in affective commitment are more likely to expend extra time and energy in their work, less likely to leave their positions voluntarily, and less likely to suffer from burnout, job stress, and job dissatisfaction (Riketta & Van Dick, 2005; Meyer, et al., 2002).

This employee commits to the organization because **he/she "wants to"** (Meyer, et al., 1990).

Continuance Commitment

The individual commits to the organization because he/she perceives high costs of losing organizational membership (Becker's 1960 "side bet theory"), including economic costs (such as pension accruals) and social costs (friendship ties with co-workers) that would incur. Attachment to an organization is seen as a state that can arise not necessarily through some crucial act on the part of the employee but rather through the accumulation of a series of relatively small side bets. Kanter (1968) also suggested that investment was an important mechanism for producing member continuance. To the extent that such investments are seen as irreversible, they provide employees with a personal stake in the fate of the organization, as well as making leaving costly. Continuance commitment's equivalent for Stebbins (1970) was the awareness of the impossibility of choosing a different social identity because of the immense penalties involved in making the switch. Still others have used the term "calculative" to describe commitment based on a consideration of the costs and benefits associated with organizational membership that is unrelated to affect (Etzioni, 1975; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

Meyer and Allen (1991) suggested that the recognition of the costs associated with leaving the organization is a conscious psychological state that is shaped by environmental conditions (e.g. the existence of side bets) and has implications for behavior (e.g. continued employment with the organization). Continuance commitment describes an awareness of the costs ascribed to leaving an organization (Meyer and Allen 1997).

McGee and Ford (1987) found that the continuance commitment scale consists of two meaningful subscales (dimensions). The first dimension concerns the availability of job alternatives and the second is about personal sacrifice (cost of leaving). As McGee and Ford (1987) mention, some people may remain with an organization simply because they perceive no alternatives, but "this reflects a quite different form of "commitment" than either the affective or side-bet view". The second subscale of continuance commitment (perceived high sacrifice in case of leaving), appears to be similar with the side-bet view of commitment, as described originally by Becker (1960). Allen & Meyer (1990) came up with evidence supporting that the three dimensions of organizational commitment may not be completely independent.

However, it is generally accepted that an employee driven by continuance commitment remains a member of the organization because **he/she "has to".**

Normative Commitment

Finally, a less common approach has been to view commitment as an obligation to remain with the organization. Marsh and Mannari (1977) for example, described the employee with "lifetime commitment" as one who considers it morally right to stay in the company, regardless of how much status enhancement or satisfaction the firm gives him/her over the years. In a similar vein, commitment has been defined as the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests and suggested that individuals exhibit these behaviors solely because they believe it is the right and moral thing to do (Wiener, 1982). The individual commits to and remains with an organization because of feelings of obligation. These feelings may derive from many sources. For example, the organization may have invested resources in training an employee who then feels a 'moral' obligation to put forth effort on the job and stay with the organization to

- 11 -

'repay the debt.' It may also reflect an internalized norm, developed before the person joins the organization through family or other socialization processes, that one should be loyal to one's organization (Meyer, et al., 2002).

Among the components of the Meyer and Allen's three-component model of organizational commitment, normative commitment has received the least attention (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Although theoretically distinct from affective commitment (desire) and continuance commitment (cost-avoidance, low alternatives), it is sometimes dismissed as a redundant construct that bears many similarities to affective commitment and does not explain work behaviors beyond other components. Normative commitment has been found to correlate strongly with affective commitment and to share many of the same antecedents and consequences (Meyer, et al., 2002). As a result, some authors have questioned the value of retaining normative commitment as a distinct component (e.g., Jaros, (1997); Ko, et al., (1997)) and suggest that there may be a need for some re-conceptualization. Cohen (2007) proposed a two dimensional model proposing that normative commitment should be considered a pre-entry commitment propensity rather than a component of commitment. Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) agree that normative commitment could be a precursor of affective commitment, however they suggest that it might be premature to eliminate normative commitment as an influence throughout an individual's career.

The employee stays with the organization because **he/she "ought to"**(Meyer and Allen, 1991).

2.1.2 Measures of organizational commitment

Interest in organizational commitment has led to the development of several instruments to measure the construct. There has been repeated interest since the early 1980s for clarification of the definition and measurement of organizational commitment (McGee and Ford, 1987; Meyer & Allen, 1984; Mowday, et al., 1982); The diversity of perspectives regarding the most appropriate definition of organizational commitment has led to some disagreement about how the construct should be measured (Kacmar, et al., 1999). Morrow (1983) noted that more than 25 concepts and measures were generated since 1956 related to commitment, and Sutton

and Harrison, (1993) called for a moratorium on developing additional measures until existing ones could be further analyzed and tested.

An assortment of scales exists, that have been designed to measure organizational commitment. The major instruments are presented in this section:

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ).

Porter and his colleagues developed the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) to measure the commitment construct (Mowday, et al., 1979). This 15-item scale has been used extensively in research and has acceptable psychometric properties (Allen & Meyer, 1990). It was developed based on the following definition of commitment: "(1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization…" (Mowday, et al., 1979). In practice, however, most researchers used this tool as a one-dimensional instrument (Cohen, 2007). It measures affective rather than normative or continuance commitment, by asking the respondents to refer to their identification with and involvement in a particular organization.

Organizational Commitment Scale

Balfour and Wechsler (1996) developed the OCS, which was designed to measure three components of organizational commitment: identification, exchange, and affiliation. It had nine items leading to the three different subcomponents of commitment mentioned above.

O' Reilly and Chatman (1986) developed a multi-dimensional model, where commitment may be predicted by three independent factors: (a) compliance or instrumental involvement for specific, extrinsic rewards; (b) identification or involvement based on a desire for affiliation; and(c) internalization or involvement predicated on the congruence between individual and organizational values. Researchers that compared and contrasted existing measures criticized O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) measure, suggesting that the identification and internalization components appear to be tapping similar constructs, contributing nothing new to the existing research (Vanderberg, et al., 1994), while the compliance dimension does not reflect psychological attachment to the organization (Cohen, 2007; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Their measure was followed by only few

researchers, leaving ground to the Allen and Meyer's measure to become dominant in organizational commitment research.

The Three Component Model of Organizational Commitment

Allen and Meyer (1990) developed a multidimensional model, that drew on the early works of Porter, et al. (1974) and conceptualized organizational commitment in terms of three dimensions: affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Each dimension was measured using of 8 items (24 items in total).

In 1993 Meyer et al, revised their original 24 item measure, and developed a shorter version, consisting of 18 items, that has been used in the present study. In several studies cited in Allen and Meyer (1996), both measures have been tested. In three of the studies, (Allen and Lee, 1993; Finegan, 1994; Meyer, et al., 1993), the six-item versions have been used. All others used the original eight-item scales. The internal consistency of the measures has been estimated using coefficient alpha. Reliabilities associated with each sample are shown in Appendix 5.1, as found in (Allen & Meyer, 1996), and with very few exceptions, all reliability estimates exceed .70.

Meyer and Allen and their colleagues were aware of some of the problems associated with the three scales. Throughout the years, some changes in the scales were proposed and tested. For example, a shorter 6-item version of the three scales was advanced, a revised normative commitment scale was also proposed, and a two-dimensional continuance commitment scale was also suggested (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Subsequently, revisions in the continuance commitment scale were advanced (Powell and Meyer, 2004; Cohen, 2007). While these changes did improve some of the psychometric properties of the scales, they posed a dilemma for researchers as to which version of the scales to use.

2.1.3 Antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment

There have been numerous studies in the past decades determining the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment e.g. (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Bateman and Strasser, 1983; Clugston, 2000; DeConinck and Bachmann, 1994; DeCotiis and Summers, 1987; Kacmar, et al., 1999; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Michaels, 1994; Mottaz, 1988; Williams and Hazer, 1986).

Antecedents of organizational commitment

What predicts organizational commitment has been an important research concern in the field of human resource development (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Sheldon (1971), for example, found that commitment was related to social involvement with colleagues and to such personal investments as length of organizational service, age, and hierarchical position.

Meyer et al (2002) in their meta-analysis found that personal characteristics, in particular age and tenure correlated positively, albeit weakly with all three components of organizational commitment, and concluded that demographic variables play a relatively minor role in the development of organizational commitment. In the category of individual differences, external locus of control correlated negatively with affective commitment while task self-efficacy correlated with it positively but weakly. As far as the work experiences are concerned, role ambiguity, role conflict, and perceived organizational support correlated strongly with affective, continuance and normative commitment. The availability of alternatives correlated most strongly with continuance commitment as expected, however correlations involving general measures of investments were stronger with affective and normative commitment.

Emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment have also been recognized as antecedents of employee commitment by a large number of researchers (see sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2).

Correlates of organizational commitment

Job satisfaction, job involvement and occupational commitment variables are considered correlates because there is no consensus concerning their causal ordering (Meyer, et al., 2002). Motivation, stress, and union commitment have also been considered correlates of commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Consequences of organizational commitment

The interest of researchers and practitioners in employee commitment derives from its established links to desirable work outcomes. In particular, studies have consistently reported organizational commitment to be to be negatively associated with withdrawal cognition, turnover intentions and actual turnover (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Allen and Meyer, 1996; Griffeth, et al., 2000; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer, et al., 2002; Mowday, et al., 1982; Tett and Meyer, 1993), resulting to employees that

are considered more likely to remain with the organization and work towards the achievement of organizational goals. Affective commitment has strong positive correlation with attendance, job performance and organizational citizenship behavior, followed by normative commitment, while continuance commitment is unrelated or even negatively related to those desired outcomes (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer, et al., 2002; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Meyer, et al., 1993; Meyer, et al., 1989).

Meyer and Allen (1997) suggested that there is an indiscernible relationship between continuance commitment and absenteeism. Moreover, organizational commitment has been shown to have a significant impact on employee performance and effectiveness (Cohen, 1991; Fletcher and Williams, 1996; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Meyer et al. (2002) also suggested that affective commitment is correlated negatively with stress and work-family conflict, while continuance commitment correlates positively with both.

2.2 Emotional Intelligence

2.2.1 Theoretical models of emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence can be traced back to Darwin's early work mentioning the importance of emotional expressions for adaptation and survival. In the 1920's the term social intelligence was used by Thorndike to describe the skill of understanding and managing people (Landy, 2005). Thorndike proposed that humans possess several types of intelligence, one form being called social intelligence, or the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls, and to act wisely in human relations (Thorndike, 1920). Salovey & Mayer (1990) point out that much of this early emotional intelligence literature focused on the manipulation of others, often ignoring more benign elements of human relations, thus illustrating lack of consideration for one's own emotions in development of a viable emotional intelligence construct (p.187).

David Wechsler (1940), the originator of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS) intelligence tests, referred to both non-intellective and intellective elements of intelligence. The non-intellective elements, which included affective, personal, and social factors, he later hypothesized were essential for predicting one's ability to succeed in life (Wechsler, 1940).

An embryonic form of emotional intelligence appears in Gardner (1983) where he proposes a theory of multiple intelligences which included intrapersonal intelligence (the examination and knowledge of one's own feelings) and interpersonal intelligence (the identification of the moods, intentions and desires of others) aptitudes (Myers, 1988). These intelligences were considered to be of equal importance as the type of intelligence typically measured by I.Q. tests (Gardner , 1983).

The term in its current context appeared later by several authors (Greenspan, 1989), (Leuner, 1966) and in the unpublished doctoral thesis of Payne(1985). It was however in 1990, that Salovey and Mayer (1990) published an article that is generally regarded as the wellspring of thought in this topic (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005). In this article, as well as in a second, less known scholarly article published the same year by Mayer, DiPaolo and Salovey (1990), where they presented the first formal model of emotional intelligence, identifying three mental processes that involve emotional

information: (a) appraising and expressing emotions in the self and others, (b) regulating emotion in the self and others, and (c) using emotions in adaptive ways (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) (see appendix 2.1). Their original model included variables that belonged traditionally in areas outside intelligence such as flexibility and motivation (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

They proposed the term "emotional intelligence" to represent the ability to deal with emotions. They defined emotional intelligence as" the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

They tried to scientifically measure the difference between people's ability of emotions. They concluded that some people were better than others at things like identifying their own emotions, identifying the feelings of others and solving problems involving emotional issues (Cherniss, 1998; Petrides and Furnham, 2000).

Goleman (1995) adopted Salovey and Mayer's definition, and proposed that emotional intelligence involves competencies that can be categorized as self-awareness, managing emotions, motivating oneself, empathy, and handling relationships. In 1995, he published his bestseller "Emotional Intelligence: why it can matter more than IQ" and brought intelligence to the forefront of public attention (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005). Goleman suggests that emotional intelligence should predict success in many life tasks, noting that: "At best, IQ contributes about 20% to the factors that determine life success, which leaves 80% to the other factors." (Goleman, 1995). These strong claims are probably the main reason for the popular excitement surrounding emotional intelligence ever since (Mayer, et al., 2000) (p. 34).

Two years later, in 1997, Reuven Bar-On, the originator of the term "emotion quotient", defined emotional intelligence as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (p. 14). His model of non-cognitive intelligences identified five broad areas of skills or competencies from the personality domain, each containing certain more specific skills:

(a) intrapersonal skills (emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualization and independence),

(b) interpersonal skills (empathy, interpersonal relationship, social responsibility)

(c) adaptation (problem solving, reality testing, flexibility)

(d) stress management (stress tolerance, impulse control)

(e) general mood (happiness, optimism) (Bar-On, 1997).

He believes that EQ is a predictor of success, relating to "the potential to succeed rather than success itself". He suggests that EQ along with IQ may provide a more balanced picture of a person's general intelligence (Bar-On, 1997a)(p. 19).

In the meantime, Mayer and Salovey (1997) refined their definition of emotional intelligence, and argued that it was a real intelligence. In contrast to the models of Goleman and Bar-On, that expanded the meaning of emotional intelligence by mixing in non-ability traits, Mayer and Salovey (1993, 1997) decided to constrain emotional intelligence to a mental ability and separate it from personality traits (warmth, outgoingness, persistence etc.). They recognized the important contribution of personality traits to a person's behavior, yet they considered better to address them directly as distinct from emotional intelligence (Mayer, et al., 2000).

They gave the following widely accepted definition of emotional intelligence:

"Emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth." (see Appendix 2.2).

Wong & Law (2002) based on the Salovey and Mayer's (1997) conceptualization, renamed the four dimensions of the model in Self Emotional Awareness [SEA], Others' Emotional Awareness [OEA], Regulation of Emotion [ROE], and Use of Emotion [UOE]:

Self-emotional appraisal – SEA: Appraisal and expression of emotion in the self. This relates to the individual's ability to understand their deep emotions and be able to express these emotions naturally. People who have great ability in this area will sense and acknowledge their emotions well before most people.

Others' emotional appraisal – OEA: Appraisal and recognition of emotion in others. This relates to peoples' ability to perceive and understand the emotions of those people around them. People who are high in this ability will be much more sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others as well as reading their minds.

Regulation of emotion – ROE: Regulation of emotion in the self. This relates to the ability of people to regulate their emotions, which will enable a more rapid recovery from psychological distress.

Use of emotion – UOE: Use of emotion to facilitate performance. This relates to the ability of individuals to make use of their emotions by directing them towards constructive activities and personal performance. (Wong and Law, 2002, p. 246).

A result of the term's rapidly increasing popularity, is the development of many other alternative conceptualizations of emotional intelligence both in the scientific (Davies, et al., 1998; Mehrabian, 2000; Newsome, et al., 2000; Parker, et al., 2001; Petrides and Furnham, 2001 as well as the popular literature (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997; Hein, 1997; Higgs and Dulewicz, 1999; Steiner, 1997).

Ability versus mixed theoretical models of emotional intelligence

On the basis of the above described theoretical development there is a distinction between ability and mixed models of emotional intelligence (Mayer, et al., 2000). The former belongs within the realm of cognitive ability, whereas the latter belongs more within the realm of personality (Petrides, 2011). Ability models regard emotional intelligence as a pure form of mental ability and thus as a pure intelligence. Currently, the only ability model of emotional intelligence is that proposed by Salovey and Mayer (1990; 1997).

In contrast, the mixed models of emotional intelligence combine mental ability with personality characteristics such as optimism and well-being (Mayer, 1999). Mixed models of emotional intelligence conceptualize EI as a combination of cognitive, motivational, and affective constructs.

Bar-On's (1997) theoretical model combines characteristics that can be considered mental abilities (e.g. emotional self-awareness) with non-ability traits (e.g. personal independence, self-regard, mood). This theoretical expansion makes his work a mixed model.

Goleman's (1995) model is also mixed, including various personality dispositions (e.g. stifling impulsiveness and entering flow states) (p.43). Goleman recognized that his model was moving to something broader than the meanings of "emotional" and "intelligence" would suggest. He actually went so far as to note that, "There is an old fashioned word for the body of skills that emotional intelligence represents: character." (Goleman, 1995, p. 285).

Both ability and mixed models can be useful in the study of human effectiveness and success in life (Mayer, et al., 2000). However, there is much controversy as far as the reliability and validity of the measures used to assess the construct of EI. The distinction between ability and mixed theoretical models of EI, is unrelated to the distinction between ability EI and trait EI, which is predicated on the method used to measure the construct (Petrides, 2011).

2.2.2 Measures of emotional intelligence

<u>Ability versus trait measures</u>

Since the mid-1990s, emotional intelligence has been extensively studied resulting to a large variety of measurement instruments available for assessing it. The process of test construction, however, did not consider the fundamental psychometric distinction between measures of typical and maximum performance (Hofstee, 2001). Consequently, two different types of measurement have been concurrently developed: maximum performance (Mayer et al, 1999) and self-report measures (Schutte, et al., 1998).

In performance-based emotional intelligence tests, people are presented with emotion-based problem-solving items and the quality of their answers is evaluated using predetermined criteria (Freudenthaler & Neubauer, 2005); (Mayer, et al., 2002). In self-report EI measures, individuals are asked to report their own level of emotional intelligence, as respondents are presented with descriptive statements and indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statements (Brackett, et al., 2006; Perez, et al., 2005; Schutte, et al., 1998; Wong and Law, 2002).

The way in which individual differences variables are measured has a direct effect on their operationalization. Based on this fact, Petrides and Furnham (2000; 2001) differentiate between ability emotional intelligence (or cognitive-emotional ability) and trait emotional intelligence (or emotional self-efficacy).

The most appropriate method of measuring EI is currently an area of controversy. Both trait and ability measures receive a lot of critique, resulting to considerable confusion. Extensive research work has been produced during the last decades on the subject, with contradictory results.

Self-report measures have been reported to reflect perceived rather than actual performance levels. Previous research has shown that there are only small correlations between perceived estimates of ability and actual abilities (Davies, et al., 1998; Paulhus, et al., 1998). For instance, Paulhus et al. (1998) found rather low correlations between self-reports of intelligence and IQ scores (.20-.25), and Brackett et al. (2006) found that about 80% of people believe that they are among the 50% most emotionally intelligent people. Self-perceptions of EI can be inaccurate, since they are "vulnerable to the range of response sets and social desirability factors afflicting self-report measures" (Matthews, et al., 2004). In addition to that, it has been noted that self-report (trait) emotional intelligence presents considerable overlap with the Giant Three and the Big Five personality models (Eysenck, 1994) as well as with narrower "midlevel" constructs such as empathy, self-esteem, and optimism (Brackett and Mayer, 2003; Matthews, et al., 2004).

Another problem is that self-report EI measures can be easily faked good for reasons of deception or impression management (Day and Caroll, 2007; Grubb and McDaniel, 2008; Matthews, et al., 2004). Moreover, those who are less competent often make self-inflated self-assessments of ability (Kruger & Dunning, 1999).

On the other hand, ability measures have to tackle the problem of inherent subjectivity of emotional experience (Spain, et al., 2000). Ability tests of EI cannot be objectively scored, because, in most cases there is no clear rationale for justifying the correct answer to an item. Three different methods of scoring have been employed: expert scoring, target judgment, and group consensus (Matthews, et al., 2004) but without marked success (Matthews, et al., 2002).

Since the construct of emotional intelligence is relatively new, the development of newer methods is continuous. There are, however, some constructs which are well based and have been thoroughly tested:

a. **Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS)**

Based on the ability model, Mayer and Salovey (1997) began testing the validity of their four branch model of emotional intelligence with the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). The MEIS includes 402 items and has 12 subtests that assess 4 subscales: (1) Perception, (2) Assimilation, (3) Understanding and (4) Managing Emotions (Mayer, et al., 2000). The MEIS was a very lengthy test that also had some problems with scoring procedures and low reliability of certain subscales (Conte, 2005).

b. **Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)**

Based on the original measurement, Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) developed the MSCEIT, which is an update of the MEIS.

c. **Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i)**.

Bar-On (1997) introduced the Bar-On EQ instrument that was one of the first measures of emotional intelligence that used the term "Emotional Quotient-EQ". It is a self-report measure that contains 133 items and yields a Total EQ (Total Emotional Quotient) score as well as scores for five composite scales, corresponding to the 5 main components of the Bar-On model (Bar-On, 2000). EQ-I demonstrates adequate reliability and some validity evidence but it is lacking in discriminant validity evidence (Conte, 2005).

d. **Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI)**

The ECI was developed by Daniel Goleman, based on the earlier measure (Self-Assessment Questionnaire) of Boyatzis (1994). The ECI has 110 items that assess 20 emotional competencies organized in 4 clusters: (1) Self-awareness, (2) Social awareness, (3) Self-management, and (4) Social skills (Boyatzis, et al., 2000); (Goleman, 1995); (Sala, 2002). The Emotional Competency Inventory also includes multi-rate (360 degree) techniques that provide self, peer and supervisor ratings on a series of behavioural indicators of emotional intelligence.

e. **Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS)**

Developed by Schutte et al. (1998), it consists of 33 items, responded to on a 5-point Likert scale. It has been exclusively based on the three dimensions of the early

Salovey and Mayer (1990) model, therefore providing incomplete coverage of the trait emotional intelligence. Austin et al. (2004) added 8 items into the original 33-item scale and found the modified 41-item version EIS had a more satisfactory psychometric index. Factor analysis showed that the modified scale had a three-factor structure, which included regulation of emotion, utilisation of emotion, and appraisal of emotion.

f.   Wong and Law Emotional intelligence Scale (WLEIS)

The WLEIS was designed by (Wong & Law, 2002) as a short measure of EI for use in organizational research. It is based on Davies et al's (1998) four-dimensional definition of emotional intelligence. Their research showed the strong convergence with previous emotional intelligence measures such as the Trait Meta-Mood and the EQ-i. It comprises 16-items, responded to a 7-point Likert scale and measures four dimensions: (1) self-emotion appraisal (SEA), (2) others' emotion appraisal (OEA), (3) use of emotion (UOE) and (4) regulation of emotion (ROE). Wong & Law (2002) report good internal consistency reliability (α=.78) and validity (predictive of job performance and satisfaction).

Besides the major emotional intelligence measures mentioned above, many more ability and trait emotional intelligence measures have been developed in the last two decades, such as:

TMMS – Trait Meta Mood Scale (Salovey, et al., 1995)

EARS – Emotional Accuracy Research Scale (Mayer & Geher, 1996)

EISC – Emotional Intelligence Scale for Children (Sullivan, 1999)

EISRS – Emotional Intelligence Self-Regulation Scale (Martinez-Pons, 2000)

DHEIQ – Dulewicz and Higgs Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2001)

TEIQue – Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (Petrides, 2001)

TEII – Tapia Emotional Intelligence Inventory (Tapia, 2001)

WEIP-3 – Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (Jordan , et al., 2002)

FNEIPT – Freudenthaler and Neubauer Emotional Intelligence Performance Test (Freudenthaler and Neubauer, 2003)

GEIS – Greek Emotional Intelligence Scale ((Tsaousis, 2008)

The popularization of emotional intelligence was followed by publications questioning the validity of the concept. Some authors suggest that emotional intelligence, or at least some approaches to and/or measures of it, are simply the reconceptualization of other former constructs, such as, Psychological Well-Being (Ryff, 1989), Satisfaction with Life (Diener, 1984), or the positive poles of the Big-5 personality trait dimensions (Brackett and Mayer, 2003; McRae, 2000). Locke (2005) claimed that emotional intelligence was defined too broadly to ever be adequately tested. Matthews, Zeidner and Roberts (2002) suggested that the concept of emotional intelligence has been redefined by many researchers, resulting to a large number of different conceptualizations of it. Matthews et al. (2002) concluded that there is no supporting evidence of a unitary EI "in brain function, in basic information processing, in high-level interactions of person-environment interaction, or by reconceptualizing existing personality traits" (p.539). Landy (2005) suggested that emotional intelligence, can be considered as a scientific theory, with established validity and psychometric properties, only if it can be supported by scientific data, available to all. His critique is addressed to the commercial wing of emotional intelligence, which "claims to be sitting on a mound or revolutionary (though proprietary) data (Landy, 2005). Conte (2005) discusses issues concerning the measurement of emotional intelligence, suggesting that future researchers should proceed with caution, until more data are forthcoming to establish the bona fides of the various measures that have been developed to date.

Behind all these suggestions there is one common perspective, namely that people with a high level of emotional intelligence must have more positive traits, must be happier, and must be more successful in life than others (Chamorro-Premuzic, et al., 2007; Martinez-Pons, 1997). In fact, several studies have pointed out that higher level of emotional intelligence correlates with more adaptive ways of coping (Salovey, et al., 1999) (Salovey, et al., 2002), contributes to the achievement of better academic results (Parker, et al., 2004; Van der Zee, et al., 2002), is associated with better interpersonal relations (Mayer, et al., 1999), and is a protective factor in both physical and mental health (Austin, et al., 2005; Tsaousis and Nikolaou, 2005).

2.3 Psychological empowerment

2.3.1 Theoretical models of psychological empowerment

The concept of employee empowerment is far from new. It was introduced to the management literature over forty years ago by Kanter (1977) in his pioneering work on organizational change, affirmative action, and the quality of work life (Maynard, et al., 2012). Central to Kanter's (1977; 1993) theory are the lines of power and opportunity, evolving from formal and informal systems, that may enable employees to accomplish their work in meaningful ways (Laschinger & Finegan , 2005).

Employee empowerment has two major conceptualizations: structural empowerment and psychological empowerment.

Structural empowerment is based on the job design and job characteristics research by (Hackman and Oldham, 1976; Hackman and Oldham, 1980). It regards empowerment as a set of structures, policies and practices designed to decentralize power by the transition of authority and responsibility from upper management to employees (Spreitzer, 2008).

Psychological empowerment builds upon Bandura's (1977; 1982) work on self-efficacy. It focuses on the employees' perceptions or cognitive states of empowerment instead of the actual transition of authority and responsibility (Maynard, et al., 2012).

Both conceptualizations have generated considerable research interest. Menon (2001) attempted an integration of the two perspectives, suggesting that the psychological experience of power underlies feelings of empowerment. He proposed a multifaceted construct, comprising three dimensions of "psychological enabling": (a) perceived control, (b) competence, and (c) goal internalization (Menon, 2001). Based on Menon's research Mathieu et al. (2006) suggested that structural empowerment is a necessary, but not sufficient antecedent to psychological empowerment, as cited in Maynard et al. (2012). Laschinger et al. (2001) also integrated structural and psychological empowerment into an expanded model of empowerment (see appendix 4.1) based on Kanter's (1997; 1993) and Spreitzer's (1995) models.

This study focuses on psychological empowerment. Conger and Kanungo (1988) were the first to introduce a psychological perspective on empowerment. They disagreed with scholars who assumed that empowerment means simply delegating or sharing power with subordinates, requiring no further conceptual analysis beyond the power concept. They proposed that empowerment should be viewed as an enabling rather than a delegating process.

They defined empowerment as a:

'...process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information'.

This empowering experience is asserted by Conger and Kanungo (1988, p. 476) to increase "both initiation and persistence of subordinates' task behaviour." Building on this definition, Conger and Kanungo constructed a model of organizational conditions, managerial strategies, and types of information that produce empowerment and its behavioral effects (see appendix 4.2).

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) extended Conger and Kanungo's (1988) model and identified four dimensions of task cognitions, that affect intrinsic task motivation - namely, (a) choice (i.e. the degree to which individuals perceive that they have choice in initiating and regulating actions, [also called self-determination]), (b) meaningfulness (i.e. the perceived value of the task or goal), (c) competence (i.e. self-efficacy) and (d) impact (i.e. the degree to which an individual can influence outcomes at work). They developed a cognitive model that focuses on intra-personal cognitive processes, and resembles the social-learning sequence of stimulus, organism, behavior, and consequences (S-O-B-C) (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990) (see appendix 4.3)

Spreitzer (1995b) refined further the four cognitions of Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) model, developed and empirically validated a multidimensional measure to assess the individual level of psychological empowerment in the workplace. Spreitzer (1995b) defined psychological empowerment as an intrinsic task motivation reflecting a sense of control over one's work and an active orientation to

one's work role, manifested in four cognitions: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact (see appendix 4.4)

Meaning

Applied to the work context, meaning is defined as 'the value of a work goal or purpose, judged in relation to an individual's own id' (May, et al., 2004). Meaning results from the feeling that job tasks are valuable and make a difference. It involves a fit between one's work role and one's values, beliefs, and behaviors (Brief and Nord, 1990, cited in Spreitzer 1995). People are self-expressive and creative and therefore they will seek out work roles that allow them to behave in ways that express their self-concepts. Work roles and activities that are aligned with individuals' self-concepts should be associated with more meaningful work experiences, allowing employees to derive a greater sense of meaning from their work (Avolio , et al., 2004). The restoration of meaning in work is seen as a method to foster an employee's motivation and attachment to work, thus resulting in commitment (May, et al., 2004; Olivier and Rothmann, 2007).

Competence

Competence or self-efficacy is the individual's belief in his or her skills and abilities necessary to perform activities with skill (Gist, 1987, cited in Spreitzer 1995). According to Ryan and Deci (2001), research has shown that feeling competent and confident with respect to valued goals is associated with enhanced intrinsic motivation and well-being. Without a sense of confidence in their abilities, individuals will feel inadequate and therefore less empowered (Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

Self determination

Self-determination (directly linked to Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) *choice* dimension) reflects the individual's sense of autonomy or control over immediate work behaviors and processes (Maynard, et al., 2012). Self-endorsed goals will enhance employees' well-being, while heteronomous goals, even when introduced efficaciously, will not (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Goals that are selected through self-determination are well-internalized and autonomous. According to Ryan et al. (2008), one cannot be following one's true self without being autonomous in initiating and regulating action.

Impact

Impact implies organizational involvement and reflects whether individuals feel that they are making a difference in their organization or have influence in operating outcomes (Spreitzer, et al., 1997). Impact has been studied under a variety of different labels, including locus of control (Rotter, 1966) and learned helplessness (Abramson, et al., 1978). Within the Hackman and Oldham (1980) model of job redesign, impact is analogous to knowledge of results (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Impact implies a sense of progression towards a goal and individuals' belief that their actions are making a difference in their organizations, which contributes to employee empowerment (Spreitzer, et al., 1997).

The four dimensions of psychological empowerment are key elements of the empowerment process, representing different facets of the construct. Spreitzer, Kizilos and Nason (1997) argue that the four dimensions are being combined to form an overall "gestalt" of empowerment, that exists along a continuum. Psychological empowerment is highest when all four dimensions are high (Spreitzer, 1995).

However, some researchers called into question the idea of a unitary psychological empowerment construct and suggested that three of the four dimensions are more appropriately conceptualized as antecedents (i.e. competence) or outcomes (i.e. impact or meaning) of psychological empowerment (Liden and Tewksbury, 1995, cited in Spreitzer et al. 1997).

Seibert et al. (2011) investigated this issue by conducting a second-order confirmatory factor analysis, examining discriminant validity among the four sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment, and assessing the relative strength of the unitary psychological empowerment construct relative to the four sub-dimensions. They found support for a higher level latent empowerment construct made up of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. They concluded that, across the individual –level psychological empowerment literature, there is no unique variance explained by the sub-dimensions as compared to a composite measure (Maynard, et al., 2012).

2.3.2 Measures of psychological empowerment

Spreitzer (1995) was the first to develop a multidimensional instrument to assess psychological empowerment. Her formulation has proved seminal to research

on psychological empowerment (Seibert , et al., 2011), yet still after seventeen years it remains the main instrument used by researchers.

The instrument is based on the work of Thomas and Velthouse (1990), filtered through related interdisciplinary literatures (psychology, sociology, religion), that assisted Spreitzer identify shared understandings, and to synthesize them into a few dimensions of empowerment. Additionally, she collected extensive interview data to provide insights into personal conceptualizations of empowerment. The four dimensions that emerged were: (1) meaning, (2) competence, (3) self-determination, and (4) impact.

Spreitzer' s 12-item instrument consists of three items assessing each dimension of empowerment. The scale provided responses in a range from 1 "strongly disagree" to 7 "strongly agree". The first dimension of empowerment, "meaning", is defined by Thomas and Velthouse (1990, p. 668) as "the value of a work goal or purpose, judged in relation to an individual's own ideals or standards". The second dimension, "competence", is concerned with "an individual's belief in his or her capacity to perform activities with skill" (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1443). The third dimension, "self-determination", focuses on an individual's sense of having a choice in initiating and regulating actions (Deci, et al., 1989).The fourth dimension, "impact", refers to the degree to which an individual can influence outcomes at work (Ashforth, 1989). Spreitzer (1992; 1995) has reported evidence supporting the convergent and discriminant validity of the component measures (dimensions) of empowerment, and provided support for a higher order construct composed of the four dimensions. Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for the overall empowerment construct ranged from 0.62 to 0.72 ((Spreitzer, 1995). Examination of the empowerment gestalt via confirmatory factor analysis showed that the four dimensions of empowerment were first order factors. Second order confirmatory factor analysis provided empirical justification for creation of the overall empowerment scale using the four component dimensions. (Spreitzer, 1992; 1995).

Other researchers have also developed measures, which did not manage to be as successful. Menon (2001) developed an empowerment scale, integrating many of the existing thinking on the construct. His 9-item instrument consists of three items assessing each of the three dimensions: goal internalization, perceived control and perceived competence. The dimension of perceived control corresponds to Thomas

and Velthouse' s (1990) and Spreitzer' s (1995) impact and self-determination aspects, encompassing elements from the structuralist approach as well. The dimension of perceived competence has parallels in the Conger and Kanungo's, (1988), Spreitzer's (1995) and Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) models. Finally, the dimension of goal internalization is a representation of the energizing aspect of empowerment, and a "reflection of the commitment to organizational objectives and goals that transformational leaders want to engender in their employees" (Menon, 2001). The alpha reliabilities of the three subscales are: goal internalization (.88), perceived control (.83) and perceived competence (.80) ((Menon, 2001).

Wang and Zhang (2009) based on the theoretical model of Zimmerman (1995) (see appendix 4.5) developed a 44-item scale for the measurement of teachers' psychological empowerment. The scale was composed of three subscales, including the subscale of psychological empowerment feeling, psychological empowerment skill, and psychological empowerment behavior, with each subscale encompassing their own factors. Specifically, the psychological empowerment feeling subscale includes four factors: (1) self-efficacy, (2) self-determination, (3) impact, and (4) status. The psychological empowerment skill subscale includes two factors: (1) decision-making skills and (2) communication skills. The psychological empowerment behavior subscale includes two factors: (1) influencing teaching and (2) decision-making participation. The coefficient alpha for the psychological empowerment scale was .80. The coefficient alpha coefficients of the three subscales were .88, .76, and .71 respectively (Wang & Zhang, 2009).

However as it can be seen in Appendix 4.6 the majority of the studies conducted at the individual level of psychological empowerment to date have used the instrument developed by Spreitzer (Maynard, et al., 2012).

CHAPTER 3

THE RESEARCH MODEL AND

THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

CHAPTER 3 THE RESEARCH MODEL AND THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

3.1 Research model

The aim of this study is to examine the impact of emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment on affective and continuance commitment in the banking sector. Specifically, the employees' perception of emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment is identified and the respective impact on affective and continuance commitment assessed. The study focuses on the total sum of emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment according to employees' perceptions. In the studied relationship emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment are the independent variables while affective commitment and continuance commitment are the dependent variables.

The main objective of this research is to increase the apprehension of employees' attitudes regarding the influence of emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment on organizational commitment (see section 1.2).

The above are reflected in this study's research model (see Figure 1). More specifically Figure 1 suggests that there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and affective organizational commitment while there is a negative relationship between emotional intelligence and continuance commitment. It also suggests that there is a positive relationship between psychological empowerment and affective commitment and a negative relationship between psychological empowerment and continuance commitment. Next the research hypotheses are discussed.

FIGURE 1

The link between Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Empowerment and
Organizational Commitment

```
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│ CONTROL VARIABLES               │
│   • Gender                      │
│   • Age                         │
│   • Marital status              │
│   • Education                   │
│   • Job description             │
│   • Job tenure                  │
│   • Income                      │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
```

```
┌──────────────────────────┐          ┌──────────────────────────┐
│ INDEPENDENT VARIABLES    │          │ DEPENDENT VARIABLES      │
└──────────────────────────┘          └──────────────────────────┘
```

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

```
┌──────────────────────────┐          ┌──────────────────────────┐
│ EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE   │   H₁ +   │                          │
│ SEA Self emotional       │─────────▶│  AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT    │
│     appraisal            │          │                          │
│ OEA Others emotional     │   H₂ -   │                          │
│     appraisal            │          │                          │
│ ROE-Regulation of emotion│          └──────────────────────────┘
│ UOE Use of emotions      │
└──────────────────────────┘

┌──────────────────────────┐   H₃ +
│ PSYCHOLOGICAL            │          ┌──────────────────────────┐
│ EMPOWERMENT             │          │                          │
│ Meaning                 │─────────▶│ CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT   │
│ Competence              │          │                          │
│ Self determination      │   H₄ -   │                          │
│ Impact                  │          └──────────────────────────┘
└──────────────────────────┘
```

$H_1{}^+$ $H_2{}^-$ $H_3{}^+$ $H_4{}^-$

- 34 -
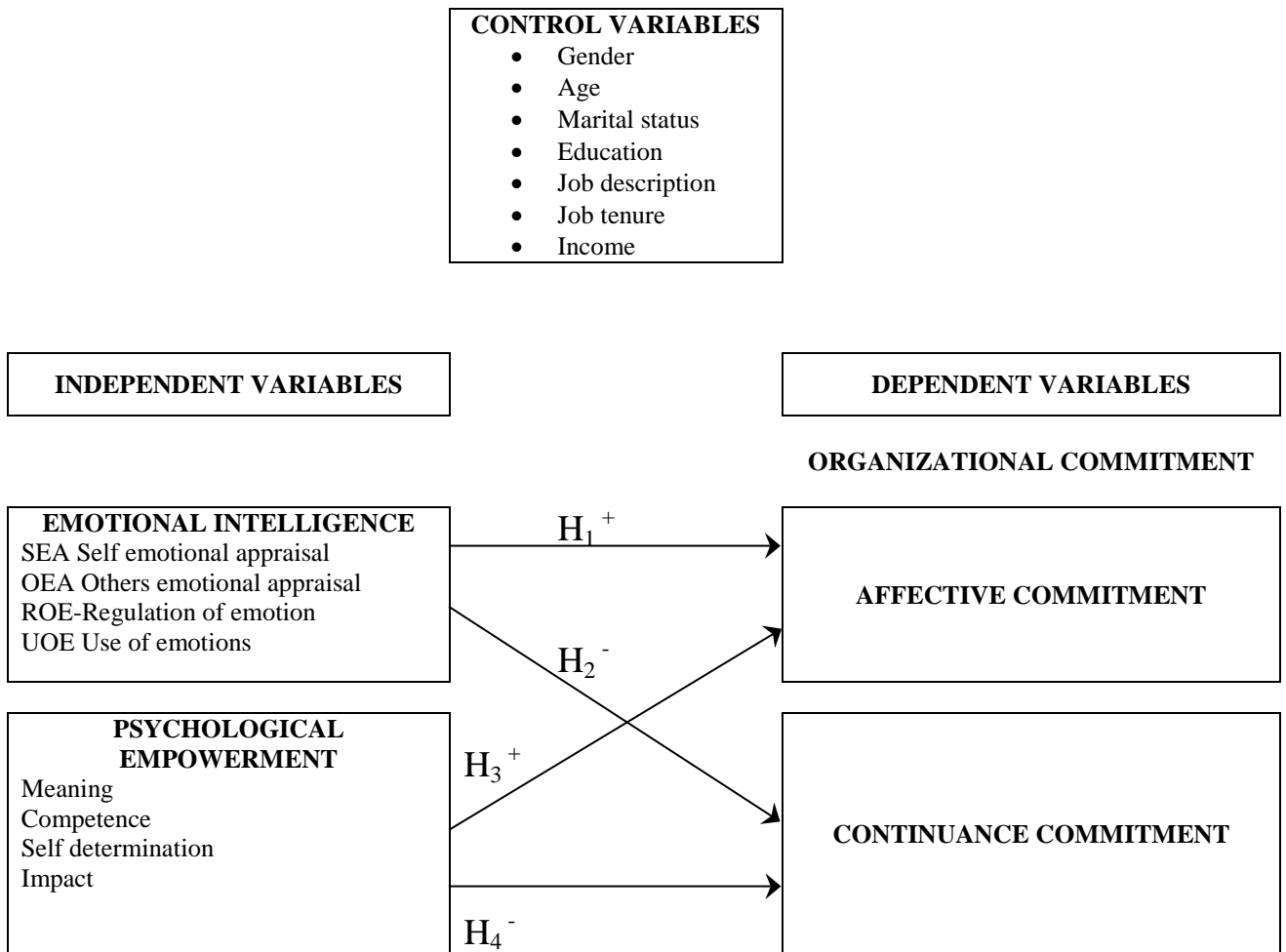
3.2 The research hypotheses

3.2.1 Emotional Intelligence and Organizational commitment

A large amount of research has been carried out since the millennium to verify the relationship between emotional intelligence and many other factors, however the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment has remained relatively unknown. Interestingly, very few researchers have looked into the role of emotions in the workplace, and specifically into emotional intelligence, as antecedent to organizational commitment. Are individuals who are more able to recognize, express and understand emotions in the workplace more committed to the organization?

Ashkanasy and Jordan (1997) found that emotional intelligence predicted the ability to endure job insecurity and periods of short-term unemployment. The underlying cause of their behavior may have been higher organizational commitment based on emotional resilience, which confers on the individual the tenacity to "hang in there" and endure the difficulties in the work place.

In her review of posited theoretical relationships between emotional intelligence and organizational outcomes, Abraham (1999a) suggests that emotional intelligence would be positively related to affective organizational commitment. She notes that emotionally intelligent employees would be more likely to enact appropriate emotional management strategies and less likely to hold their employer responsible for every frustration or conflict on the job. Their continuous substitution of positive emotion for negative energy improves satisfaction with the job and, in turn, commitment to the organization. That is, employees who can appraise and regulate their emotions, as Abraham (1999a) points out, have more affective organizational commitment.

In the following year, (Abraham, 2000) assessed over 79 professionals from three industries and reported that the emotionally intelligent employees were happier and more committed to their organization. She concluded that emotional intelligence was a powerful predictor of organizational commitment (measured with OCQ developed by Porter, et al. (1974)). Emotional intelligence presented a stronger relationship with organizational commitment than job satisfaction did. Emotional intelligence exerted an ever more powerful influence in conjunction with job control (which is could also be a part of psychological empowerment).

Despite using a non-workplace specific measure of emotional intelligence, the study by Abraham (2000) provides a useful framework for the hypothesis of the current study. It is predicted that there will be a positive relationship between the workplace measure of emotional intelligence adopted in this study and organizational commitment.

Wong and Law (2002) argued that organizational commitment (measured with Meyer, et al., (1993) questionnaire) has a low and nonsignificant correlation with emotional intelligence, but emotional labor strongly moderates the emotional intelligence – commitment relationship. They concluded that the relationship between emotional intelligence and affective organizational commitment would only be strong in jobs that require high emotional labor. Conversely, the effect of emotional intelligence to affective commitment would be insignificant in jobs that require low or no emotional labor. Perhaps this is because employees with high emotional intelligence find it difficult to commit to a work place that is not conducive to the emotional impact they consider appropriate. Alternatively, they may feel that their abilities are not appreciated or not utilized in low emotional labor jobs. In other words, high emotional intelligence employees who are denied opportunities to utilize emotional intelligence skills in their jobs and extra-role duties are less committed to their organization.

A study by Nikolaou and Tsaousis (2002) found a strong relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. Employees high in emotional intelligence scored higher in both types of commitment measured with ASSET (commitment of the organization to the employee and of the employee to the organization). The relationship of emotional intelligence (especially use of emotions) to organizational commitment confirms the importance of the former to organizational settings. Emotionally intelligent employees "feel more valued at their position which increases feelings of loyalty and commitment both from and to their organization" (p.338).

In another study Carmeli (2003) tested the degree to which emotionally intelligent senior managers working in the public sector, developed certain organizational attitudes. He concluded that employees with high emotional intelligence had higher levels of affective commitment and attachment to organization. In contrast, there was a negative yet not significant relationship between emotional intelligence and continuance commitment.

Gardner (2003) also found a positive relationship between most aspects of emotional intelligence and organizational commitment (measured with OCQ developed by Mowday et al (1979)). Employees who reported being more able to recognize and express emotion, more able to understand their own and others emotions, more able to manage both positive and negative emotions in themselves and others, and who were more able to effectively control strong emotional states experienced at work were more likely to be more committed to the organization than those employees who had difficulty with these aspects of emotional intelligence. Regression analysis revealed that the ability to manage both positive and negative emotions within oneself and others was the best predictor of organizational commitment. The ability to manage emotions effectively was also predictive of organizational commitment.

According to Zeidner, Matthews and Roberts (2004) emotional intelligence affects a wide array of work behaviors, including employee commitment, teamwork, development of talent, innovation, quality of service, and customer loyalty. Based on the theoretical model proposed by Jordan, et al. (2002) that implicated emotional intelligence as a moderator variable, that predicts employee emotional and behavioral responses to job insecurity, he proposed that people with low emotional intelligence are more likely to behave defensively and negatively (e.g. hyper vigilance, "copping out", "buck passing", avoidance), lowering affective commitment and increased job-related tension in response to their insecurity. Conversely, employees with high emotional intelligence "are better able to deal emotionally with job insecurity and will be able to ameliorate the effect of job insecurity on their affective commitment" (Zeidner, et al., 2004, p.387).

The study by Guleryuz et al. (2008) also supports the existence of positive relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment (measured with OCQ developed by Mowday et al (1979)). It was found that job satisfaction is a mediator between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. The other finding of the study was that "self-emotional appraisal" and ''use of emotions'' have direct effects on organizational commitment whereas job satisfaction is a mediator between ''regulation of emotion'' and organizational commitment.

Based on the above the following hypotheses have been formed:

Hypothesis 1: Emotional intelligence has a positive relationship with affective organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2: Emotional intelligence has a negative relationship with continuance organizational commitment.

3.2.2 Psychological empowerment and organizational commitment

Several studies conducted on employee empowerment reveal that it gives rise to organizational commitment. Employee empowerment has been widely recognized as an essential contributor to organizational success with many authors observing a relationship between the level of employee empowerment and employee commitment (Avolio , et al., 2004; Bogler and Somech, 2004; Borghei, et al., 2010; Chang, et al., 2010; Han, et al., 2009; Humborstad and Perry, 2011; Joo and Shim, 2010; Liden, et al., 2000; Spreitzer, 1995).

Empowered employees have a higher level of organizational commitment (Joo & Shim, 2010). Avolio, Zhu, Koh and Bhatia (2004) found that psychological empowerment was significantly related to organizational commitment. Empowered employees appeared more likely to reciprocate with higher levels of organizational commitment. They mention that their findings were in accordance with prior research performed by e.g. (Kanter, 1983; Spreitzer, 1995; Wayne, et al., 2000).

In fact, a large number of researchers have reported a relationship between psychological empowerment and organizational commitment, mainly considering psychological empowerment as an antecedent of organizational commitment. Konczak, et al. (2000) found, for example, that psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between leader behaviors and organizational commitment. Because psychologically empowered work is likely to fulfill intrinsic needs for autonomy and growth (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), researchers have frequently proposed job satisfaction, commitment, and retention as outcomes of empowerment, e.g., Kraimer, et al., (1999); Liden, et al. (2000). In addition, feelings of self-determination, meaning, competence, and impact are likely to increase the individual's commitment to the organization, as they will further enhance the ability of the individual to express his values and interests through his work (Seibert , et al., 2011). McDermott, et al. (1996) showed, that empowerment for health professionals was associated with higher levels of commitment to the job and organization. Nyhan (2000) suggested, moreover, that empowerment leads to increased interpersonal trust

between managers and employees, and that trust-building practices, in turn, resulted in strengthened organizational commitment.

Empowerment may provide the necessary conditions for mending problems and building commitment (Dee, et al., 2003; Niehoff, et al., 2001).

Many researchers chose to explore the relationship between the different dimensions of psychological empowerment and organizational commitment.

According to Kanter (1983) employees experiencing a sense of meaning from their work would have higher levels of commitment and energy to perform. Liden, et al.(2000) reported that the meaning dimension mediates the relationship between job characteristics and organizational commitment.

Kraimer, et al, (1999) in his research supposed that psychological empowerment should be positively related to organizational commitment. He assumed that since personal control is positively related to organizational commitment (Spector, 1986; Wayne, et al., 1994) and the empowerment dimensions of self-determination and impact are similar to personal control, they should also be related to organizational commitment. He actually found that especially the empowerment dimensions of impact (directly) and self-determination (indirectly) were related to organizational commitment, measured with Porter et al.'s (1974) OCQ.

Liu, et al. (2007) in their Hong Kong study found that when the perception of work empowerment increases, organizational commitment increases accordingly. Further analysis showed that, of the two dimensions (affective and continuance) of organizational commitment, empowerment was related to affective commitment rather than continuance commitment.

Dee, et al. (2003) reported that the meaning, self-determination and impact dimensions and the total empowerment score had positive effects on the level of organizational commitment of teachers. Seibert, et al. (2011) found that psychological empowerment was strongly, positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. After performing subsequent analyses they further noted that competence is a significant predictor of organizational commitment but a significantly weaker predictor than meaning and impact. They concluded that there is little evidence of discriminant validity among the four psychological empowerment sub-dimensions, thus providing support for the use of a unitary psychological empowerment construct.

Literature review reveals that researchers have also examined the relationship of psychological empowerment with each of the dimensions of organizational commitment: affective, continuance and normative (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Chan, 2004)

Support for a relationship between psychological empowerment and affective organizational commitment has been found in the nursing literature. Cho, et al. (2006) suggest that empowerment has a strong, direct effect on affective commitment (b = 0.47).

Chan (2004) also found that psychological empowerment has a strong and direct positive association with affective commitment. Employees who are psychologically empowered by their superiors tend to be more affectively attached to the organization and feel obligated to stay with the organization. Organizations that practice decentralization rather than centralization by transferring power to their employees to make certain decisions may invoke higher affective commitment (Bateman & Strasser, 1984). Jha (2011) in his Indian IT study, concluded that psychological empowerment influences affective and normative commitment positively.

The study by Laschinger, et al. (2001) found that there is a weak relationship between continuance commitment and empowerment. Chan (2004) found that there is a negative relationship between continuance and psychological empowerment. He suggested that employees who experience higher level of psychological empowerment are less likely to remain with the organization due to continuance commitment. Seibert, et al. (2011), on the other hand, suggested that psychological empowerment should be associated with increased continuance commitment, because the loss of an empowering work arrangement may be viewed as the sacrifice of something valuable that is difficult to replace with another employer.

The fact that different dimensions of empowerment are related to different outcomes supports the notion of a "gestalt" of empowerment being necessary to achieve the range of outcomes (Spreitzer, 2008). No single dimension of empowerment affords the range of outcomes that have been shown to link to overall construct of psychological empowerment.

To further examine the relationship between psychological empowerment and organizational commitment, the current study investigates the relationship between

psychological empowerment and the affective and continuance dimensions of organizational commitment.

Based on the above mentioned literature the following hypotheses were formed:

Hypothesis 3: Psychological empowerment has a positive relationship with affective organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 4: Psychological empowerment has a negative relationship with continuance organizational commitment.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Research design

The research methodology includes both qualitative and quantitative aspects. Qualitative research has been conducted in the form of a content analysis and comprehensive literature review. Based on the contents identified during the literature survey a questionnaire has been formed, translated, tested and then applied to the selected sample of NBGs employees. The questionnaire was developed to measure and investigate the influence of emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment on organizational commitment. The statistical analysis of the gathered data attempts to measure the significance and the strength of the relationship between the identified factors and organizational commitment.

4.2 Questionnaire design

Apart from the demographic data, the instruments utilized were based upon proven questionnaires used in previous research by numerous academic authors, throughout the world, due to their consistent reliability and validity across region and culture.

The instruments were prepared for use in Greece using appropriate translation-back-translation procedures. The questionnaire was translated from English into Greek by a university lecturer competent in both languages and then back- translated into English by a different lecturer. Both the English versions (the original and the translated) were compared to ensure similarity. Differences between the original English and the back-translated version were discussed, and mutual agreements were made as to the most appropriate translation. This procedure tries to balance the competing needs of making the translation meaningful and naturally readable to the native participants, while preserving the integrity of the original measure and its constructs (Brislin, 1980 cited in Nikolaou and Tsaousis, 2002).

The questionnaire attempts to investigate the relation between emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment (independent variables) and organizational commitment (dependent variable).

Emotional intelligence model measures four dimensions:

- SEA-Self emotional appraisal

- OEA-Others emotional appraisal

- ROE-Regulation of emotion

- UOE-Use of emotions

Psychological empowerment model also measures four dimensions:

- Meaning

- Competence

- Self determination

- Impact

And organizational commitment scale measures two dimensions of organizational commitment:

- Affective commitment

- Continuance commitment

The contribution of normative commitment to the conceptualization of commitment has been questioned by many researchers, mainly due to its relationship with affective commitment. Ko, et al. (1997) argued that the concept of normative commitment is problematic, since their findings showed a lack of discriminant validity between affective and normative commitment. There seems to be a considerable conceptual overlap between normative and affective commitment and it is not certain if the two concepts can be separated (Ko et al., (1997), p. 971). Meyer, et al. (2002) also verified the existence of a high correlation between affective and normative commitment. Consequently, normative commitment was omitted from the research model.

The questionnaire was self-administering. Item rating and directions for the respondent appeared at the beginning of each section of the questionnaire.

The following instruments were used in the survey:

4.2.1 Organizational commitment instrument

The instrument selected for this study is one of the major models of organizational commitment, that has been developed by (Allen & Meyer, 1990). In 1993, Meyer, Allen and Smith revised their original 24 item measure, and developed a shorter version, consisting of 18 items, six for each dimension of organizational

commitment: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. The shorter version will be used in this study. Cronbach alpha of the shorter version was found to be .82, .74, and .83 for the ACS, CCS, and NCS respectively (Meyer, et al., 1993).

The two selected dimensions of organizational commitment – affective and continuance- were measured using six items for each one. For the reasons mentioned above in section 4.2, normative commitment will not be examined in this study. Possible responses were arrayed on a seven-point Likert scale comprising strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), moderately disagree (3), neither agree nor disagree (4), moderately agree (5), agree (6), strongly agree (7).

Affective commitment describes the emotional attachment of the employee to the organization. A sample item is "I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization". Continuance commitment is associated with the costs of leaving the organization or the lack of alternatives. A sample item is "It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to".

Each question was given a score ranging from one to seven depending on whether the respective question has a negative or a positive impact on commitment. The responses for each item have then been summed, and an average was calculated to yield an affective commitment and a continuance commitment score.

4.2.2 Emotional intelligence instrument

The measure of emotional intelligence selected for this study was developed by Wong and Law (2002). It is a popular, self-report measure of Emotional Intelligence. The WLEIS consists of 16 items and four subscales, with each subscale measured with 4 items. The four subscales are "self-emotions appraisal" (SEA), "others emotions appraisal" (OEA), "use of emotion" (UOE) and "regulation of emotion" (ROE).

The "Self Emotions Appraisal" dimension assesses individuals' ability to understand and express their own emotions. A sample item is "I really understand what I feel." The "Others' Emotions Appraisal" dimension measures peoples' ability to perceive and understand the emotions of others. A sample item is "I always know my friends' emotions from their behaviour." The "Use of Emotion" dimension refers to individuals' ability to use their emotions effectively by directing them toward

constructive activities and personal performance. A sample item is "I always tell myself I am a competent person." The "Regulation of Emotion" dimension refers to individuals' ability to manage their own emotions. A sample item from this dimension is "I have good control of my own emotions."

The WLEIS was also measured with a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 7 (totally agree). Previous research has found support for the underlying four-factor structure, reliability, and convergent and discriminant validity of the WLEIS scores (Law, et al., 2004; Law, et al., 2008; Shi and Wang, 2007; Song, et al., 2010).

Whitman, et al. (2009) concluded that WLEIS has established measurement equivalence and therefore can be used across gender and ethnic groups. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for the four factors of EI (each with four items) ranged from .83 to .90 (ROE=.83, UOE=.84, SEA=.87, OEA=.90) (Wong & Law, 2002).

4.2.3 Psychological empowerment instrument

The scale used for the present study was Spreitzer's psychological empowerment scale (Spreitzer, 1995). It is a four-component model, consisting of 12 statements, all positively phrased, that measure an employee's sense of meaning, competence, impact, and self-determination (with three statements for each of the four dimensions). Participants indicate the extent to which they agreed with the 12 statements of the four cognitive dimensions of psychological empowerment, using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1(strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Higher scores are indicative of higher levels of each dimension. Sample items include "The work I do is meaningful" (meaning), "I am confident about my ability to do my job" (competence), "I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job" (self-determination), and "My impact on what happens in my department is large" (impact). Previous research has shown that the four dimensions can be aggregated into a single scale (Kraimer, et al., 1999) or used individually (Spreitzer, et al., 1997). The single scale has been selected for this study.

Cronbach alpha reliabilities have been reported by Spreitzer (1995a) for the overall construct ranging from 0.62 to 0.72, by Spreitzer et al. (1999) to range from 0.81 to 0.88 for the four empowerment scales, and by Smith, et al. (2010) ranging from 0,78 to 0,92 for the four dimensions and 0.84 for the overall construct.

The items of the questionnaire and the dimensions they measure are shown in Appendix 1.

4.2.4 Demographics – control variables

Several demographic variables are included in the analysis. These include gender, age, marital status, level of education, job description, job tenure in present organization and monthly income.

In previous studies, a range of demographic variables have been found to be related with employee commitment (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Porter, et al., 1974; Steers, 1977).

According to a number of studies, e.g.: Mathieu and Zajac (1990), gender affects organizational commitment. Women have been reported to be more committed than men. The typical explanation for that phenomenon could be that women have to overcome more barriers to get to their position in an organization.

Age and job tenure have been found in the literature to be a positive predictor of employee commitment, for various reasons. According to Mathieu & Zajac (1990) the older the employees become, the less employment alternatives are available. Moreover, as Dunham, et al. (1994) suggest that the older employees may be more committed because they have invested more in their work and have a greater history with their organization. (Salancik, 1977, cited by Meyer & Allen, 1984) points out that maybe, for example, these employees have received more rewards from the organization (e.g., are in better positions), that they represent a self-selected group, or that they have "justified" to themselves their long service to the organization by deciding they like it. Stephens, et al. (2004) confirmed that job tenure and affective commitment are associated.

Marital status is expected to contribute to commitment with married employees showing more commitment. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) suggest that married employees have greater family and financial responsibilities, which may increase their need to stay with the organization, therefore their continuance commitment.

Education has been found to be negatively related to affective commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

This study uses as control variables the respondent's gender, age, marital status, level of education, job description, job tenure and income, with the goal of eliminating other possible explanations of affective and continuance organizational commitment.

4.3 Sampling procedure and data collection

In order to address the research objectives and test the relevant hypotheses, primary data was collected using a self-administering questionnaire. The main ethical issue involved in this survey was maintaining the respondents' rights to self-determination, anonymity and confidentiality. Respondents were given full information on the nature of the study, through the accompanying letter, that was distributed with the questionnaire. They were informed that their participation to the research was voluntary and anonymous, to prevent biased answers. The questionnaire data were kept confidential, since each questionnaire was returned in an anonymous, sealed envelope and the names of the participants were not recorded.

To generate relevant data the researcher employed a convenience sample of 200 employees of the National Bank of Greece (NBG), the largest, privately owned bank in Greece, where the researcher is employed. According to the bank's published data, on 31.12.2010 the bank had a total of 12.217 employees, of which 54.5% were male and 45.5% female. Approximately 64 % of the employees worked at the bank's branches and 36 % in administrative positions. About 38% were employed for more than 25 years. As far as the educational level is concerned 10.5 % had elementary education, 38% had secondary education, 38% had university degrees, and 14% had a post-graduate title (see appendix 3).

The 200 questionnaires were distributed to 20 bank branches in total. The sample was not restricted to the branches of the prefecture of Magnisia, where the researcher lives, but also included branches in other prefectures. The questionnaires were distributed to 5 branches in the prefecture of Magnisia, to 5 branches in the prefecture of Athens, to 3 branches in the prefecture of Larissa, to 3 branches in the prefecture of Thessaloniki, to 2 branches in the prefecture of Kastoria, and to 2 branches in the prefecture of Trikala. The questionnaires in Magnisia were distributed in person, after taking the consensus of the branch manager. The questionnaires in the other prefectures were distributed via internal mail. Between 5 and 20 sets of

questionnaires (depending on the size of the branch) were sent to the manager of each branch. The manager was contacted by telephone and asked for his/her permission and help to distribute the questionnaires. They were subsequently collected, in some cases by the manager and in other cases by another employee, in sealed envelopes, ensuring confidentiality and anonymity. 145 questionnaires were returned completed, with a response rate of 72.5 %. A total of 19 questionnaires were excluded from the study for various reasons, including incompleteness (missing values in over 10% of the total number of the questions asked). Consequently, the final usable sample size turned out to be 126 participants that gave rise to an actual response rate of 63 %. The profile of the sample can be seen in Table 4.1 that follows:

Table 4.1 *Profile of the sample*

Demographic characteristics (Gender, Age, Family Status, Level of Education, Job description, Job tenure, Monthly Income) of the Participants		
Variables	Frequency N=126	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Males	62	49.2
Females	64	50.8
Age		
18-25	4	3.2
26-40	62	49.2
41-50	30	23.8
Over 50	30	23.8
Family status		
Married	74	58.7
Single	41	32.5
Other	11	8.7
Educational background		
Elementary education	3	2.4
High school	24	19.0
University degree	71	56.4
Master's degree	28	22.2
Ph. D	0	0
Job description		
Employee	71	56.4
Supervisor	28	22.2
Assistant manager	19	15.1
Manager	8	6.3
Job tenure		
Up to 5	21	16.7
6-15	47	37.3
16-25	28	22.2
Over 25	30	23.8
Income (net, monthly, in EURO)		
Up to 1000	6	4.8
1001-1500	57	45.2
1501-2000	48	38.1
2001-2500	7	5.6
Over 2500	8	6.3

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH FINDINGS

CHAPTER 5 DATA ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH FINDINGS
5.1 Introduction

An overview of the results obtained in this study are presented and discussed in this chapter. For the analysis of the data the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) has been used. Firstly, descriptive statistics on the demographic characteristics of the study participants are presented and depicted in graphical format. Next, the measures are examined for internal consistency reliability calculating Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Cortina, 1993). Descriptive statistics of the dependent and independent variables are also calculated and presented. The assessment of the role of control variables is then presented, using t-test to determine the difference among group means. The relationship between dependent and independent variables was measured by applying the bivariate Pearson correlation test. Finally, multiple linear regression analysis was employed to test the research model.

5.2 Profile of the sample

In this section the demographic data of the participants taking part in the survey are described. This section consists of seven variables –gender, age, marital status, level of education, job description, job tenure, and monthly income. These variables are important in establishing profile correlations with other sections of the survey questionnaire.

Table 5.1 indicates that there was an almost equal representation of male (50.79%) and female (49.21%) participants.

Table 5.1
Gender

	Frequency	Percentage
Male	62	49.21
Female	64	50.79
Total	126	100

GENDER
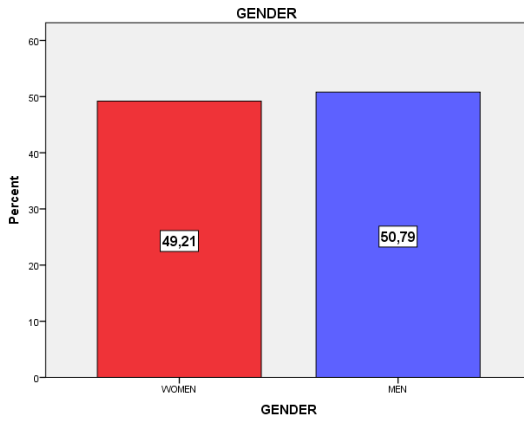
Regarding the age of the participants, 49.21 % was between 26 and 40 years old, while 47.62 % was over 40 years old. A small percentage 3.175 % was between 18 and 25 years old (see table 5.2).

Table 5.2
Age

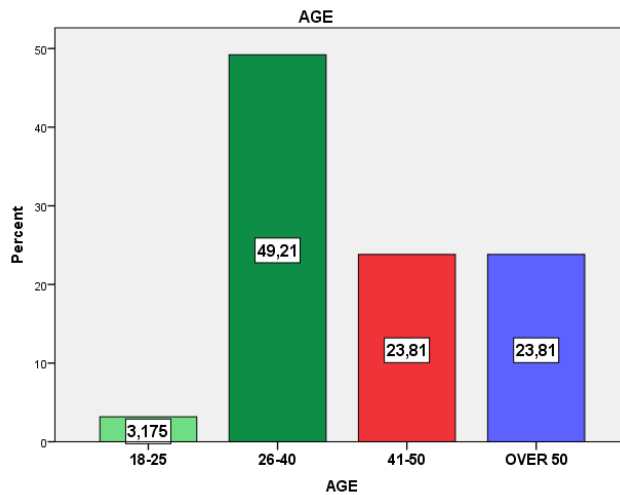|	Frequency	Percentage
18-25	4	3.17
26-40	62	49.21
41-50	30	23.81
Over 50	30	23.81
Total	126	100

AGE

Table 5.3 indicates that the majority of the participants were married (58,73%). Later in the study, "single" and "other" have been unified, in a single percentage of 41.27%, in order to facilitate multiple regression analysis.
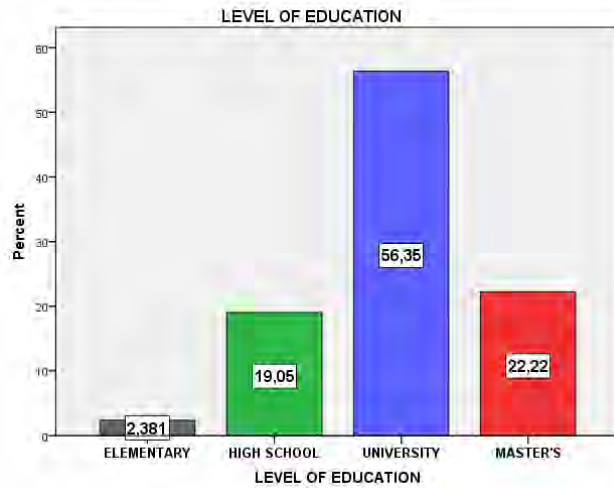
Table 5.3
Marital status

	Frequency	Percentage
Married	74	58.73
Single	41	32.54
Other	11	8.73
Total	126	100
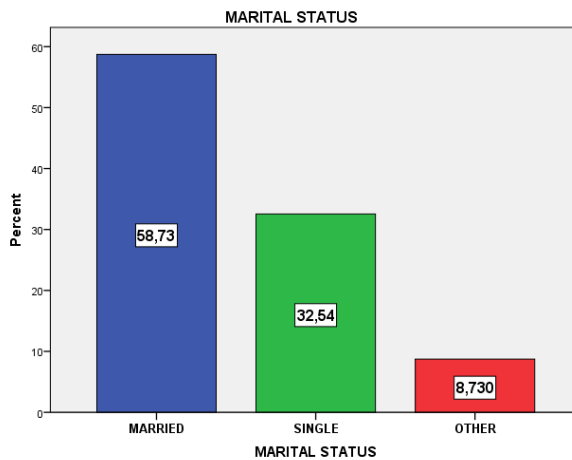
Out of the selected participants, 56.35% held a University degree and 22,22% have been awarded a Master's degree. 19,05 % were high school graduates, and 2.38% had only been through elementary education. No one of the participants had a doctorate (see table 5.4)
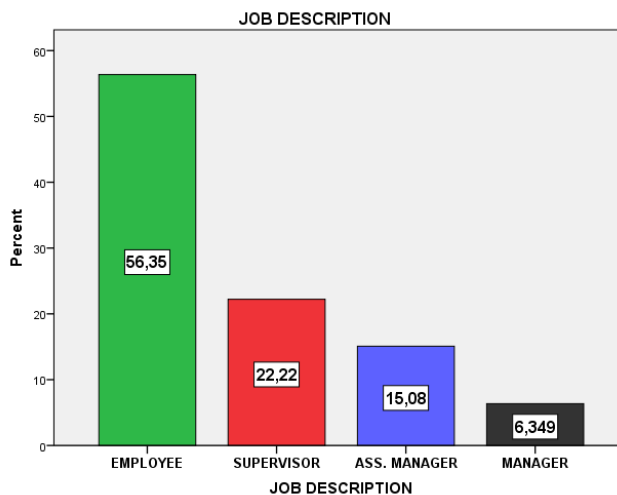
Table 5.4
Level of education

	Frequency	Percentage
Elementary education	3	2.38
High school	24	19.05
University	71	56.35
Master's	28	22.22
Ph.D.	0	0
Total	126	100

LEVEL OF EDUCATION

As table 5.5 indicates, the majority of the participants 56.35% were plain employees (tellers or team members of product groups), 22.22% supervisors (chief tellers or team leaders), 15,08 % served as assistant managers (or product managers) and 6.35% were branch managers (see table 5.5)
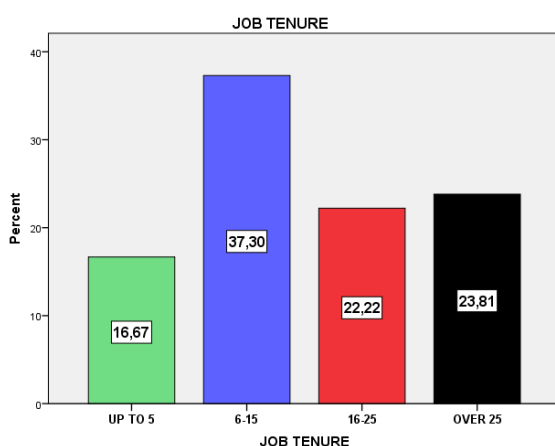
Table 5.5
Job description

	Frequency	Percentage
Employee	71	56.35
Supervisor	28	22.22
Assistant Manager	19	15.08
Manager	8	6.35
Total	126	100

JOB DESCRIPTION

- 54 -

Regarding job tenure 53.97% have been working in the bank for less than 15 years while 46.03% for more than 16 years, as table 5.6 indicates.

Table 5.6
Job tenure

|	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 5 years	21	16.67
6-15 years	47	37.30
16-25 years	28	22.22
Over 25 years	30	23.81
Total	126	100

Finally, as table 5.7 indicates, the vast majority 88.1% of the participants earn less than €2000 per month. A small portion of this group 4.76%, reported earning less than €1000.

The rest 11.9 % reported earning more than €2000 per month. The amount reported by the participants represented their net monthly income, before the wage reductions imposed by the bank's administration that took place shortly after this research was conducted.

Table 5.7
Monthly income (net, in EURO)

	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 1000	6	4.76
1001-1500	57	45.24
1501-2000	48	38.10
2001-2500	7	5.56
More than 2500	8	6.34
Total	126	100

MONTHLY INCOME
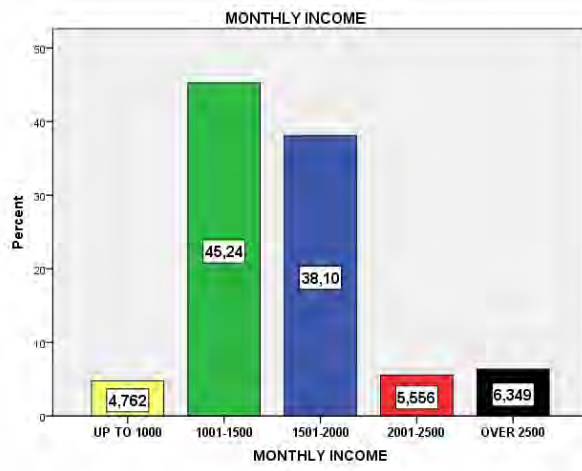
5.3 Reliability analysis

Reliability analysis may be used to construct reliable measurement scales, to improve existing scales, and to evaluate the reliability of scales already in use. The assessment of scale reliability is based on the correlations between the individual items or measurements that make up the scale, relative to the variances of the items. One of the most important and popular reliability statistics in research today is Cronbach's alpha (Cortina, 1993; Cronbach, 1951). It determines the internal consistency or average correlation of items in a survey instrument to estimate its reliability.

Cronbach alpha coefficient was computed for the data being analysed in the present study, since reliability is not a property of the test itself but a property of the scores on a test for a particular population of examinees (Feldt & Brennan, 1989); (Vacha-Haase, et al., 1999).

Table 5.8
Alpha reliabilities of variables

Variables	Cronbach's alpha	N items
Emotional Intelligence	.874	16
Psychological empowerment	.914	12
Affective Commitment	.961	6
Continuance Commitment	.750	6

The measures used have been found moderately to highly reliable, ranging from .75 to .96). Coefficient alpha in all four measures was estimated above .70, which according to (Nunnally, 1978) is an acceptable level for research scales (Table 5.8).

5.4 Descriptive statistics for both independent and dependent variables

As mentioned in the research design (see section 3.1) the independent variables of the model are emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment and the dependent variables are affective organizational commitment and continuance organizational commitment. As described in the Questionnaire design (see section 4.2) all the variables are measured with well-established and validated questionnaires. Emotional intelligence is measured with Wong & Law's (2002) WLEIS questionnaire. The WLEIS consists of 16 items and four subscales, with each subscale measured with 4 items. The four subscales are self-emotions appraisal (SEA), others-emotions appraisal (OEA), use of emotion (UOE) and regulation of emotion (ROE). Psychological empowerment is measured with Spreitzer's (1995) psychological empowerment scale (Spreitzer, 1995). It consists of four-components, with four items each, measuring an employee's sense of meaning, competence, impact, and self-determination. Both affective and continuance organizational commitment are measured with the Meyer, Allen and Smiths' (1993) revised questionnaire consisting of 6 items for each of the two dimensions. Possible responses, for all three measures, were arrayed on a seven-point Likert scale comprising strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), moderately disagree (3), neither agree nor disagree (4), moderately agree (5), agree (6), strongly agree (7).For all the measures used in the study, Table 5.9 presents the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation values calculated for the sample participants (126) (see appendix 5.2).

Table 5.9
Descriptive statistics for both independent and dependent variables

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	S.D.
Independent Variables					
EI	126	3.19	6.88	5.3408	0.74740
PE	126	2.17	6.92	5.3638	0.99452
Dependent Variables					
AOC	126	1.00	7.00	4.8690	1.68992
COC	126	1.25	7.00	5.4233	1.09942

5.5 T-test analyses

The following analysis is performed to examine whether there are any group mean differences in terms of emotional intelligence, psychological empowerment, affective organizational commitment and continuance organizational commitment, due to characteristics such as employee gender, age, marital status, job description, job tenure and monthly income.

5.5.1 Differences between male and female employees

In order to assess the difference between male and female employees in relation with the variables of this study, analysis was conducted using the t-test (for independent samples). It was found that there was no statistically significant group mean difference in any of the variables (see table 5.10).

Table 5.10
T-test results for the two types of Gender

	Gender	N	Mean	St.Deviation	t-statistic	Sig.
EI	Male	64	5.3203	0.73611	0.311	.756
	Female	62	5.3619	0.76430		
PE	Male	64	5.2435	1.02507	1.384	.169
	Female	62	5.4879	0.95431		
AOC	Male	64	4.8490	1.66976	.135	.893
	Female	62	4.8898	1.72387		
COC	Male	64	5.3880	1.20334	.364	.716
	Female	62	5.4597	0.98933		

- 59 -

5.5.2 Differences between age groups

Two groups were created according to the cumulative frequency of age (almost the same number of employees). The first group (less than 40 years old) consists of 52.4% of the respondents, while the second group (more than 40 years old) 47.6 % of the respondents. In order to examine if there is any significant group mean differences t-test was performed (see table 5.11). Analysis shows that significant differences exist among ages on the levels of psychological empowerment [$t(124) = 2.520, p = .013$] and affective commitment [$t(118) = 3.080, p = .003$]. To examine which group ranks higher, the means for each group were calculated. As far as psychological empowerment is concerned, employees under 40 years of age have less psychological empowerment ($M = 5.1553$) than employees over 41 years of age ($M = 5.5931$). Employees under 40 years old appear to be less affectively committed ($M = 4.4470$) than the older employees ($M = 5.3333$).

Table 5.11
T-test results of age groups

	Age	N	Mean	St.Deviation	t-statistic	Sig.
EI	41+ years	60	5.4083	0.74223	0.967	.335
	18-40 yrs	66	5.2794	0.75242		
PE	41+ years	60	5.5931	0.88897	**2.520**	**.013**
	18-40 yrs	66	5.1553	1.04502		
AOC	41+ years	60	5.3333	1.35574	**3.080**	**.003**
	18-40 yrs	66	4.4470	1.85573		
COC	41+ years	60	5.5306	1.11423	1.045	.298
	18-40 yrs	66	5.3258	1.08503		

5.5.3 Differences between married and not married employees

To examine if there is any significant difference between married and not married employees, two groups were formed, one consisting of married employees and another integrating single and other (including divorced, widowed or just living together). According to the results of the t-test (see table 5.12) significant differences exist between the two groups in terms of emotional intelligence [$t(124)=2.030$, $p=.044$] and affective organizational commitment [$t(124)=2.807$, $p=.006$]. To examine the differences, the means for each group were calculated. Married employees appear to have more emotional intelligence ($M=5.4527$) and to be more committed affectively ($M=5.2140$) than their not married colleagues (Emotional intelligence $M=5.1815$ and affective commitment $M=4.3782$).

Table 5.12
T-test results of marital status groups

	Family status	N	Mean	St.Deviation	t-statistic	Sig.
EI	Married	74	5.4527	0.77303	**2.030**	**.044**
	Single	52	5.1815	0.68535		
PE	Married	74	5.4358	0.94256	0.970	.334
	Single	52	5.2612	1.06502		
AOC	Married	74	5.2140	1.54721	**2.807**	**.006**
	Single	52	4.3782	1.77618		
COC	Married	74	5.5563	1.11216	1.631	.105
	Single	52	5.2340	1.06297		

5.5.4 Differences between job description groups

To examine if there is any significant difference related to the job description of the employees, two groups of respondents were formed, (a) employees and (b) high-in-hierarchy employees (supervisors, assistant managers and managers). According to the results of the t-test (see table 5.13) significant differences exist among the two groups of different job description as far as emotional intelligence [t **(123) = 2.338, p=.021**] and psychological empowerment [t**(124)=3.765, p<.001**) are concerned. To further examine the differences, the means for each group were calculated. Supervisors, assistant managers and managers appear to have more emotional intelligence (*M*=5.5091) than their subordinates (*M*=5.2104). They also seem to be more psychologically empowered (*M*=5.7242) than employees (*M*=5.0845).

Table 5.13
T-test results of job description groups

	Job description	N	Mean	St.Deviation	t-statistic	Sig.
EI	Supervisor Ass.manager Manager	55	5.5091	0.62133	**2.338**	**.021**
	Employee	71	5.2104	0.81252		
PE	Supervisor Ass.manager Manager	55	5.7242	0.85389	**3.765**	**.000**
	Employee	71	5.0845	1.01120		
AOC	Supervisor Ass.manager Manager	55	5.0697	1.55479	1.175	.242
	Employee	71	4.7136	1.78290		
COC	Supervisor Ass.manager Manager	55	5.2909	1.08545	1.191	.236
	Employee	71	5.5258	1.10685		

5.5.5 Differences between job tenure groups

In order to assess if there is any difference concerning job tenure in relation with the variables of this model, t-test was performed. Two groups were previously identified (up to 15 years and more than 15 years) after taking into account the cumulative percentage of the participants' tenure. The analysis revealed that there are significant group mean differences on the level of psychological empowerment [t **(124)** **= 2.961, *p=.004***] as well as affective commitment [t **(124) = 3.630, *p<.001***] and continuance commitment [t **(124) = 2.021, *p=.045***]. To further examine whether the experienced or less experienced participants differ, the means for each group were calculated (see table 5.14). More experienced employees seem to report that greater levels of psychological empowerment (*M*=5.6394), as well as more affective (*M*=5.4339) and continuance commitment (*M*=5.6351) than their less experienced colleagues (*PE M*=5.1287, *AOC M*=4.3873, *COC M*=5.2426 respectively).

Table 5.14
T-test results of job tenure groups

	Job tenure	N	Mean	St.Deviation	t-statistic	Sig.
EI	16+	58	5.4537	0.77548	1.575	.118
	0-15	68	5.2445	0.71422		
PE	16+	58	5.6394	0.88926	**2.961**	**.004**
	0-15	68	5.1287	1.02502		
AOC	16+	58	5.4339	1.42312	**3.630**	**.000**
	0-15	68	4.3873	1.75876		
COC	16+	58	5.6351	1.08213	**2.021**	**.045**
	0-15	68	5.2426	1.08946		

- 63 -

5.5.6 Differences between income groups

In order to identify any difference concerning monthly income in relation with the variables of this model, t-test was performed. Two groups were identified (low income: up to 1500 EURO and high income: more than 1500 EURO) after taking into account the cumulative percentage of the participants' income. The analysis revealed that there is significant group mean difference at the level of affective commitment [t (118) = 2.074, $p=.040$]. To further examine whether the low income and the high income employees differ, the means for each group were calculated. Better rewarded employees report greater levels of affective commitment (M=5.1772) than the low income employees (M=4.5608) (see table 5.15)

Table 5.15
T-test results of monthly income groups

	Monthly income	N	Mean	St.Deviation	t-statistic	Sig.
EI	>1500	63	5.3819	0.74436	0.617	.538
	≤1500	63	5.2996	0.75412		
PE	>1500	63	5.5040	0.99105	1.592	.114
	≤1500	63	5.2235	0.98588		
AOC	>1500	63	5.1772	1.47769	**2.074**	**.040**
	≤1500	63	4.5608	1.83878		
COC	>1500	63	5.4683	1.06208	0.458	.648
	≤1500	63	5.3783	1.14230		

5.6 Correlation analysis

To measure the association between the independent variables (emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment) and the dependent variables (affective and continuance commitment correlation analysis was performed.

Table 5.16 indicates the presence of a statistically significant, positive correlation between total emotional intelligence scores and affective commitment (r=.236, p=.008).

As far as the relationship between emotional intelligence and continuance organizational commitment is concerned, no statistically significant correlation (negative or positive) was found.

The independent variable psychological empowerment was found to have a moderately high and positive association with the dependent variable affective commitment (r=.541, p<.001).

On the contrary, there seems to be no statistically significant correlation (positive or negative) between the independent variable psychological empowerment and the dependent variable continuance commitment.

Table 5.16
Correlation between the dependent and the independent variables

		Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment
Emotional Intelligence	Pearson Correlation	**,236**[**]	,067
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,008**	,456
	N	126	126
Psychological Empowerment	Pearson Correlation	**,541**[**]	,090
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,000**	,318
	N	126	126

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

5.7 Multivariate analysis – Testing the conceptual model

Multivariate analysis was employed to further investigate and test the research model (see section 3.2). Multiple regression analyses were calculated using the two organizational commitment components (affective commitment and continuance commitment) as the dependent variables and emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment as the predictors, in order to study the combined impact of the independent and the control variables to affective and continuance organizational commitment.

5.7.1 The combined effect of emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment on affective organizational commitment

The model of the study (see Figure 1) considers affective commitment as dependent variable while the independent variables are emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment as predictors (see appendix 5.3). Moreover, seven control variables are included (see Figure 1). Tables 5.17 and 5.18 summarize the results of the regression analysis (standardized betas, adjusted R square, significance levels). Results show that the predictor independent variables captured a significant proportion of change in the dependent variable, explaining 31.1 % of variance in affective organizational commitment.

Psychological empowerment emerged as a predictor of affective organizational commitment (b = .567, p<.001) as well as the marital status of the employees (b=.177, p=.045).

- 66 -

Table 5.17
Regression results for affective commitment – Model summary

MODEL	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Sig.
(Dependent Affective Commitment)	.361	.311	.000

Table 5.18
- Regression Coefficients for Affective Commitment

Model	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
Emotional Intelligence	-.103	-1.139	.257
Psychological empowerment	**.567**	**5.927**	**.000**
Gender	.005	0.065	.948
Age	.184	1.296	.197
Family status	**.177**	**2.031**	**.045**
Level of education	.039	0.436	.663
Job description	-.057	-0.539	.591
Job tenure	.018	0.121	.904
Monthly income	-.067	-0.568	.571

The regression analysis results show that psychological empowerment has a statistically significant positive relationship with affective organizational commitment, therefore Hypothesis 2 is supported. The more employees are psychologically empowered the more committed they become.

On the contrary emotional intelligence does not seem to have a statistically significant effect on affective organizational commitment. Hypothesis 1 is not supported by the results.

In addition to that, only one of the control variables was found to be significantly related with affective commitment; the marital status of the employees. Married employees seem to be more affectively committed to the organization.

5.7.2 The combined effect of emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment on continuance organizational commitment

In this case, the dependent variable is continuance organizational commitment and the independent variables are emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment.

The adjusted R square of the model is very low (adj. R^2 =.018) indicating that the model does not present good fit for the data. In order to further evaluate the goodness of the regression the p-value in the regression ANOVA table (5.19) and the p-value of the coefficients have also been examined (table 5.21).

- 67 -

The examination of the model summary as well as the ANOVA and coefficient tables, led to the conclusion once again that the model is not good fit for the data (see table 5.20), which means that it does not explain the variance, probably because there are more factors acting on the data that need to be investigated.

Table 5.19
ANOVAa for continuance commitment

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	13,467	9	1,496	1,261	,266b
	Residual	137,625	116	1,186		
	Total	151,092	125			

Table 5.20
Regression for continuance commitment – Model summary

MODEL	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Sig.
(Dependent Continuance Commitment)	.089	.018	.266

Table 5.21
Regression Coefficients for continuance commitment

Model	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
Emotional Intelligence	.023	0.217	.829
Psychological empowerment	.063	0.550	.584
Gender	-.090	-0.911	.364
Age	.210	1.246	.215
Family status	.104	1.003	.318
Level of education	.175	1.626	.107
Job description	-.278	-2.186	.031
Job tenure	.089	0.498	.619
Monthly income	.051	0.365	.716

After performing the statistical analysis of the data, we came to the following outcome for the proposed hypotheses:

Table 5.22
Hypotheses results

H1:	Emotional intelligence has a positive relationship with affective organizational commitment	Not supported
H2:	Emotional intelligence has a negative relationship with continuance organizational commitment	Not supported
H3:	Psychological empowerment has a positive relationship with affective organizational commitment	Supported
H4:	Psychological empowerment has a negative relationship with continuance organizational commitment	Not supported

- 68 -

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

6.1 Discussion - Conclusions

The first objective of this study was to examine the combined effect of emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment on affective organizational commitment. It was found that only psychological empowerment has a statistically significant, positive relationship with affective commitment. This means that employees who perceive higher control, competence and goal internalization will be more committed to the organization and its purposes. Banks could thus benefit from productive and effective employees who act as organizational citizens. The growth of the service industry, and especially the banking sector, in the recent decades in Greece, enhances the role of psychological empowerment in the workplace.

This finding is in accordance with various studies in the existing literature, which suggest that psychological empowerment is positively related with commitment (Avolio, et al., 2004; Jha, 2011; Kraimer, et al., 1999; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990).

The relationship between emotional intelligence and affective commitment was not found statistically significant. Bivariate analysis (Pearson) has shown a significant positive correlation (**$r=.236$, $p=.008$**). However, this result was not confirmed during the multivariate analysis. In contradiction to the expected outcome, the results of the study do not support a positive correlation between the two constructs. It must be noted that there are inconsistent findings in the existing literature, as well. Some researchers provided evidence that emotional intelligence associates significantly with affective commitment (Abraham, 1999a; Carmeli, 2003; Nikolaou and Tsaousis, 2002) while others like (Guleryuz, et al., 2008; Rozell, et al., 2004) found no direct relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. Although the banking sector can be characterized as high in emotional labor, Wong and Law's (2002) argument that the relationship between emotional intelligence and affective commitment should be strong in a job with high emotional labor has not been verified either.

The second objective of the study was to identify the combined effect of emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment on continuance organizational commitment. The statistical analysis indicated that the model cannot be

complete and is not good fit for the data. This could be a result of more factors acting on the data and not being included and examined.

Concerning the impact of the control variables to the research model, significant difference was found only in the marital status of the employees. Married employees appeared to be more affectively committed to the organization. This result could be interpreted by the psychological maturity of married people, who are more stable and balanced in their life and their working environment. The increased financial burdens could also affect their commitment however it would be expected to influence their continuance commitment.

An interesting finding of this research was that there is no significant difference between males and females concerning the level of perceived emotional intelligence. Although research on gender differences in emotional intelligence has been limited (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003), the predominant view is that women score higher on measures of emotional intelligence than men (Mayer, et al., 1999; Mayer and Geher, 1996). It was an unexpected yet interesting finding especially for the human resource department of organizations that wish to hire emotional intelligent individuals.

With the scarcity of Greek empirical studies on this subject, there is a need to advance the currently available knowledge and identify an effective mixture of practices that are relevant in a Greek context. An attempt to develop an understanding practices affecting organizational commitment in large Greek organizations of the finance sector has been made through this research. Engaged employees equal engaged customers to improve customer service, banks must develop and nurture empowered and committed employees. Nowadays, when the "war for talent" has become a very significant issue for any organization (Ployhart, 2006), keeping productive employees within the organization is of major concern for almost every human resources professional. Subsequently, emotional intelligence in an empowering environment should be examined as an organizational structure that could result in higher organizational commitment.

The theoretical contribution of this study lies in its inclusive approach, encompassing psychological empowerment and emotional intelligence's effect on organizational commitment. Therefore it is considered to be contributing to the

existing literature of organizational commitment. Its combination of research questions and methods is relatively new to the line of organizational commitment studies in Greece, making it a starting point for further lines of exploration.

On a practical level, the results of this study will hopefully provide practitioners with better insights into some practices that could be used to elevate organizational commitment. This study adds to the body of knowledge on the general subject of employee commitment.

6.3 Limitations and future research directions

The impact of emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment on organizational commitment was explored in this study. The findings of this study could be considered as incomplete because of the possibility of other moderating and mediating variables in the relationships between the suggested constructs. Another limitation is the fact that emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment were addressed as unitary constructs, without examining each of their dimensions separately.

In terms of methodology, this study has several potential limitations. First, the sample of this study is small and restricted to a certain group with similar demographic characteristics: employees of one bank in a Greek cultural setting. The findings, therefore, should be interpreted with caution as the participants do not represent all bank employees in this country.

Moreover, this study relied on self-reported and reflective recollections of the indicators of the constructs in this study, by employees who volunteered their participation. Because of the perceptual nature of the data, there is the possibility of a percept-percept bias. Moreover, the research has been conducted only once, and we cannot come to conclusions about the longitudinal effect of the constructs examined.

Finally, an important factor that might compromise the results of this study is the effect of the economic cycles on the organizational commitment of employees. During periods of deep economic recession like the current one, financial crisis could be reflected on the outcome especially on continuance commitment due to the lack of job alternatives.

To resolve the limitations above, future research needs to be based on multiple sources. Moreover, to increase the generalizability of the present study, more data

collection from various locations and different demographic backgrounds is recommended, in order to replicate the study in other cultural and labor contexts. A more comprehensive approach, with a less limited sample could make generalizations to the total population possible.

REFERENCES

Abraham, R., 1999a. Emotional Intelligence in Organizations: A Conceptualization. Genetic, Social and General Psychology Monographs, Volume 125, p. 209.

Abraham, R., 1999b. The impact of emotional dissonance on organizational commitment and intention to turnover. *The Journal of Psychology,* Volume 133, pp. 441-455.

Abraham, R., 2000. The role of job control as a moderator of emotional dissonance and emotional intelligence-outcome relationships. *The Journal of Psychology,* Volume 134(Issue 2), pp. 169-184.

Abramson, L. Y., Seligman, M. E. & Teasdale, J. D., 1978. Learned helplessness in humans: Critique and reformulation. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology,* Volume 87(Issue 1), pp. 49-74.

Ackerman, P. L. & Heggestad, E. D., 1997. Intelligence, personality, and interests: Evidence of overlapping traits. *Psychological Bulletin,* Volume 121 (Issue 2)*,* pp. 219-245.

Allam, Z., 2011. Emotional Intelligence at workplace: A psychological review. *Global Management Review*, Volume 5(Issue 2), pp. 71-80.

Allen, N. J. & Lee, S. Y., 1993. *Work attitudes among police officers. Unpublished data*.

Allen, N. J. & Meyer, J. P., 1990. The Measurement and Antecedents of Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment to the Organisation. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, Volume 63, pp. 1-18.

Allen, N. J. & Meyer, J. P., 1996. Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: An examination of the construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* Volume 49, pp. 252-276.

Amabile, T., 1988. A model of creativity and innovation in organizations. In: B. M. Staw & L. Cumming, eds. *Resrach in Organizational Behavior.* Greenwich: CT: JAI Press, pp. 123-167.

Angle, H. L. & Perry, J. L., 1981. An empirical assessment of organizational commitment and organizational effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* Volume 26, pp. 1-13.

Argyris, C., 1998. The emperor's new clothes. *Harvard Business Review,* Volume 76, pp. 98-105.

Arthur, M. & Rousseau, D. M., 1996. *The boundaryless career: A new employment principle for a new organizational era.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Ashforth, B., 1989. The organizationally induced helplessness syndrome: a preliminary model. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* Volume 43, pp. 207-242.

Ashkanasy, N., 2003. Emotions in organizations: A multi-level perspective. *Research in Multi-level Issues,* Volume 2, pp. 9-54.

Ashkanasy, N. & Daus, K., 2001. Emotion in the Workplace: The new challenge for managers. *The Academy of Management Executive,* Volume 16(Issue 1), pp. 76-86.

Ashkanasy, N. & Daus, K., 2005. The Case for the Ability Based Model of Emotional Intelligence in Organizational Behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* Volume 26(Issue 4), pp. 453-466.

Ashkanasy, N. M. & Daus, C. S., 2005. Rumors of the death of emotional intelligence in organizational behavior are vastly exaggerated. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* Volume 26(Issue 4), pp. 441-452.

Ashkanasy, N. M. & Jordan, P. J., 1997. *Emotional Intelligence: Is this the key to understanding the job insecurity behavior link in organizational restructuring?.* Boston MA: Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Academy of Management.

Austin, E. J., Saklofske, D. H. & Egan, V., 2005. Personality, well-being and health correlates of trait emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences,* Volume 38, pp. 547-558.

Austin, E. J., Saklofske, D. H., Huang, S. H. S. & McKenney, D., 2004. Measurement of trait emotional intelligence: Testing and cross-validating a modified version of Schutte et al's (1998) measure. *Personality and Individual Differences,* Volume 36, pp. 555-562.

Avolio , B. J., Zhu, W., Koh, W. & Bhatia, P., 2004. Transformational leadership and organizational commitment: Mediating role of psychological empowerment and moderating role of structural distance.. *Journal of organizational behavior*, Volume 25, pp. 951-968.

Avolio , B. J., Zhu, W., Koh, W. & Bhatia, P., 2004. Transformational leadership and organizational commitment: Mediating role of psychological empowerment and moderating role of structural distance.. *Journal of organizational behavior*, Volume 25, pp. 951-968.

Balfour, D. L. & Wechsler, B., 1996. Organizational commitment: Antecedents and outcomes in public organizations. *Public Productivity and Management Review,* Volume 29, pp. 256-277.

Bandura, A., 1977. Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review ,* Volume 84, pp. 191-215.

Bandura, A., 1982. Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist,* Volume 37, pp. 122-147.

Bandura, A., 1986. *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory..* Englewood Cliffs: NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A., 1989. Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American Psychologist,* Volume 44, pp. 1175-1184.

Bandura, A., 1997. *Self efficacy: The exercise of control.* New York: NY: Freeman.

Bandura, A. & Locke, E. A., 2003. Negative self-efficacy and goal effects revisited. *Journal of applied psychology,* Volume 88, pp. 87-99.

Bar-On, R., 1997. *The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): A test of emotional intelligence.* Toronto: Multi Health Systems.

Bar-On, R., 2000. Emotional and Social Intelligence: Insights from the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i). In: R. Bar-On & J. A. Parker, eds. *Handbook of emotional intelligence.* San Francisco: CA: Jossey-Bass, pp. 363-388.

Bar-On, R., Brown, J. M., Kirkcaldy, B. D. & Thome, E. P., 2000. Emotional expression and implications for occupational stress; an application of the emotional

quotient inventory (EQ-i). *Personality and Individual Differences,* Volume 28, pp. 1107-1108.

Bateman, T. & Strasser, S., 1983. A cross-lagged regression test of the relationship between job tension and employee satisfaction.. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 68, pp. 439-445.

Bateman, T. & Strasser, S., 1984. A longitudinal analysis of the antecedents of organizational commitment. *Academy of Management Journal ,* Volume 21, pp. 95-112.

Becker, H. S., 1960. Notes on the concept of commitment. *The American Journal of Sociology,* Volume 66, pp. 32-42.

Becker, H. S., 1964. Personal change in adult life. *Sociometry,* Volume 27, pp. 40-53.

Bennis, W. G. & Nanus, B., 1985. *Leaders: Strategies for taking charge..* New York: NY: Collins Business.

Bluedorn, A. C., 1982. A unified model of turnover from organizations.. *Human Relations,* Volume 35, pp. 135-153.

Bogler, R. & Somech, A., 2004. Influence of teacher empowerment on teachers' organizational commitment, professional commitment and organizational citizenship behavior in schools. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* Volume 20, pp. 277-289.

Borghei, R., Jandaghi, G., Matin, H. Z. & Dastani, N., 2010. An examination of the relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment. *International Journal of Human Sciences*, Volume 7, pp. 63-79.

Boyatzis, R. E., 1994. Stimulating self-directed learning through the Managerial Assessment and Development Course. *Journal of Management Education,* Volume 18.

Boyatzis, R. E., 2006. Using tipping points of emotional intelligence and cognitive competencies to predict financial performance of leaders. *Psicothema,* Volume 18, pp. 124-131.

Boyatzis, R., Goleman, D. & Rhee, K., 2000. Clustering competence in emotional intelligence: insights from the emotional competence inventory (ECI). In: R. Bar-On

& J. D. Parker, eds. *Handbook of Emotional Intelligence.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, pp. 343-362.

Brackett, M. A. & Mayer, J. D., 2003. Convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of competing measures of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin,* Volume 29, pp. 1147-1158.

Brackett, M. et al., 2006. Relating emotional abilities to social functioning: A comparison of self-report and performance measures of emotional intelligence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology ,* Volume 91, pp. 780-795.

Brief, A. P. & Nord, W. R., 1990. *Meanings of Occupational Work.* San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Brislin, R. W., 1980. Translation and content analysis of oral and written material. In: H. C. Triandis & J. W. Berry, eds. *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, pp. 389-444.

Buchanan, B., 1974. Building organizational commitment: The socialization of managers in work organizations.. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* Volume 22, pp. 533-546.

Carmeli, A., 2003. The relationship between emotional intelligence and work attitudes, behavior and outcomes: An examination among senior managers. *Journal of Managerial Psychology,* Volume 18, pp. 788-813.

Carnuelli, A., 2003. The relationship between emotional intelligence and work attitudes behaviour and outcomes. An examination among senior managers. *Journal of Management Psychology,* Volume 8, pp. 788-813.

Chamorro-Premuzic, T., Bennett, E. & Furnham, A., 2007. The happy personality: mediational role of trait emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences,* Volume 42, pp. 1633-1639.

Chang, L. C., Shih, C. H. & Lin, S. M., 2010. The mediating role of psychological empowerment on job satisfaction and organizational commitment for school health nurses: A cross-sectional questionnaire survey. *International Journal of Nursing Studies,* Volume 47, pp. 427-433.

Chan, Y. H., 2004. A nomological network approach to the study of antecedents, moderators, mediators and outcomes of psychological empowerment. *Dissertation*

Abstracts International Section A: Humanities and Social Sciences, Volume 64(Issue 10-A), p. 3749.

Charbonneau, D. & Nicol, A., 2002. Emotional intelligence and leadership in adolescents. *Personality and Individual Differences,* Volume 33, pp. 1101-1113.

Cherniss, C., 1998. Social and emotional learning for leaders. *Educational Leadership,* Volume 55, pp. 26-28.

Cherniss, C., 2000. *Emotional intelligence: What it is and why it matters.* New Orleans, LA: Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations.

Cherniss, C. & Goleman, D., 2001. *The emotionally intelligent workplace: How to select for, measure and improve emotional intelligence in individuals, groups and organizations.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cho, J., Laschinger, H. K. & Wong, C., 2006. Workplace empowerment, work engagement and organizational commitment of new graduate nurses. *Canadian Journal of Nursing Leadership,* Volume 19, pp. 43-60.

Clugston, M., 2000. The mediating effects of multidimensional commitment on job satisfaction and intent to leave. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* Volume 21, pp. 477-486.

Cohen, A., 1991. Career stage as a moderator of the relationships between organizational commitment and its outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Occupational Psychology,* Volume 64, pp. 253-268.

Cohen, A., 2007. Commitment before and after: A reconceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review,* Volume 17, pp. 336-354.

Cohen, J. & Cohen, P., 1975. *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences..* Hillsdale: N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Colman , A. M., Norris, C. E. & Preston , C. C., 1997. Comparing rating scales of different lengths: equivalence of scores from 5-point and 7-point scales. *Psychological Reports,* Volume 80, pp. 355-362.

Conger, J. A. & Kanungo, R. N., 1988. The empowerment process: Integrating theory and practice. *Academy of Management Review,* Volume 13, pp. 471-482.

Conte, J. M., 2005. A Review and Critique of Emotional Intelligence Measures. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* Volume 26, pp. 433-440.

Cook, J. & Wall, T., 1980. New York Attitude Measures of Trust, Organizational Commitment and Personal Need Non-fulfillment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology,* Volume 53, pp. 39-52.

Cooper-Hakim, A. & Viswesvaran, C., 2005. The construct of work commitment: Testing an integrative framework. *Psychological Bulletin,* Volume 131, pp. 241-259.

Cooper, R. K. & Sawaf, A., 1997. *Executive EQ: emotional intelligence in leadership and organizations.* New York: Grosset Putnum.

Cortina, J. M., 1993. What is coefficient alpha? An examination of theory and applications. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 78, pp. 98-104.

Cronbach , L. J., 1951. Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika,* Volume 16, pp. 297-334.

Cullinane, N. & Dundon, T., 2006. The psychological contract: a critical review. *International Journal of Management Reviews,* Volume 8, pp. 113-129.

Davies, M., Stankov, L. & Roberts, R. D., 1998. Emotional intelligence: In search of an elusive construct. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* Volume 75, pp. 989-1015.

Day, A. L. & Caroll, S. A., 2007. Faking emotional intelligence (EI): Comparing response distortion on ability and trait-based EI measures. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* Volume 29, pp. 761-784.

DeCicco, J., Laschinger, H. & Kerr, M., 2006. Perceptions of empowerment and respect: effect on nurses' organizational commitment in nursing homes. *Journal of Gerontological Nursing,* Volume 32, pp. 49-56.

Deci, E., Connell, J. & Ryan, R., 1989. Self-determination in a work organization. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 74, pp. 580-90.

DeConinck, J. & Bachmann, D., 1994. Organizational commitment and turnover intention of marketing managers. *Journal of Applied Business Research,* Volume 10(Issue 3), pp. 87-95.

DeCotiis, T. A. & Summers, T. P., 1987. A path analysis of a model of the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment. *Human Relations,* Volume 40, pp. 445-470.

Dee, J. R., Henkin, A. B. & Duemer, L., 2003. Structural antecedents and psychological correlates of teacher empowerment. *Journal of Educational Administration,* Volume 41, pp. 257-277.

Diener, E., 1984. Subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin,* Volume 95, pp. 542-575.

Dulewicz, S. V. & Higgs, M. J., 2001. *EI general and general 360 user guide.* Windsor: NFER-Nelson.

Dulewicz, V. & Higgs, M., 1999. Can emotional intelligence be measured and developed?. *Leadership and Organizational Development Journal,* Volume 20, pp. 242-252.

Dulewicz, V. & Higgs, M., 2000. Emotional intelligence: A review and evaluation study. *Journal of Managerial Psychology,* Volume 15, pp. 341-372.

Dunham, R. B., Grube, J. A. & Castaneda, M. B., 1994. Organizational Commitment: The Utility of an Integrative Definition. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 79, pp. 370-380.

Eisenberger, R., Fasolo, P. & Davis-LaMastro, V., 1990. Perceived organizational support and employee diligence, commitment, and innovation. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 75, pp. 51-59.

Etzioni, A., 1975. *A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations.* New York: Free Press.

Eysenck, H. J., 1994. The Big Five or Giant Three: criteria for a paradigm. In: C. F. Halverson, G. A. Kohnstamm & R. P. Martin, eds. *The developing structure of temperament and personality from infancy to adulthood.* Erlbaum: Hillsdale.

Farrel, D. & Rusbult, C. E., 1981. Exchange variables as predictors of job satisfaction, job commitment and turnover: The impact of rewards, costs, alternatives and investments. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, Volume 27, pp. 78-95.

Feldt, L. S. & Brennan, R. L., 1989. Reliability. In: R. L. Linn, ed. *Educational measurement.* 3 ed. Washington D.C.: American Council on Education/Oryx, pp. 105-146.

Finegan, J. E., 1994. *Organizational commitment in the petrochemical industry. Unpublished data*

Fiorito, J., Bozeman, D., Young, A. & Meurs, J., 2007. Organizational Commitment, Human Resource Practices, and Organizational Characteristics. *Journal of Managerial Issues,* Volume 19, pp. 186-207.

Fletcher, C. & Williams, R., 1996. Performance management, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. *British Journal of Management,* Volume 7, pp. 169-179.

Frese , M. & Fay, D., 2001. Personal initiative: an active performance concept for work in the 21st Century. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, Volume 23, pp. 133-187.

Frese, M. et al., 1997. The concept of personal initiative: operationalization, reliability and validity in two German samples. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, Volume 70, pp. 139-161.

Freudenthaler, H. H. & Neubauer , A. C., 2003, July. *The localization of emotional intelligence within human abilities and personality.* Graz, Austria: Poster presented at the 11th Biennial Meeting of the International Society for the Study of the Individual Differences (ISSID).

Freudenthaler, H. H. & Neubauer, A. C., 2005. Emotional intelligence: The convergent and discriminant validities of intra-and interpersonal emotional abilities. *Personality and Individual Differences,* Volume 39, pp. 569-579.

Gardner , H., 1983. *Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences.* New York : Basic.

Gardner, L., 2003. *Assessing the relationship between work-place emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.* Melbourne: Paper Presented at the 5th Australia Industrial and Organisational Psychology Conference.

Geher, G., 2004. *Measuring emotional intelligence: common ground and controversy.* Hauppauge New York: Nova Science Publishers.

Gist, M. E., 1987. Self-efficacy: Implications for organizational behavior and human resource management. *Academy of Management Review,* Volume 12, pp. 472-485.

Goleman , D., 2001. Emotional Intelligence: perspectives on a theory of performance. In: C. Cherniss & D. Goleman, eds. *The emotionally intelligent workplace.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, pp. 27-44.

Goleman, D., 1995a. *Emotional intelligence.* New York: Bantam Books.

Goleman, D., 1995. *Emotional intelligence: why it can matter more than IQ.* London: Bloomsbury.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. & McKee, A., 2002. *Primal Leadership: realizing the power of emotional intelligence.* Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Gowing, M. K., 2001. Measurement of individual emotional competence. In: C. Cherniss & D. Goleman, eds. *The emotionally intelligent workplace: How to select for, measure, and improve emotional intelligence in individuals, groups, and organizations.* San Francisco CA: Jossey-Bass, pp. 83-131.

Greenspan, S. I., 1989. Emotional Intelligence. In: K. Field, B. J. Cohler & G. Wool, eds. *Learning and education: Psychoanalytic perspectives.* Madison CT: International Universities Press, pp. 209-243.

Griffeth, R. W., Hom, P. W. & Gaertner, S., 2000. A meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover: Update, moderator tests, and research implications for the millenium. *Journal of Management,* Volume 26, pp. 463-488.

Grubb, W. L. & McDaniel, M. A., 2008. The fakability of Bar-On's Emotional Quotient Inventory Short Form: Catch me if you can. *Human Performance,* Volume 20, pp. 43-59.

Guleryuz , G., Guney, S., Aydin, E. M. & Asan, O., 2008. The mediating effect of job satisfaction between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment of nurses: A questionnaire survey. *International Journal of Nursing Studies,* Volume 45, pp. 1625-1635.

Hackman , J. R. & Oldham, G. R., 1980. *Work redesign.* Reading: MA: Addison Wesley.

Hackman, J. R. & Oldham, G. R., 1976. Motivation through the design of work: Test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance,* Volume 16, pp. 250-279.

Hair, J. J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J. & Anderson, R. E., 2010. *Multivariate data analysis. A global perspective.* 7th ed. USA: Prentice Hall.

Handy, C., 1989. *The age of unreason.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Han, S. S., Moon, S. J. & Yun, E. K., 2009. Empowerment, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment: comparison of permanent and temporary nurses in Korea. *Applied Nursing Research*, Volume 22, pp. 15-20.

Han, S. S., Moon, S. J. & Yun, E. K., 2009. Empowerment, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment: comparison of permanent and temporary nurses in Korea. *Applied Nursing Research*, Volume 22, pp. 15-20.

Hartmann, L. C. & Bambakas, M., 2000. Organizational commitment: A multi method scale analysis and test of effects. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis,* Volume 8, pp. 89-108.

Hein, S., 1997. *EQ for Everybody:A Practical Guide to Emotional Intelligence.* Grainsville: Alligater.

Henson, R. K., 2001. Understanding internal consistency reliability estimates: A conceptual primer on coefficient alpha. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counselling and Development,* Volume 34, pp. 177-189.

Higgs, M. J. & Dulewicz, S. V., 1999. *Making sense of emotional intelligence.* Windsor: NFER-Nelson.

Hofstee, W. B., 2001. Personality and intelligence: Do they mix?. In: J. M. Collis & S. Messick, eds. *Intelligence and personality: Bridging the gap in theory and measurement.* Mahwah: NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, pp. 43-60.

Hrebiniak, L. G. & Alutto, J. A., 1972. Personal and Role-related Factors in the Development of Organizational Commitment. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* Volume 17, pp. 555-573.

Humborstad, S. W. & Perry, C., 2011. Employee empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment: An in-depth empirical investigation. *Chinese Management Studies,* Volume 15, pp. 325-344.

Jaros, S. J., 1997. An assessment of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment and turnover intentions.. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* Volume 51, pp. 319-337.

Jaros, S. T., Jermier, J. M., Koehler, J. W. & Sincich, T., 1993. Effects of continuance, affective and moral commitment on the withdrawal process: An evaluation of eight structural equation models. *Academy of Management Journal,* Volume 36, pp. 951-995.

Jha, S., 2011. Influence of psychological empowerment on affective, normative and continuance commitment: A study in the Indian IT industry. *Journal of Indiand Business Research,* Volume 3, pp. 263-282.

Joo, B. & Shim, J. H., 2010. Psychological empowerment and organizational commitment: the moderating effect of organizational learning culture. *Human Resource Development International,* Volume 13, pp. 425-441.

Jordan , P. J., Ashkanasy, N. M., Hartel , C. E. & Hooper, G. S., 2002. Workgroup emotional intelligence. Scale development and relationship to team process effectiveness and goal focus. *Human Resource Management Review,* Volume 12, pp. 195-214.

Jordan, P. J., Ashkanasy, N. M. & Hartel, C. J., 2002. Emotional intelligence as a moderator of emotional and behavioral reactions to job insecurity. *Academy of Management Review,* Volume 27, pp. 361-372.

Kacmar, M., Carlson, D. & Brymer, R. A., 1999. Antecedents and Consequences of Organizational Commitment: A Comparison of Two Scales. *Educational and Psychological Measurement,* Volume 59, pp. 976-994.

Kanter, R., 1977. *Men and women of the corporation.* New York: N.Y. Basic Books.

Kanter, R. M., 1968. Commitment and social organization: A study of commitment mechanisms in utopian communities. *American Sociological Review,* Volume 33, pp. 499-517.

Kanter, R. M., 1983. *The change masters.* New York: N.Y: Simon & Schuster.

Kantor, R. M., 1968. Commitment and social organization: a study of commitment mechanisms in Utopian communities.. *American Sociological Review,* Volume 33, pp. 499-517.

Kantor, R. M., 1968. Commitment and social organization: a study of commitment mechanisms in Utopian communities.. *American Sociological Review,* Volume 33, pp. 499-517.

Kark, R., Shamir, B. & Chen, G., 2003. The two faces of transformational leadership. Empowerment and dependency.. *Journal of applied psychology*, Volume 88, pp. 246-255.

Kelman, H. C., 1958. Compliance, Identification, and Internalization: Three processes of Attitude Change. *Journal of Conflict Resolution,* Volume 2, pp. 51-60.

Kim, J. & Rowley, C., 2005. Employee Commitment: A Review of the Background, Determinants and Theoretical Perspectives. *Asia Pacific Business Review,* Volume 11, pp. 105-124.

Kim, S., 2002. Participative management and job satisfaction: lessons for management leadership.. *Public Administration Review*, Volume 62, pp. 231-241.

Kirkman, B. L. & Rosen, B., 1999. Beyond self management: Antecedents and consequences of team empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal*, Feb, Volume 42, pp. 58-74.

Koberg, C., Boss, R. W., Senjem, J. C. & Goodman, E. A., 1999. Antecedents and outcomes of empowerment: an empirical evidence from the health care industry. *Group and organization management*, Volume 24, pp. 71-91.

Ko, J. W., Price, J. L. & Mueller, C. W., 1997. Assessment of Meyer and Allen's three component model of organizational commitment in South Korea. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 82, pp. 961-973.

Konczak, L., Stelly, D. & Trusty, M., 2000. Defining and measuring empowering leader behaviors. *Educational and Psychological Measurement,* Volume 60, pp. 301-312.

Kraimer, M. L., Seibert, S. E. & Liden, R. C., 1999. Psychological empowerment as a multidimensional construct: a test of construct validity. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, Volume 59, pp. 127-142.

Kruger, J. & Dunning, D., 1999. Unskilled and unaware of it: How difficulties in recognizing one's own incompetencce lead to inflated self-assessments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* Volume 77, pp. 1121-1134.

Landy, F. J., 2005. Some historical and scientific issues related to research on emotional intelligence. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* Volume 26, pp. 411-424.

Langhorn, S., 2004. How emotional intelligence can improve management performance. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* Volume 16, pp. 220-230.

Laschinger, H. S. & Finegan , J., 2005. Empowering nurses for work engagement and health in hospital settings. *Journal of Nursing administration,* Volume 35, pp. 439-449.

Laschinger, S. H., Finegan, J., Shamian, J. & Wilk, P., 2001. Impact of structural and psychological empowerment on job strain in nursing work settings: Expanding Kanter's model. *Journal of Nursing Administration,* Volume 31, pp. 260-272.

Law, K. S., Wong, C. S., Huang, G. H. & Li, X., 2008. The effects of emotional intelligence on job performance and life satisfaction for the search and development scientists in China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management,* Volume 25, pp. 51-69.

Law, K. S., Wong, C. S. & Song, L. J., 2004. The construct and criterion validity of emotional intelligence and its potential utility for management studies. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 89, pp. 483-496.

Lawler, E. E., Mohrman, S. A. & Benson , G., 2001. *Organizing for high performance: Employee involvement, TQM, reengineering, and Knowledge management in the Fortune 1000 companies..* San Francisco: CA: Jossey Bass.

Lee, S. M., 1971. An empirical analysis of organizational identification. *Academy of Management Journal,* Volume 14, pp. 213-226.

Leuner, B., 1966. Emotionale Intelligenz und Emanzipation [Emotional intelligence and emancipation]. *Praxis der Kinderpsychologie und Kinderpsychiatrie,* Volume 15, pp. 196-203.

Liden, R. C. & Arad, S., 1996. A power perspective of empowerment and work groups: Implication for HRM research.. *Research Personnel and HRM,* Volume 14, pp. 205-252.

Liden, R. C. & Tewksbury, T. W., 1995. Empowerment and work teams. In: G. R. Ferris, S. D. Rosen & D. T. Barnum, eds. *Handbook of Human Resources Management.* Oxford, England: Blackwell, pp. 386-403.

Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J. & Sparrowe, R. T., 2000. An examination of the mediating role of psychological empowerment on the relations between the job, interpersonal relationships, and work outcomes.. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 85, pp. 407-416.

Liu, A. M., Chiu, W. M. & Fellows, R., 2007. Enhancing commitment through work empowerment. *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management,* Volume 14, pp. 568-580.

Locke, E. A., 2005. Why emotional intelligence is an invalid concept. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* Volume 26, pp. 425-431.

Lopes, P. N. et al., 2006. Evidence that emotional intelligence is related to job performance and affect and attitudes at work. *Psicothema,* Volume 18, pp. 132-138.

Lu, C. S., Lai, K. H. & Cheng, T. E., 2007. Application of equation modelling to evaluate the intention of shippers to use internet services in liner shipping. *European Journal of Operational Research,* Volume 180, pp. 845-867.

Mandell, B. & Pherwani, S., 2003. Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadeship Style: A Gender Comparison. *Journal of Business and Psychology,* Volume 17, pp. 387-404.

Manz, C. C. & Sims, H., 1993. *Business without bosses: How self-managing teams are building high-performance companies.* New York: Wiley.

Marsh, R. M. & Mannari, H., 1977. Organizational Commitment and Turnover: A Predictive Study. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* Volume 22, pp. 57-75.

Martinez-Pons, M., 1997. The relation of emotional intelligence with selected areas of personal functioning. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality,* Volume 17, pp. 3-13.

Martinez-Pons, M., 2000. Emotional intelligence as a self-regulatory process: A social cognitive view. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality,* Volume 19, pp. 331-350.

Mathieu, J. E., Gilson , L. L. & Ruddy, T. M., 2006. Empowerment and team effectiveness: An empirical test of an integrated model. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 91, pp. 97-108.

Mathieu, J. E. & Zajac, D. M., 1990. A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment.. *Psychological Bulletin,* Volume 108, pp. 171-194.

Matthews, G., Roberts, R. D. & Zeidner, M., 2004. Seven Myths of Emotional Intelligence. *Psychological Inquiry,* 15(3), pp. 179-196.

Matthews, G., Zeidner , M. & Roberts, R. D., in press. Measuring emotional intelligence: Promises, pitfalls, solutions?. In: A. D. Ong & M. vanDulmen, eds. *Handbook of methods in positive psychology.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Matthews, G., Zeidner, M. & Roberts, R. D., 2002. *Emotional intelligence: Science and myth.* Cambridge: MA: MIT Press.

May, D. R., Gilson , R. L. & Harter, L. M., 2004. The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology,* Volume 77, pp. 11-37.

Mayer , J. D. & Salovey, P., 1993. The intelligence of emotional intelligence. *Intelligence,* Volume 17, pp. 433-442.

Mayer, J., 1999. Emotional intelligence: popular or scientific psychology?. *American Psychology Association Monitor,* Volume 30, p. 50.

Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R. & Salovey, P., 1999. Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence,* Volume 27, pp. 267-298.

Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. & Salovey, P., 2000. Selecting a measure of emotional intelligence: the case for ability scales. In: R. Bar-On & J. D. Parker, eds. *Handbook of emotional intelligence.* New York: Jossey Bass, pp. 320-342.

Mayer, J. D., DiPaolo, M. & Salovey, P., 1990. Perceiving affective content in ambiguous visual stimuli: A component of emotional intelligence. *Journal of Personality Assessment,* Volume 54, pp. 772-781.

Mayer, J. D. & Geher, G., 1996. Emotional Intelligence and the identification of emotion. *Intelligence,* Volume 22, pp. 89-113.

Mayer, J. D. & Salovey, P., 1997. What is emotional intelligence?. In: P. Salovey & D. J. Sluyter, eds. *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications.* New York: Basic Books, pp. 3-31.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P. & Caruso, D. R., 2000. Models of emotional intelligence. In: R. J. Sternberg, ed. *The handbook of intelligence.* New York: Cambridge University Press, pp. 396-420.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P. & Caruso, D. R., 2002. *The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MCEIT): User's manual.* Toronto: Multi-Health Systems.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D. R. & Sitarenios, G., 2001. Emotional intelligence as a standard intelligence. *Emotion,* Volume 1, pp. 232-242.

Mayer, R. C. & Schoorman , F. D., 1992. Predicting participation and production outcomes through a two dimensional model of organizational commitment. *Academy of Management Journal,* Volume 35, pp. 671-684.

Maynard, M. T., Gilson, L. L. & Mathieu, J. E., 2012. Empowerment-Fad or Fab? A Multilevel Review of the Past Two Decades of Research. *Journal of Management,* 38(4), pp. 1231-1281.

McDermott, K., Spence Laschinger, H. & Shamian , J., 1996. Work empowerment and organizational commitment. *Nursing Management,* 27(5), pp. 44-48.

McGee, G. W. & Ford, R. C., 1987. Two (or More?) Dimensions of Organizational Commitment: Reexamination of the Affective and Continuance Commitment Scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 72, pp. 638-642.

McKendall, M. A. & Margulis, S. T., 1995. People and their organizations: Rethinking the assumptions. *Business Horizons,* Volume 38, pp. 21-28.

McRae, R. R., 2000. Emotional Intelligence from the perspective of the five-factor model of personality. In: R. Bar-On & J. D. Parker, eds. *Handbook of emotional intelligence.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, pp. 263-276.

Mehrabian, A., 2000. Beyond IQ: broad-based measurement of individual success potential or "emotional intelligence". *Genetic Social and General Psychology Monographs,* Volume 126, pp. 133-239.

Menon, S. J., 2001. Employee Empowerment: An Integrative Psychological Approach. *Applied Psychology: An International Review,* Volume 50, pp. 153-180.

Meyer , J. P., 1997. Organizational commitment. In: C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson , eds. *International Review of industrial and organizational psychology.* Chichester, UK: Wiley, pp. 175-228.

Meyer , J. P. & Allen, N. J., 1984. Testing the "side-bet theory" of organizational commitment: Some methodological considerations. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 69, pp. 372-378.

Meyer, J. P., 2009. Commitment in a changing world of work.. In: H. J. Klein, T. E. Becker & J. P. Meyer, eds. *Commitment in Organizations: Accumulated wisdom and new directions.* Florence: KY: Routledge/Taylor and Francis Group, pp. 37-68.

Meyer, J. P. & Allen, N. J., 1991. A three component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, Volume 1, pp. 64-89.

Meyer, J. P. & Allen, N. J., 1997. *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J. & Gellatly, I. R., 1990. Affective and Continuance Commitment to the Organization: Evaluation of Measures and Analysis of Concurrent and Time-lagged Relations. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 75, pp. 710-720.

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J. & Smith, C. A., 1993. Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 78, pp. 538-551.

Meyer, J. P. & Parfyonova, N. M., 2010. Normative commitment in the workplace: A theoretical analysis and re-conceptualization. *Human Resource Management Review,* Volume 20, pp. 283-294.

Meyer, J. P. et al., 1989. Organizational commitment and job performance: It's the nature of the commitment that counts. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 74, pp. 152-156.

Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L. & Topolnytsky, L., 2002. Affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* Volume 61, pp. 20-52.

Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L. & Topolnytsky, L., 2002. Affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of Vocational behavior,* Volume 61, pp. 20-52.

Meyer, P. J. & Allen, J. N., 1984. Testing the side-bet theory of organizational commitment: Some methodological considerations. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 69, pp. 372-378.

Meyer, P. J. & Herscovitch, L., 2001. Commitment in the workplace: Toward a general model. *Human Resource Management Review,* Volume 11, pp. 299-326.

Michaels, P., 1994. An expanded conceptual framework on organizational commitment and job satisfaction for salesforce management. *Journal of Business and Society,* Volume 7, pp. 42-67.

Morris, J. H. & Steers, R. M., 1980. Structural influences on organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* Volume 17, pp. 50-57.

Morrow, P. C., 1983. Concept redundancy in organizational research: The case of work commitment. *Academy of Management Review,* Volume 8, pp. 486-500.

Mottaz, C., 1988. Determinants of organizational commitment. *Human Relations,* Volume 41, pp. 467-482.

Mowday, R. T., 1998. Reflections on the study and relevance of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review,* Volume 8, pp. 387-401.

Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W. & Steers, R. M., 1982. *Employee-organization Linkages: The Psychology of Commitment, Absenteism, and Turnover.* New York: Academic Press.

Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M. & Porter, L., 1979. The measurement of organizational commitment.. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* Volume 14, pp. 224-247.

Myers, D. G., 1988. *Psychology.* 5 ed. NY: Worth Publishers.

Newsome, S., Day, A. L. & Catano, V. M., 2000. Assessing the predictive validity of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences,* Volume 29, pp. 1005-1016.

Niehoff, B. P., Moorman, R. H., Blakely, G. & Fuller, J., 2001. The influence of empowerment and job enrichment on employee loyalty in a downsizing environment.. *Group & Organization Management*, Volume 26, pp. 93-112.

Nikolaou, I. & Tsaousis, I., 2002. Emotional intelligence in the Workplace. Exploring its effects on occupational stress and organizational commitment. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis,* Volume 10, pp. 327-342.

Nunnally, J. C., 1978. *Psychometric Theory.* 2 ed. New York, NY: Mc Graw-Hill.

Nyhan, R., 2000. Changing the paradigm: trust and its role in public sector organizations. *The American Review of Public Administration,* Volume 30, pp. 87-109.

O' Reilly, C. A. & Chatman, J., 1986. Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification and internalization on prosocial behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 71, pp. 492-499.

O' Reilly, C. A. I. & Caldwell, D. F., 1981. The commitment and job tenure of new employees: Some evidence of post decisional justification. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* Volume 26, pp. 597-616.

Olivier, A. L. & Rothmann, S., 2007. Antecedents of work engagement in a multinational oil company. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology,* Volume 33, pp. 49-56.

Parker, J. A., Summerfeldt, L. J., Hogan, M. J. & Majeski, S. A., 2004. Emotional intelligence and academic success: examining the transition from high school to university. *Personality and Individual Differences,* Volume 36, pp. 163-172.

Parker, J., Taylor, G. J. & Bagby, R. M., 2001. The relationship between emotional intelligence and alexithymia. *Personality and Individual Differences,* Volume 30, pp. 107-115.

Parker, S. K. & Spriggs, C. A., 1999. Minimizing strain and maximizing learning: the role of job demands, job control, and proactive personality.. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Volume 84, pp. 925-933.

Paulhus, D. L., Lysy, D. C. & Yik, M. S., 1998. Self-report measures of intelligence: Are they useful as proxy IQ tests?. *Journal of Personality,* Volume 66, pp. 525-553.

Payne, W. L., 1985. *A study of emotion: developing emotional intelligence; self-integration; relating to fear, pain and desire. (Theory, structure of reality, problem solving, contraction/expansion, tuning in/coming out/letting go). A doctoral dissertation.* [Online] Available at: http://eqi.org/payne.htm#July 2011[Accessed 15 July 2011].

Perez, J. C., Petrides, K. V. & Furnham, A., 2005. Measuring trait emotional intelligence. In: R. Schulze & R. D. Roberts, eds. *Emotional intelligence: An international handbook.* Cambridge: MA: Hogrefe & Huber, pp. 181-201.

Petrides, K. V., 2001. *A psychometric investigation into the construct of emotional intelligence.* London: University College London: Doctoral dissertation.

Petrides, K. V., 2011. Ability and Trait Emotional Intelligence. In: T. Chamorro-Premuzic, S. Von Stumm & A. Furnham, eds. *The Wiley-Blackwell Handbook of Individual Differences.* s.l.:Blackwell Publishing Ltd, pp. 656-677.

Petrides, K. V. & Furnham, A., 2000. On the dimensional structure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences,* Volume 29, pp. 313-320.

Petrides, K. V. & Furnham, A., 2001. Trait Emotional Intelligence: Psychometric Investigation with Reference to Established Trait Taxonomies. *European Journal of Personality,* Volume 15, pp. 425-448.

Pfeffer, J. & Lawler, J., 1980. Effects of job alternatives, extrinsic rewards and behavioral commitment on attitude toward the organization.. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* Volume 25, pp. 38-56.

Ployhart, R. E., 2006. Staffing in the 21st Century: New Challenges and Strategic Opportunities. *Journal of Management,* Volume 32, pp. 868-897.

Porter, L., Steers, R., Mowday, R. & Boulian, P., 1974. Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover among Psychiatric Technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 59, pp. 603-609.

Porter, L. W., Crampon, W. J. & Smith, F. J., 1976. Organizational commitment, managerial turnover: A longitudinal study. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance,* Volume 15, pp. 87-98.

Powell, D. M. & Meyer, J. P., 2004. Side-bet theory and the three-component model of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* Volume 65, pp. 157-177.

Prati, L. M. et al., 2003. Emotional intelligence, leadership effectiveness and team outcomes. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis,* Volume 11, pp. 21-41.

Price, J. L., 1977. *The study of turnover.* Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press.

Riketta, M. & Van Dick, R., 2005. Foci of attachment in organizations: A meta-analytic comparison of the strength and correlates of workgroups versus organizational identification and commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* Volume 67, pp. 490-510.

Ritzer, G. & Trice, H. M., 1969. An empirical study of Howard Becker's side-bet theory. *Social Forces,* Volume 47, pp. 475-478.

Rogers, E. W., 2001. A theoretical look at firm performance in high technology organizations: What does existing theory tell us?. *Journal of High Technology Management Research,* Volume 12, pp. 39-61.

Rotter, J. B., 1966. Generalized expectancies for internal versus external contro of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs: General and Applied,* Volume 80, pp. 1-28.

Rozell, E. J., Pettijoliu, C. E. & Parker, R. S., 2004. Customer oriented selling: Exploring the roles of emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. *Psychology and Marketing,* Volume 21, pp. 405-424.

Ryan , R. M. & Deci, E. L., 2001. On happiness and human potentials: A review of research on hedonic and eudaimonic well- being. *Annual Review of Psychology,* Volume 52, pp. 141-166.

Ryan, R. M., Huta, V. & Deci, E. L., 2008. Living well: A self-determination theory perspective on eudaimonia. *Journal of Hapinness Studies,* Volume 9, pp. 139-170.

Ryff, C. D., 1989. Hapinness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* Volume 57, pp. 1069-1081.

Sala, F., 2002. *Emotional Competence Inventory: Technical manual.* Philadelphia: PA: McClelland Center for Research, Hay Group.

Salami, S. O., 2008. Demographic and Psychological Factors Predicting Organizational Commitment Among Industrial Workers. *Anthropologist,* Volume 10, pp. 31-38.

Salancik, G. R., 1977. Commitment and the control of organizational behavior and belief. In: B. M. Staw & G. R. Salancik, eds. *New Directions in organizational behavior.* Chicago: St Claire Press, pp. 1-54.

Salovey, P., Bedell, B. T., Detweiler, J. B. & Mayer, J. D., 1999. Coping intelligently: emotional intelligence and the coping process. In: C. R. Snyder, ed. *Coping: the psychology of what works.* New York: Oxford University Press, pp. 141-164.

Salovey, P. & Mayer, J. D., 1990. Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality,* Volume 9, pp. 185-211.

Salovey, P. et al., 1995. Emotional attention, clarity and repair: exploring emotional intelligence using the Trait Meta-Mood scale. In: J. W. Pennebaker, ed. *Emotion, disclosure and health.* Washington DC: American Psychological Association, pp. 125-154.

Salovey, P., Stroud, L. R., Woolery, A. & Epel, E. S., 2002. Perceived emotional intelligence, stress reactivity, and symptom reports: further explorations using the trait meta-mood scale. *Psychology and Health,* Volume 17, pp. 611-627.

Schutte, N. S. et al., 1998. Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences,* Volume 25, pp. 167-177.

Seibert , S. E., Wang, g. & Courtright, S. h., 2011. Antecedents and consequences of psychological and team empowerment in organizations: A meta analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 96, pp. 981-1003.

Seibert, S. E., Silver, S. R. & Randolph, W. A., 2004. Taking empowerment to the next level: A multiple-level model of empowerment, performance, and satisfaction. *Academy of management journal,* Volume 47, pp. 332-349.

Sheldon, M. E., 1971. Investments and involvements as mechanisms producing commitment to the organization.. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* Volume 16, pp. 143-150.

Shi, J. & Wang, L., 2007. Validation of emotional intelligence scale in Chinese university students. *Personality and Individual Differences,* Volume 43, pp. 377-387.

Sigler, T. H. & Pearson, C. M., 2000. Creating an empowering culture: examining the relationship between organizational culture and perceptions of empowerment. *Journal of Quality Management*, Volume 5, pp. 27-52.

Smith, L. M., Andrusyszyn, M. A. & Laschinger, H., 2010. Effects of workplace incivility and empowerment on newly graduated nurses' organizational commitment. *Journal of Nursing Management,* Volume 18, pp. 1004-1015.

Song, L. J. et al., 2010. The differential effects of general mental ability and emotional intelligence on academic performance and social interactions. *Intelligence,* Volume 38, pp. 137-143.

Spain, J. S., Eaton, L. G. & Funder, D. C., 2000. Perspectives of personality: The relative accuracy of self versus others for the prediction of emotion and behavior. *Journal of Personality ,* Volume 68, pp. 837-867.

Sparrowe, R. T., 1994. Empowerment in hospitality industry: An exploration of antecedents and outcomes. *Hospitality research journal,* Volume 17, pp. 51-73.

Spector, P., 1986. Perceived control by employees: a meta-analysis of studies concerning autonomy and participation at work. *Human Relations*, Volume 39, pp. 1005-1016.

Spreitzer, G., 1996. Social structural characteristics of psychological empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal,* Volume 39, pp. 483-504.

Spreitzer, G. M., 1995a. An empirical test of a comprehensive model of intrapersonal empowerment in the workplace. *American Journal of Community Psychology,* Volume 23, pp. 601-629.

Spreitzer, G. M., 1995. Psychological empowerment in the workplace: Dimensions, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal,* Volume 38, pp. 1442-1465.

Spreitzer, G. M., 2008. Taking stock: A review of more than twenty years of research on empowerment at work. In: J. Barling & C. L. Cooper, eds. *Handbook of organizational behavior.* Thousand Oaks: CA: Sage, pp. 54-72.

Spreitzer, G. M., DeJanasz, S. C. & Quinn, R. E., 1999. Empowered to lead: The role of psychological empowerment to leadership. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* Volume 20, pp. 511-516.

Spreitzer, G. M., Kizilos, M. A. & Nason, S. W., 1997. A dimensional analysis of the relationship between psychological empowerment and effectiveness, satisfaction, and strain. *Journal of Management,* Volume 23, pp. 679-704.

Spreitzer, G. M. & Mishra, A. K., 2002. To stay or to go? Voluntary survivor turnover following on organizational downsizing. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Volume 23, pp. 707-729.

Spreitzer, G. M. & Quinn, R. E., 2001. *A company of leaders: Five disciplines for unleashing the power in your workforce.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Stebbins, R. A., 1970. On Misunderstanding the Concept of Commitment: A Theoretical Clarification. *Social Forces,* Volume 48, pp. 526-529.

Steiner, C., 1997. *Achieving Emotional Literacy.* London: Bloomsbury.

Stephens, R. D., Dawley, D. D. & Stephens, D. B., 2004. Commitment on the Board: A Model of Volunteer Directors' Levels of Organizational Commitment and Self-reported Performance. *Journal of Managerial Issues,* Volume 16, pp. 483-504.

Stroh, L. & Reilly, A. H., 1997. Loyalty in the age of downsizing. *Sloan Management Review,* Volume 38, pp. 83-88.

Sullivan, A. K., 1999. The emotional intelligence scale for children. *Dissertation Abstracts International,* Volume 60, p. 68.

Sutton, C. D. & Harrison, A. W., 1993. Validity Assessment of Compliance, Identification, and Internalization as Dimensions of Organizational Commitment. *Educational and Psychological Measurement,* Volume 53, pp. 217-223.

Tapia, M., 2001. Measuring emotional intelligence. *Psychological Reports,* Volume 88, pp. 353-364.

Tett, R. P. & Meyer, J. P., 1993. Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and turnover: Path analyses based on meta-analytic findings.. *Personnel Psychology,* Volume 46, pp. 259-293.

Thomas, K. W. & Velthouse, B. A., 1990. Cognitive elements of empowerment: An interpretive model of intrinsic task motivation.. *Academy of Management Review,* Volume 15, pp. 666-681.

Thomas, K. W. & Velthouse, B. A., 1990. Cognitive elements of empowerment: An interpretive model of intrinsic task motivation.. *Academy of Management Review,* Volume 15, pp. 666-681.

Thorndike, E. L., 1920. Intelligence and its use. *Harper's Magazine,* Volume 140, pp. 227-235.

Tsaousis, I., 2008. Measuring trait emotional intelligence: development and psychometric properties of the Greek Emotional Intelligence Scale. *Psychology,* Volume 15, pp. 200-218.

Tsaousis, I. & Nikolaou, I., 2005. Exploring the relationship of emotional intelligence with physical and psychological health functioning. *Stress and Health,* Volume 21, pp. 77-86.

Tsui, A. S., Pearce, J. L., Porter, L. W. & Hite, J. P., 1995. Choice of employee-organization relationship: Influence of external and internal organizational factors. In: G. R. Ferris, ed. *Research in personnel and human resources management.* Greenwich CT: JAI, pp. 117-151.

Vacha-Haase, T., Ness, C., Nilsson, J. & Reetz, D., 1999. Practices regarding reporting of reliability coefficients: A review of three journals. *Journal of Experimental Education,* Volume 67, pp. 335-341.

Van der Zee, K., Thijs, M. & Schakel , L., 2002. The relationship of emotional intelligence with academic intelligence and the Big Five. *European Journal of Personality,* Volume 16, pp. 103-125.

Van Rooy, D. L. & Viswesvaran, C., 2004. Emotional intelligence: a meta-analytic investigation of predictive validity and nomological net. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* Volume 65, pp. 71-95.

Vance, R. J., 2006. Employee Engagement and Commitment: A guide to understanding, measuring and increasing engagement in your organization. *Society for Human Resource Management,* pp. 1-45.

Vanderberg, R. J., Self, R. M. & Sep, J. H., 1994. A critical examination of the internalization, identification, and compliance commitment measures. *Journal of Management,* Volume 20, pp. 123-140.

Wall, T. D., Jackson, P. R., Mullarkey, S. & Parker, S. K., 1996. The demands-control model of job strain: a more specific test.. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, Volume 69, pp. 153-166.

Wang, J. L. & Zhang, D. J., 2009. A measure of psychological empowerment for teachers in P. R. China. *Journal of Educational Research,* Volume 3, pp. 56-65.

Wayne, S. J. et al., 1994. *Reward Systems, empowerment, and effectiveness study: Feedback report [Technical report].* Chicago: Center for Human Resource Management, University of Illinois.

Wayne, S., Liden, R. & Sparrowe, R., 2000. An examination of the mediating role of psychological empowerment on the relations between the job, interpersonal relationships, work outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 85, pp. 407-416.

Webb, K. S., 2009. Why emotional intelligence should matter to managers. *Society for Advancement of Management Journal,* Volume 74, pp. 32-41.

Webb, K. S. & Lumsden, B. L., 2006. Motivating Peak Performance: Leadership behaviors that stimulate employee motivation and performance. *The Journal of Christian Higher Education,* Volume 7, pp. 53-71.

Wechsler, D., 1940. Non-intellective factors in general intelligence. *Psychological Bulletin,* Volume 37, pp. 444-445.

Wellins, R. S., Byham, W. & Wilson, J., 1991. *Empowered teams: Creating self-directed work groups that improve quality, productivity, and participation.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Whitman, D. S., VanRooy, D. L., Viswesvaran, C. & Kraus, E., 2009. Testing the Second-Order Factor Structure and Measurement Equivalence of the Wong and Law emotional intelligence scale across gender and ethnicity. *Educational and Psychological Measurement,* Volume 20, pp. 1-15.

Wiener, Y., 1982. Commitment in Organizations: A Normative View. *Academy of Management Review,* Volume 7, pp. 418-428.

Williams, L. J. & Hazer, J. T., 1986. Antecedents and consequences of satisfaction and commitment in turnover models: a re-analysis using latent variable structural equation methods. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 71, pp. 219-231.

Wong, C. & Law, K. S., 2002. The effects of leaders and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study. *Leadership Quarterly*, Volume 13, pp. 243-274.

Wu, V. & Short, P. M., 1996. The relationship of empowerment to teacher job commitment and job satisfaction. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, Volume 23, pp. 85-89.

Yoon, M. H., Beatty, S. E. & Suh, V., 2001. The effect of work climate on critical employee and customer outcomes: an employee-level analysis. *International Journal of Service Industry Management,* Volume 12, pp. 500-521.

Zeidner, M., Matthews, G. & Roberts, R., 2004. Emotional intelligence in the workplace: a critical review. *Applied Psychology: An International Review,* Volume 53, pp. 371-399.

Zimmerman, M. A., 1995. Psychological empowerment: Issues and illustrations. *American Journal of Community Psychology,* Volume 23, pp. 581-599.

APPENDICES
Appendix 1 Questionnaires

1.1 Questionnaire (methodology)

Researcher: Eleni Bareka, TEI of Larissa and Staffordshire University
Telephone number: 2421090809   e-mail: elbareka@nbg.gr

Supervisor: Assistant Professor Nikolaos Kakkos, Department of Business Administration, TEI of Larissa
Telephone number: 2410684708   e-mail: n.kakkos@teilar.gr

<u>QUESTIONNAIRE</u>

**"Understanding the link between Emotional Intelligence,
Psychological Empowerment and Organizational Commitment
in the Banking Sector"**

This questionnaire is strictly personal and ANONYMOUS. It will take about 5 minutes to complete. Your answers are considered CONFIDENTIAL and will be used exclusively for academic purposes. Your contribution is valuable and will make the difference between the success or failure of this research (as well as my thesis!).

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

SECTION A. EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree, by checking the appropriate box [X].

	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
SELF EMOTION APPRAISAL (SEA) ITEMS (1-4)							
1. I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I have good understanding of my own emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I really understand what I feel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I always know whether or not I am happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
OTHERS' EMOTION APPRAISAL (OEA) ITEMS (5-8)							
5. I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I am a good observer of others' emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
USE OF EMOTION (UOE) ITEMS (9-12)							
9. I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I always tell myself I am a competent person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I am a self-motivated person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I would always encourage myself to try my best.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
REGULATION OF EMOTION (ROE) ITEMS (13-16)							
13. I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I have good control of my own emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Wong and Law, 2002

SECTION B. PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree, by checking the appropriate box [X].							
	Strongly disagree						**Strongly agree**
MEANING ITEMS (1-3)							
1. The work that I do is important to me.							
2. My job activities are personally meaningful to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The work I do is meaningful to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
COMPETENCE ITEMS (4-6)							
4. I am confident about my ability to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SELF DETERMINATION ITEMS (7-9)							
7. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my own work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
IMPACT ITEMS (10-12)							
10. I have significant influence over what happens in my department.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. My impact on what happens in my department is large.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Spreitzer, 1995

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree, by checking the appropriate box [X].

	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT SCALE ITEMS (1-6)							
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT SCALE ITEMS (7-12)							
7. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. If I had not already put too much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer, et al., 1993

Please select the appropriate box **[X].**

Gender:

❑ Male   ❑ Female

Age:

❑ 18-25   ❑ 26-40   ❑ 41-50   ❑ over 50

Marital status

❑ Married   ❑ Single   ❑ Other

Level of education

❑ Elementary education

❑ High school

❑ University degree

❑ Master's degree

❑ Ph.D.

Job description

❑ Employee

❑ Supervisor

❑ Assistant Manager

❑ Manager

Years of service at the bank:

❑ up to 5   ❑ 6-15   ❑ 16-25   ❑ OVER 26

Net monthly income: (in EURO)

❑ up to 1000   ❑ 1001-1500   ❑ 1501-2000   ❑ 2001-2500   ❑ over 2500

Thank you for your time!

1.2 Distributed Questionnaire in Greek

Ερευνήτρια: Ελένη Μπαρέκα, ΤΕΙ Λάρισας και Staffordshire University
Τηλέφωνο: 2421090809   e-mail: elenibar@teilar.gr

Επιβλέπων: Επίκ. Καθηγητής Νικόλαος Κάκκος, Τμήμα: Διοίκησης Επιχειρήσεων, ΤΕΙ Λάρισας
Τηλέφωνο: 2410684708   e-mail: n.kakkos@teilar.gr

<u>ΕΡΩΤΗΜΑΤΟΛΟΓΙΟ</u>

ΣΥΝΑΙΣΘΗΜΑΤΙΚΗ ΝΟΗΜΟΣΥΝΗ ΚΑΙ ΑΦΟΣΙΩΣΗ
ΤΩΝ ΕΡΓΑΖΟΜΕΝΩΝ ΣΤΟΝ ΤΡΑΠΕΖΙΚΟ ΚΛΑΔΟ

Το παρόν ερωτηματολόγιο είναι αυστηρώς προσωπικό και **ΑΝΩΝΥΜΟ**. Θα χρειαστείτε περίπου 5 λεπτά για να το συμπληρώσετε. Οι απαντήσεις σας θεωρούνται **ΕΜΠΙΣΤΕΥΤΙΚΕΣ** και θα χρησιμοποιηθούν αποκλειστικά για ακαδημαϊκούς σκοπούς. Η συνεισφορά σας είναι πολύτιμη και θα κάνει τη διαφορά μεταξύ της επιτυχίας και της αποτυχίας της έρευνας αυτής (καθώς και της πτυχιακής μου εργασίας!).
Σας ευχαριστώ εκ των προτέρων για την συμμετοχή σας.

Παρακαλώ επιλέξτε [Χ] το βαθμό στον οποίο συμφωνείτε με τις ακόλουθες προτάσεις.

		Διαφωνώ απολύτως					Συμφωνώ απολύτως	
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1	Τις περισσότερες φορές γνωρίζω καλά την αιτία για αυτά που νιώθω.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
2	Δε χρειάζομαι την ενθάρρυνση κάποιου για να φέρω εις πέρας ένα έργο.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
3	Καταλαβαίνω καλά τα συναισθήματα των ανθρώπων γύρω μου.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
4	Πάντα ξέρω αν είμαι ευχαριστημένος/η ή όχι.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
5	Από τη συμπεριφορά των φίλων μου γνωρίζω πάντα πως αισθάνονται.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
6	Πάντα «ενθαρρύνω» τον εαυτό μου να κάνει ό,τι καλύτερο μπορεί.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
7	Καταφέρνω να ελέγχω το θυμό μου και να χειρίζομαι τις δυσκολίες με τη λογική.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
8	Πραγματικά αντιλαμβάνομαι αυτό που αισθάνομαι.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
9	Πάντα θέτω στόχους (στον εαυτό μου) και μετά κάνω ό,τι καλύτερο μπορώ για να τους πετύχω.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
10	Πάντα τονίζω στον εαυτό μου ότι είμαι ένας άνθρωπος με ικανότητες.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
11	Κατανοώ σε μεγάλο βαθμό τα συναισθήματά μου.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
12	Είμαι καλός/ή παρατηρητής/τρια των συναισθημάτων των άλλων γύρω μου.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
13	Είμαι ευαίσθητος/η όσον αφορά τα αισθήματα και συναισθήματα των άλλων.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
14	Είμαι γενικά ικανός/ή στο να ελέγχω τα συναισθήματά μου.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
15	Καταφέρνω πάντα να ηρεμήσω γρήγορα, όταν θυμώσω πολύ.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
16	Έχω αυτοπειθαρχία όσον αφορά τα συναισθήματά μου.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏

Παρακαλώ επιλέξτε [Χ] το βαθμό στον οποίο συμφωνείτε με τις ακόλουθες προτάσεις.

		Διαφωνώ απολύτως					Συμφωνώ απολύτως	
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1	Η εργασία που κάνω είναι σημαντική για μένα.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
2	Μπορώ να αποφασίσω μόνος/η μου το πώς θα κάνω τη δουλειά μου.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
3	Έχω σημαντική δυνατότητα για ανεξαρτησία και ελευθερία σχετικά με το πώς εκτελώ την εργασία μου.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
4	Πιστεύω ότι έχω την ικανότητα να κάνω καλά τη δουλειά μου.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
5	Κατέχω τις απαραίτητες δεξιότητες για την εργασία μου.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
6	Έχω σημαντική επιρροή σε ό,τι συμβαίνει στο τμήμα μου.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
7	Έχω μεγάλη επίδραση (συμβολή) σε ό,τι συμβαίνει στο τμήμα μου.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
8	Έχω σημαντική αυτονομία στον προσδιορισμό του τρόπου εργασίας μου	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
9	Είμαι βέβαιος/η για τις ικανότητές μου να φέρω εις πέρας τα εργασιακά μου καθήκοντα.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
10	Η συγκεκριμένη δουλειά που κάνω έχει νόημα για μένα.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
11	Έχω υψηλό βαθμό ελέγχου σε ό,τι συμβαίνει στο τμήμα μου.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
12	Οι επαγγελματικές μου δραστηριότητες έχουν νόημα και σημασία για μένα προσωπικά.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏

Παρακαλώ επιλέξτε [Χ] το βαθμό στον οποίο συμφωνείτε με τις ακόλουθες προτάσεις.

		Διαφωνώ απολύτως					Συμφωνώ απολύτως	
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1	Θα ήμουν πολύ ευχαριστημένος/η να τελειώσω τη σταδιοδρομία/καριέρα μου στην Τράπεζα που εργάζομαι.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
2	Αισθάνομαι πραγματικά ότι τα προβλήματα της Τράπεζας είναι και δικά μου.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
3	Νιώθω έντονα ότι «ανήκω» («είμαι μέρος της») σε αυτή την Τράπεζα.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
4	Αισθάνομαι «συναισθηματικά συνδεδεμένος/η» με την Τράπεζα.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
5	Αισθάνομαι σαν «μέλος της οικογένειας» στην Τράπεζα.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
6	Η Τράπεζα όπου εργάζομαι σημαίνει πολλά για μένα.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
7	Αυτή τη στιγμή η παραμονή μου στην Τράπεζα είναι τόσο θέμα αναγκαιότητας όσο και επιθυμίας.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
8	Θα μου ήταν πολύ δύσκολο να εγκαταλείψω την Τράπεζα αυτή τη στιγμή, ακόμα και αν το ήθελα.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
9	Θα ανατρέπονταν πολλά πράγματα στη ζωή μου αν αποφάσιζα να εγκαταλείψω την Τράπεζα τώρα.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
10	Αισθάνομαι ότι έχω πολύ λίγες διαθέσιμες επιλογές, για να σκεφτώ να φύγω από τη δουλειά μου.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
11	Εάν δεν είχα προσφέρει τόσα πολλά από τον εαυτό μου σε αυτή την Τράπεζα, ίσως σκεφτόμουν να εργαστώ αλλού.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
12	Αν εγκατέλειπα την Τράπεζα, μια σοβαρή συνέπεια θα ήταν η έλλειψη διαθέσιμων εναλλακτικών επιλογών.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Φύλο:
❏ Άνδρας   ❏ Γυναίκα

Ηλικία:
❏ 18 - 25   ❏ 26 - 40   ❏ 41-50   ❏ 51 και άνω

Οικογενειακή κατάσταση
❏ **Έγγαμος**   ❏ **Άγαμος**   ❏ **Άλλο**

Επίπεδο εκπαίδευσης:
❏ Πρωτοβάθμια Εκπαίδευση (Δημοτικό, Γυμνάσιο)
❏ Δευτεροβάθμια Εκπαίδευση (Λύκειο, ΤΕΕ)
❏ Ανώτατη Εκπαίδευση (ΑΕΙ, ΑΤΕΙ)
❏ Μεταπτυχιακό
❏ Διδακτορικό

Θέση Εργασίας:
❏ Υπάλληλος
❏ Προϊστάμενος
❏ Υποδιευθυντής-Εντεταλμένος
❏ Διευθυντής

Έτη υπηρεσίας στην τράπεζα:
❏ έως 5   ❏ 6-15   ❏ 16-25   ❏ πάνω από 26

Μηνιαίες αποδοχές καθαρές (σε ΕΥΡΩ):
❏ έως 1000   ❏ 1001-1500   ❏ 1501-2000   ❏ 2001-2500
          ❏ πάνω από 2500

Σας ευχαριστώ πολύ για τον χρόνο σας!

1.3 Distributed Questionnaire translated in English

Researcher: Eleni Bareka, TEI of Larissa and Staffordshire University
Telephone number: 2421090809   e-mail: elbareka@nbg.gr

Supervisor: Assistant Professor Nikolaos Kakkos, Department of Business Administration, TEI of Larissa
Telephone number: 2410684708   e-mail: n.kakkos@teilar.gr

<u>QUESTIONNAIRE</u>

"Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Commitment
In the Banking Sector"

This questionnaire is strictly personal and ANONYMOUS. It will take about 5 minutes to complete. Your answers are considered CONFIDENTIAL and will be used exclusively for academic purposes. Your contribution is valuable and will make the difference between the success or failure of this research (as well as my thesis!).

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Please indicate [X] the degree to which you agree with the following sentences.

		Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
2	I have good understanding of my own emotions.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
3	I really understand what I feel.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
4	I always know whether or not I am happy.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
5	I always know my friends' emotions from their behaviour.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
6	I am a good observer of others' emotions.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
7	I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
8	I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
9	I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
10	I always tell myself I am a competent person.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
11	I am a self-motivated person.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
12	I would always encourage myself to try my best.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
13	I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
14	I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
15	I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
16	I have good control of my own emotions.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Section B

Please indicate [X] the degree to which you agree with the following sentences.

		Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	The work that I do is important to me.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
2	My job activities are personally meaningful to me.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
3	The work I do is meaningful to me.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
4	I am confident about my ability to do my job.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
5	I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
6	I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
7	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
8	I can decide on my own how to go about doing my own work.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
9	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
10	I have significant influence over what happens in my department.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
11	I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
12	My impact on what happens in my department is large.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Please indicate [X] the degree to which you agree with the following sentences.

		Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
2	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
3	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
4	I feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
5	I feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
6	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
7	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
8	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
9	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
10	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
11	If I had not already put too much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
12	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏

Gender:

❑ Male ❑ Female

Age:

❑ 18-25 ❑ 26-40 ❑ 41-50 ❑ over 50

Marital status

❑ Married ❑ Single ❑ Other

Level of education

❑ Elementary education

❑ High school

❑ University degree

❑ Master's degree

❑ Ph.D.

Job description

❑ Employee

❑ Supervisor

❑ Assistant Manager

❑ Manager

Years of service at the bank:

❑ up to 5 ❑ 6-10 ❑ 11-15 ❑ 16-20 ❑ 21-25 ❑ 25-30 ❑ over 30

Net monthly income: (in EURO)

❑ up to 1000 ❑ 1001-1500 ❑ 1501-2000 ❑ 2001-2500 ❑ over 2500

Thank you for your time!

Appendix 2 Conceptualizations of Emotional Intelligence

2.1 Conceptualization of emotional intelligence, Salovey and Mayer (1990)

2.2 Conceptualization of Emotional Intelligence, Salovey and Mayer (1997)

Reflective Regulation of Emotions to Promote Emotional and Intellectual Growth

Ability to stay open to feelings, both those that are pleasant and those that are unpleasant.	Ability to reflectively engage or detach from an emotion depending upon its judged informativeness or utility.	Ability to reflectively monitor emotions in relation to oneself and others, such as recognizing how clear, typical, influential, or reasonable they are.	Ability to manage emotion in oneself and others by moderating negative emotions and enhancing pleasant ones, without repressing or exaggerating information they may convey.

Understanding and Analyzing Emotions; Employing Emotional Knowledge

Ability to label emotions and recognize relations among the words and the emotions themselves, such as the relation between liking and loving.	Ability to interpret the meanings that emotions convey regarding relationships, such as that sadness often accompanies a loss.	Ability to understand complex feelings: simultaneous feelings of love and hate, or blends such as awe as a combination of fear and surprise.	Ability to recognize likely transitions among emotions, such as the transition from anger to satisfaction, or from anger to shame.

Emotional Facilitation of Thinking

Emotions prioritize thinking by directing attention to important information.	Emotions are sufficiently vivid and available that they can be generated as aids to judgment and memory concerning feelings.	Emotional mood swings change the individual's perspective from optimistic to pessimistic, encouraging consideration of multiple points of view.	Emotional states differentially encourage specific problem approaches such as when happiness facilitates inductive reasoning and creativity.

Perception, Appraisal, and Expression of Emotion

Ability to identify emotion in one's physical states, feelings, and thoughts.	Ability to identify emotions in other people, designs, artwork, etc., through language, sound, appearance, and behavior.	Ability to express emotions accurately, and to express needs related to those feelings.	Ability to discriminate between accurate and inaccurate, or honest versus dishonest expressions of feeling.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Appendix 3 Profile of the National Bank of Greece

ΚΑΤΑΝΟΜΗ ΤΟΥ ΠΡΟΣΩΠΙΚΟΥ ΤΗΣ ΕΤΕ
ΣΤΗ ΔΙΟΙΚΗΣΗ ΚΑΙ ΤΑ ΚΑΤΑΣΤΗΜΑΤΑ ΣΤΙΣ 31.12.2010
(ΑΡΙΘΜΗΤΙΚΑ & ΠΟΣΟΣΤΙΑΙΑ)

ΔΙΟΙΚΗΣΗ	4.403	36,04%
ΔΙΚΤΥΟ	7.814	63,96%
ΣΥΝΟΛΟ	12.217	100,00%
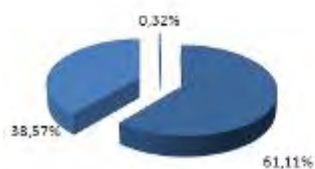
ΑΤΤΙΚΗ	7.466	61,11%
ΥΠΟΛΟΙΠΟ ΕΛΛΑΔΑΣ	4.712	38,57%
ΕΞΩΤΕΡΙΚΟ	39	0,32%
ΣΥΝΟΛΟ	12.217	100,00%

ΚΑΤΑΝΟΜΗ ΤΟΥ ΠΡΟΣΩΠΙΚΟΥ ΤΗΣ ΕΤΕ
ΜΕ ΒΑΣΗ ΤΟ ΜΟΡΦΩΤΙΚΟ ΕΠΙΠΕΔΟ ΣΤΙΣ 31.12.2010
(ΑΡΙΘΜΗΤΙΚΑ & ΠΟΣΟΣΤΙΑΙΑ)
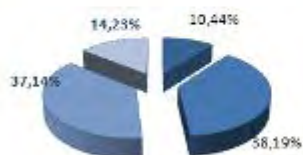
ΜΟΡΦΩΤΙΚΟ ΕΠΙΠΕΔΟ	ΠΛΗΘΟΣ	% ΕΠΙ ΤΟΥ ΣΥΝΟΛΟΥ
Πρωτοβάθμια εκπαίδευση (Δημοτικό- Γυμνάσιο)	1.275	10,44%
Δευτεροβάθμια εκπαίδευση (Λύκειο)	4.666	38,19%
Τριτοβάθμια εκπαίδευση (Πανεπιστήμια)	4.537	37,14%
Μεταπτυχιακή εκπαίδευση (Master/Διδακτορικά)	1.739	14,23%
ΣΥΝΟΛΟ	12.217	100%

* Οι αριθμοί του πίνακα αναφέρονται στο προσωπικό της Τράπεζας που έχει προσληφθεί στην Ελλάδα
και δεν συμπεριλαμβάνουν επιπλέον προσωπικό μονάδων του Εξωτερικού, καθώς και το προσωπικό του Ομίλου.

- 117 -

ΚΑΤΑΝΟΜΗ ΤΟΥ ΠΡΟΣΩΠΙΚΟΥ ΤΗΣ ΕΤΕ
ΚΑΤΑ ΦΥΛΟ ΣΤΙΣ 31.12.2010
(ΑΡΙΘΜΗΤΙΚΑ & ΠΟΣΟΣΤΙΑΙΑ)
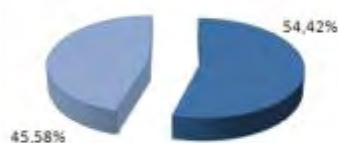
ΑΝΔΡΕΣ	6.648	54,42%
ΓΥΝΑΙΚΕΣ	5.569	45,58%
ΣΥΝΟΛΟ	12.217	100,00%

ΚΑΤΑΝΟΜΗ ΤΟΥ ΠΡΟΣΩΠΙΚΟΥ ΤΗΣ ΕΤΕ
ΜΕ ΒΑΣΗ ΤΑ ΕΤΗ ΥΠΗΡΕΣΙΑΣ ΣΤΙΣ 31.12.2010
(ΑΡΙΘΜΗΤΙΚΑ & ΠΟΣΟΣΤΙΑΙΑ)

ΕΤΗ ΥΠΗΡΕΣΙΑΣ	ΠΛΗΘΟΣ	% ΕΠΙ ΤΟΥ ΣΥΝΟΛΟΥ
μέχρι 5	1755	14,37%
5 - 10	1.379	11,29%
10 - 15	1.076	8,81%
15 - 20	1.707	13,97%
20 - 25	1.571	12,86%
25 - 30	3.618	29,61%
30 - 35	934	7,65%
35 +	177	1,45%
ΣΥΝΟΛΟ	12.217	100,00%

* Οι αριθμοί του πίνακα αναφέρονται στο προσωπικό της Τράπεζας που έχει προσληφθεί στην Ελλάδα
και δεν συμπεριλαμβάνουν επιτόπιο προσωπικό μονάδων του Εξωτερικού, καθώς και το προσωπικό του Ομίλου

Source: http://www.nbg.gr

Appendix 4 Conceptualizations of Psychological Empowerment

4.1 Empowerment model Laschinger et al. (2001b)
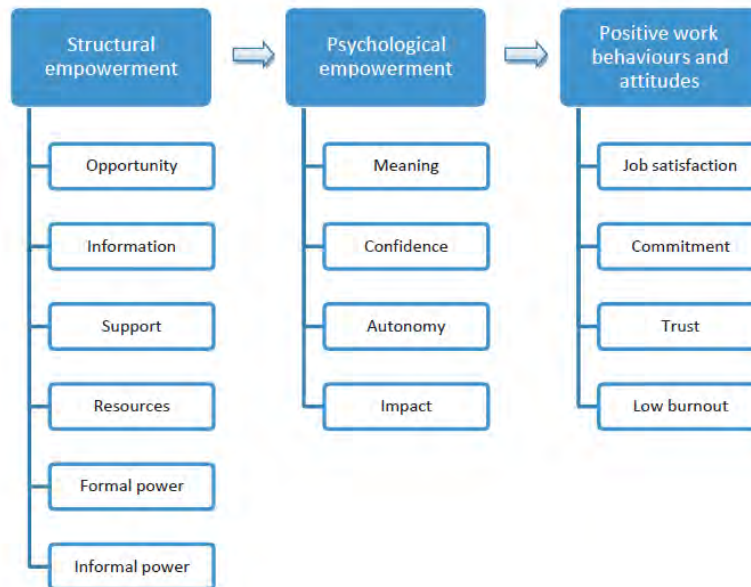
Figure 1
Expanded model of empowerment (Laschinger *et al*. 2001b).

4.2 Empowerment model, Konger and Kanungo (1988)
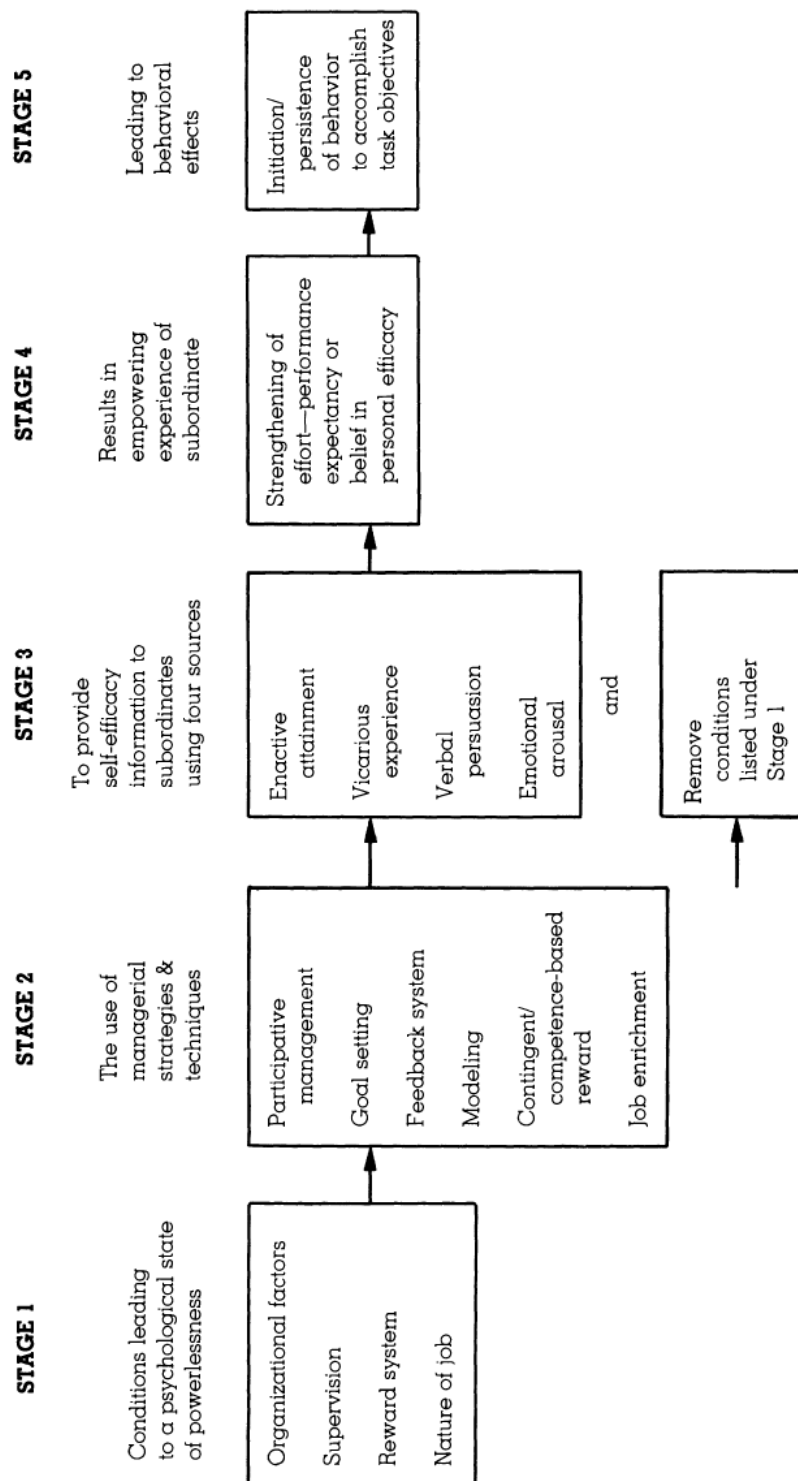
Figure 1. **Five stages in the process of empowerment.**

- 120 -

4.3 Empowerment model, Thomas and Velthouse (1990)
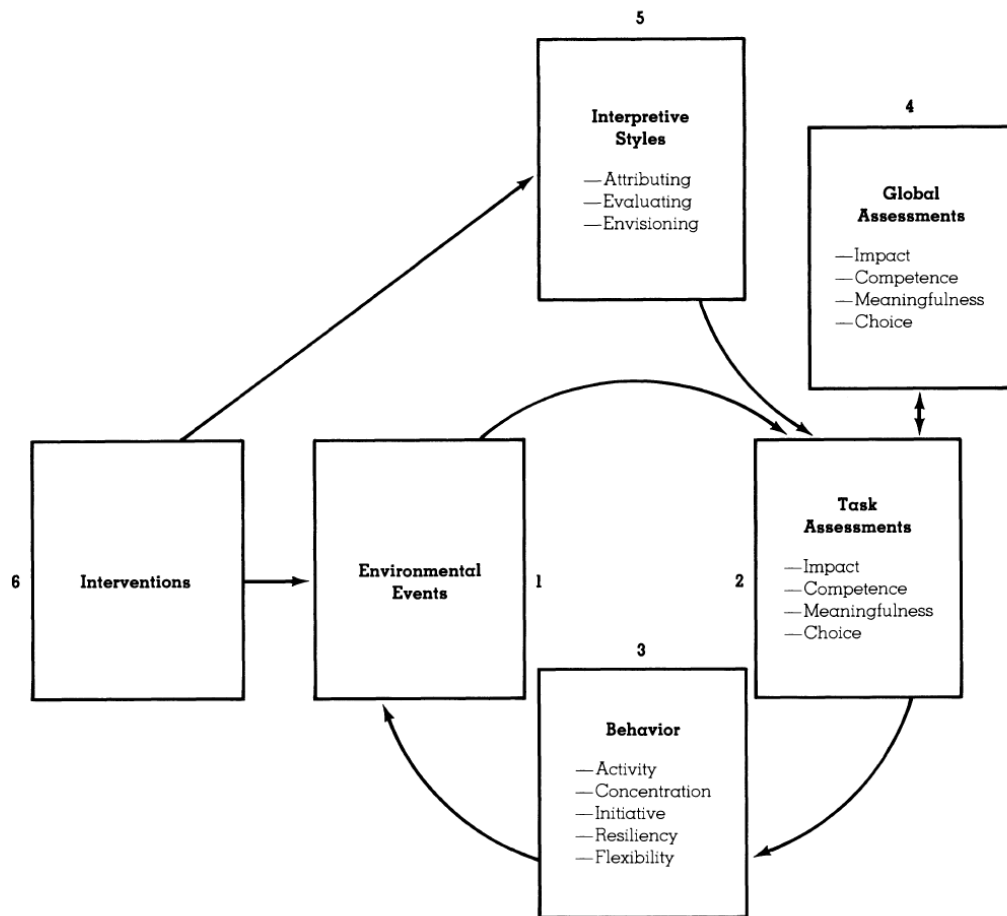
Figure 1. Cognitive model of empowerment.

4.4 Psychological empowerment model, Spreitzer (1995)

FIGURE 1
Partial Nomological Network
of Psychological Empowerment in the Workplace

4.5 Nomological network for psychological empowerment, Zimmerman (1995)

4.6 Psychological empowerment studies, Maynard et al (2012)

Individual-Level Psychological Empowerment Exemplar Studies

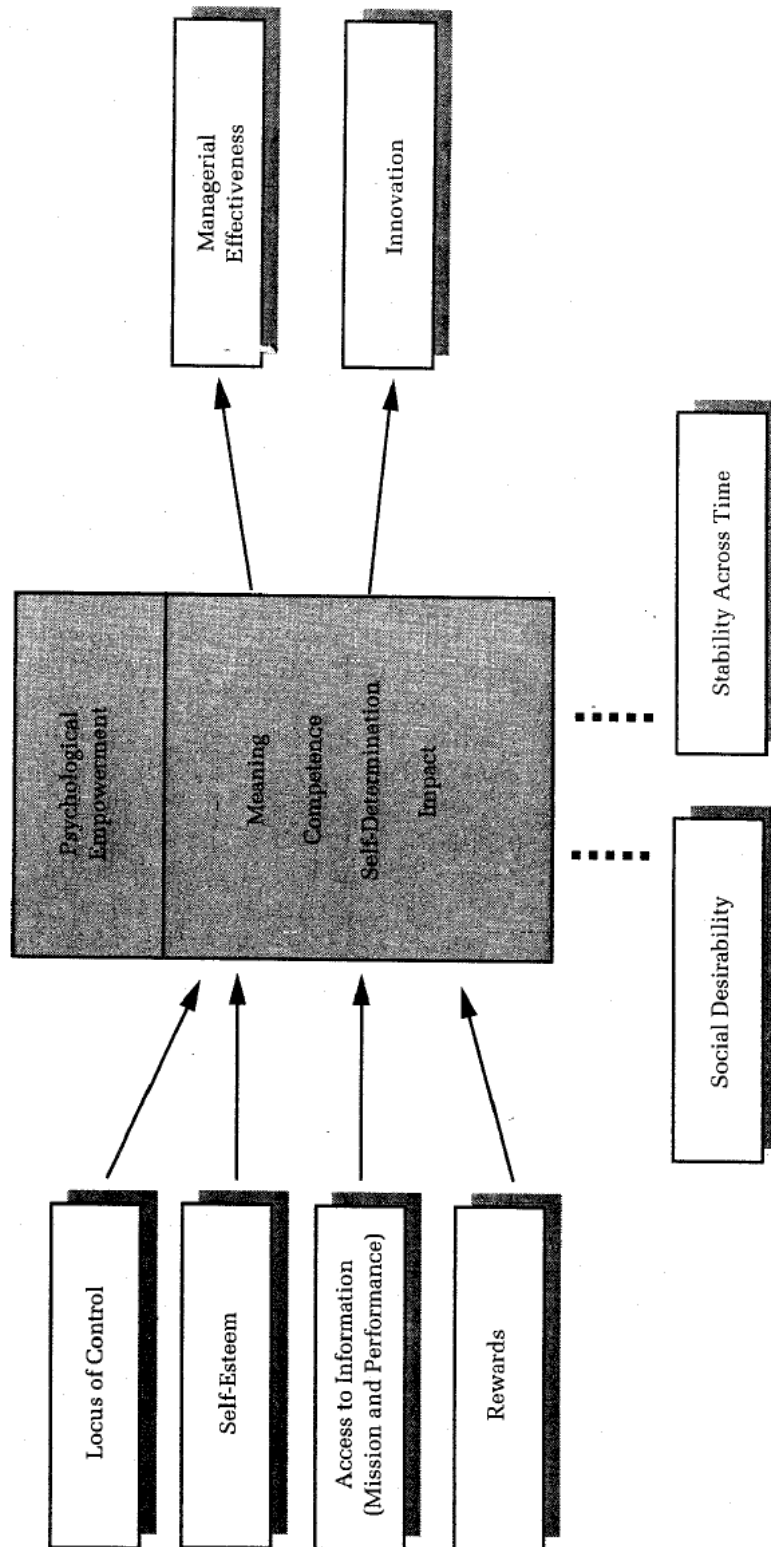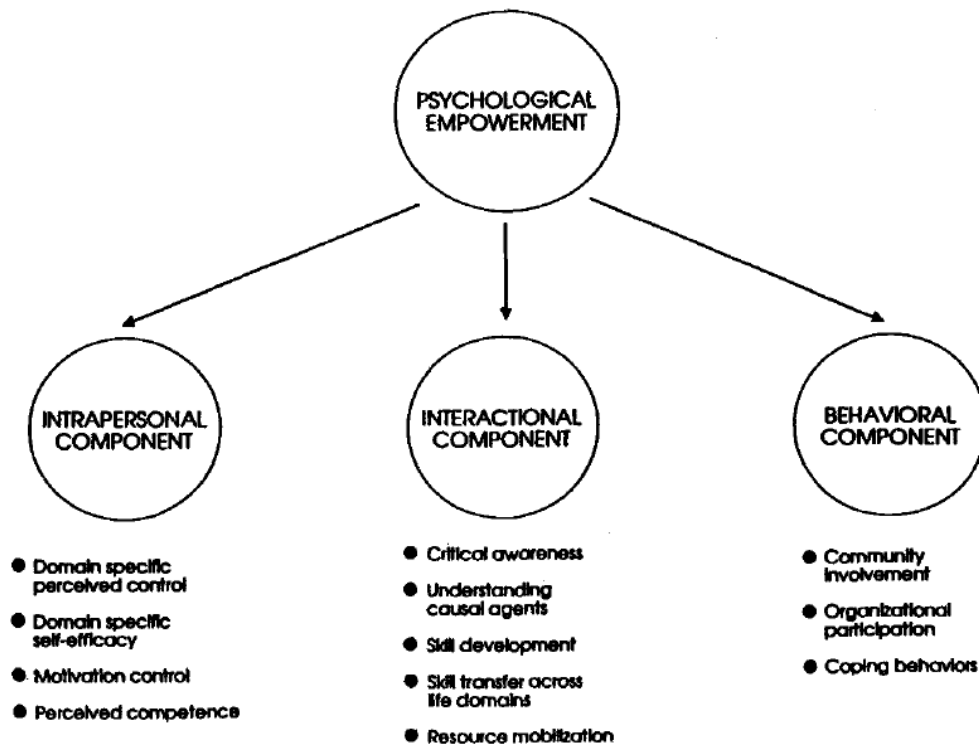| Study	Sample Type 1	2	3	4	PE Measure 1	2	3	4	5	Antecedents 1	2	3	4	5	Effects 1	2	Source of Outcome 1	2	3	Cross-Sectional Data	Location of Sample
Alge, Ballinger, Tangirala, & Oakley, 2006				X	X						X	X			X	X	X	X		Yes	U.S.[a]
Aryee & Chen, 2006			X		X									X	X		X	X		Yes	China
Avey, Hughes, Norman, & Luthans, 2008	X				X							X		X	X		X			No	U.S.
Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004		X			X								X		X		X				Singapore
Carless, 2004		X			X									X		X	X			Yes	Australia
Erdogan & Bauer, 2009		X			X						X			X	X		X		X	Yes	Turkey
Ergeneli, Sag, Ari, & Metin, 2007		X			X						X		X		X		X			Yes	Turkey
Gagne, Senecal, & Koestner, 1997		X			X							X	X		X		X			Yes	Canada
Gomez & Rosen, 2001				X	X							X	X	N/A		N/A				Yes	U.S.
Harris, Wheeler, & Kacmar, 2009		X			X						X	X			X	X	X	X		Yes	U.S.
Hochwälder, 2008		X			X						X		X		X	X	X			X	Sweden
Hon & Rensvold, 2006				X	X					X	X	X		X	N/A		N/A			Yes	Hong Kong
Koberg, Boss, Senjem, & Goodman, 1999		X			X					X	X	X	X	X	X		X			Yes	U.S.
Kraimer, Seibert, & Liden, 1999		X			X											X	X			No	U.S.
Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, & Wilk, 2001		X			X				X				X			X	X			Yes	Canada
Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, & Wilk, 2004		X			X				X				X			X	X			No	Canada
Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000	X				X				X	X			X		X		X	X		Yes	U.S.
Logan & Ganster, 2007		X			X									X	X		X	X		No	U.S.
Martin & Bush, 2006		X			X									X	X		X		X	No	U.S.
Pieterse, van Knippenberg, Schippers, & Stam, 2010		X			X						X		X	X		X	X			Yes	Netherlands
Siegall & Gardner, 2000				X	X									N/A		N/A				Yes	U.S.
Sigler & Pearson, 2000			X		X						X		X	X	X	X	X			Yes	U.S.
Spreitzer, 1995				X	X							X		X	X		X	X		Yes	U.S.
Spreitzer, 1996				X	X									N/A		N/A				Yes	U.S.
Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997				X	X						X			X	X	X	X			Yes	U.S.
Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002			X		X						X			X	X		X		X	Yes	U.S.
Wang & Lee, 2009				X	X											X				Yes	U.S.
Wat & Shaffer, 2005		X			X					X	X	X	X	X		X	X			Yes	Hong Kong
Zhang & Bartol, 2010		X			X					X	X	X	X	X	X		X			Yes	China

Note: Sample Type: 1 = student team, 2 = service, 3 = manufacturing, 4 = mixed; Psychological Empowerment Measure: 1 = Spreitzer (1995) individual-level measure, 2 = two-dimensional team-level measure, 3 = four-dimensional team-level measure, 4 = Spreitzer (1995) individual-level measure aggregated to the team-level; 5 = other measure.; Antecedents of Psychological Empowerment: 1 = structural empowerment, 2 = individual characteristics, 3 = work design, 4 = leadership, 5 = organizational support; Effects of Psychological Empowerment: 1 = performance, 2 = affective reactions; Source of Outcome Measures: 1 = self-rated, 2 = other rated, 3 = independent rated; Cross-Sectional Data: yes = psychological empowerment and outcome measures assessed at same point; Location of Sample = country where respondents were located.
a. Sample consisted of graduates from a college located in the United States; however, the location of respondents was not provided.

Appendix 5 Statistics

5.1 Internal Consistency Reliabilities for Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment Scales

This table was cited in Allen and Meyer (1996).

Commitment measure α

ACS	CCS	NCS	Reference/sample
.79	.79	.79	Allen & Lee (1993)*
			Allen & Meyer (1990)
.87	.75	.79	Sample 1
.86	.82	.73	Sample 2
.82	.81	.74	Allen & Smith (1987)
—	.84	—	Aven (1988)
.80 (time 1)	—	—	Blau, Paul, & St. John (1993)
.81 (time 2)	—	—	
.89	—	—	Carson & Bedeian (1994)
.79	.69	.65	Cohen (1993)
.74–.87	.73–.81	.67–.78	Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda (1994)*b*
.81	.69	.74	Finegan (1994)*
.86	.72	—	Gellatly (1995)
.85	—	—	Greenberg (1994)
			Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf (1994)
.86	.79	.73	Sample 1
.84	.75	.75	Sample 2
.88	.81	—	Jayne (1994)
.74	—	—	Jenkins (1993)
.85	—	—	Kelloway & Barling (1992)
.89	.85	—	Konovsky & Cropanzano (1991)
.86	.78	.67	Lee (1992)
.88	.81	.78	Lynn (1992)
.83	.84	.71	McDonald (1993)
.84	.75	—	Magazine, Williams, & Williams (in press)
.88	.70	—	McGee & Ford (1987)
.82	.74	.83	Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993)*
.82 (1 month)	.82 (1 month)	—	Meyer, Bobocel, & Allen (1991)
.84 (6 months)	.79 (6 months)	—	
.88 (11 months)	.82 (11 months)	—	
.77 (1 month)	.73 (1 month)	.68 (1 month)	Meyer, Irving, & Allen (1993)
.83 (6 months)	.74 (6 months)	.69 (6 months)	
.85 (12 months)	.72 (12 months)	.74 (12 months)	
.74	.69	—	Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson (1989)
.85	.71	—	Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ (1993)
.85	—	.68	Morrison (1994)
.88	.83	.52	Randall, Fedor, & Longenecker (1990)
.84	.80	.76	Reilly & Orsak (1991)
			Shim & Steers (1994)
.87	.79	—	Sample 1

.88	.81	—	Sample 2
.90	.83	—	Shore & Tetrick (1991)
.81	.74	.71	Somers (1993a; 1993b)
.76 (1 day)	.75 (1 day)	—	Vandenberg & Self (1993)
.86 (3 months)	.82 (3 months)	—	
.89 (6 months)	.79 (6 months)	—	
—	.83	—	Wahn (1993)
.86	.81	—	Whitener & Walz (1993)
.89	.76	—	Withey (1988)

Note. ACS, Affective Commitment Scale; CCS, Continuance Commitment Scales; NCS, Normative Commitment Scale.

a The three studies indicated with an asterisk used the six-item versions of the commitment scales. All others used the original eight-item scales.

b Research conducted by Dunham et al. (1994) included nine separate samples; reprinted here are the range of reliabilities across these samples.

5.2 Descriptive statistics for both independent and dependent variables

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
EI	126	3,69	3,19	6,88	672,94	5,3408	,06658
PE	126	4,75	2,17	6,92	675,83	5,3638	,08860
AC	126	6,00	1,00	7,00	613,50	4,8690	,15055
CC	126	5,50	1,50	7,00	683,33	5,4233	,09794
OC	126	5,75	1,25	7,00	648,42	5,1462	,10265
Valid N (listwise)	126						

Descriptive Statistics

	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
EI	,74740	,559	-,315	,216	-,166	,428
PE	,99452	,989	-,779	,216	,116	,428
AC	1,68992	2,856	-,638	,216	-,455	,428
CC	1,09942	1,209	-,977	,216	1,172	,428
OC	1,15223	1,328	-,684	,216	,456	,428
Valid N (listwise)						

5.3 Correlations between the variables

Correlations between the variables

		AC	CC	EI	PE	female=0	E2	single=0	E4	E5	E6	E7
AC	Pearson Correlation	1	,335**	,236**	,541**	-,012	,291**	,244**	-,077	,188*	,298**	,153
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,008	,000	,893	,001	,006	,393	,035	,001	,088
	N	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126
CC	Pearson Correlation	,335**	1	,067	,090	-,033	,127	,145	,027	-,069	,117	,056
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,456	,318	,716	,156	,105	,762	,444	,191	,535
	N	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126
EI	Pearson Correlation	,236**	,067	1	,539**	-,028	,071	,179*	,059	,190*	,140	,072
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,008	,456		,000	,756	,432	,044	,513	,033	,117	,423
	N	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126
PE	Pearson Correlation	,541**	,090	,539**	1	-,123	,202*	,087	,038	,321**	,292**	,160
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,318	,000		,169	,023	,334	,671	,000	,001	,074
	N	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126
female=0	Pearson Correlation	-,012	-,033	-,028	-,123	1	,298**	,142	-,022	,173	,246**	,357**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,893	,716	,756	,169		,001	,112	,807	,052	,005	,000
	N	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126
E2	Pearson Correlation	,291**	,127	,071	,202*	,298**	1	,380**	-,392**	,519**	,827**	,569**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,001	,156	,432	,023	,001		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126
single=0	Pearson Correlation	,244**	,145	,179*	,087	,142	,380**	1	-,313**	,105	,355**	,321**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,006	,105	,044	,334	,112	,000		,000	,241	,000	,000
	N	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126
E4	Pearson Correlation	-,077	,027	,059	,038	-,022	-,392**	-,313**	1	,005	-,389**	-,046
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,393	,762	,513	,671	,807	,000	,000		,955	,000	,610
	N	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126
E5	Pearson Correlation	,188*	-,069	,190*	,321**	,173	,519**	,105	,005	1	,525**	,632**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,035	,444	,033	,000	,052	,000	,241	,955		,000	,000
	N	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126
E6	Pearson Correlation	,298**	,117	,140	,292**	,246**	,827**	,355**	-,389**	,525**	1	,626**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,001	,191	,117	,001	,005	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000
	N	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126
E7	Pearson Correlation	,153	,056	,072	,160	,357**	,569**	,321**	-,046	,632**	,626**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,088	,535	,423	,074	,000	,000	,000	,610	,000	,000	
	N	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).