Influence of Principals’ Emotional Intelligence on the Organizational Commitment of Teachers in Secondary School in County Governments in Kenya

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Abstract:
Organizational commitment (OC) has been associated with positive organizational behavior such as decreased employee turnover rate and absenteeism. Research indicate that leader’s emotional intelligence (EI) may influence the OC of employees as they feel good about working with emotionally intelligent leaders since they are more likely to react to problems in a more controlled manner and may be more accommodative to different views of the subordinates. The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence principals’ EI on the OC of secondary school teachers in county governments in Kenya. This study hypothesized that principal’s EI would have no significant relationship with the OC of teachers. The study employed survey research design to establish the relationship between EI and OC. The study population was all the 560 principals in secondary schools in Nairobi, Machakos, Kajiado, and Kiambu counties in Kenya from which a sample of 120 principals was drawn using simple random sampling. 480 teachers that is 4 from schools in which a principal participated in the study were sampled to rate their principals EI and their OC. The method of data collection was through the use of questionnaires which were distributed randomly to respondents. EI questionnaire was constructed through moderation of the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) whereas teachers’ OC scale was constructed through moderation of TCM Employee Commitment Survey. The data was analysed through descriptive, correlation and regression analysis, using statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 16. This study established that principals’ EI through the dimensions of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management had a statistically significant relationship with teachers’ OC. Compared to other EI competencies relationship management was the strongest predictor of teachers’ OC. Self-management also had a strong correlation with teachers’ OC. The study recommends that teachers’ employer needs to put more emphasis on training of EI among principals in secondary schools in Kenya. The study suggests further research on the effect of principals’ EI on their OC.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, organizational commitment, affective commitment, continuance, commitment, normative commitment

1. Introduction

1.1. Background of the Study
There has been a surge in the interest and attention on organizational commitment literature ((Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Colquitt, LePine, & Wesson, 2009) because of its potential benefit to the organization and individual employee. Employees who experience high organizational commitment are theorized to display positive organizational behaviors, such as better job performance, and organizational citizenship activities, which will definitely benefit the organization (Aloud & Altarawneh, 2014). Organizational commitment also helps to preserve well qualified and talented individuals which lead to the stability of an organization. Committed employees are also less often absent and are less likely to leave the organization voluntarily than the less committed employees. According to Mowday (1998) committed employees are likely to work harder and more efficiently, and stay in their jobs longer than less committed employees. Therefore, organizations such as schools aspire to have employees who are committed towards the achievement of the organization goals.
Organizational commitment is defined as the degree to which an employee identifies with the organization and wants to continue active participation in it (Newstrom & Davis, 1997). They further state that organizational commitment
is a measure of willingness to remain with the firm in the future. This can be described as a bond that strongly connects an individual with his/her organization. Meyer and Allen (1991) classify employee commitment into three groups namely: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Employees who have a strong affective commitment continue to do work with the organization because they want to do so. Employees with continuance commitment remain with the organization because they need to do so. Employees with a high level of normative commitment stay with the organization because they think they ought to remain with it. Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky (2002) found affective and normative commitment to be negatively associated with turnover intention, actual turnover, and absenteeism, but normative commitment correlated to a less degree than affective commitment. They found that affective commitment had the strongest and most favourable correlations with organization behaviors such as attendance, performance, and organizational citizenship behavior. However, continuance commitment was found not to correlate with actual turnover. Organizational commitment also plays an essential role in the goal achievement, innovation and stability of an organization and improves trust between employees, managers, owners, units and other concerned parties of any organization (Suki & Suki, 2011). One variable that has been found to contribute to employees’ OC is leader’s emotional intelligence.

The 1990s saw a great deal of attention on emotional intelligence (EI) as researchers argued that certain abilities predicted success in life other than the academic success. Khosravi, Manafi, Hojabri, Aghapour, and Geshmini (2011) suggest that emotional intelligence concept goes back to the era of intelligence testing movement, when Professor Thorndike expressed the theory of social intelligence. Thorndike (1920) believed to be the first to introduce the concept of intelligence which he referred to as social intelligence. Social intelligence is defined as the ability to perceive one's own and others' behaviors and motives in order to successfully make use of that information in social situations or the ability to understand men, women, boys, and girls. He divided social intelligence into three facets: abstract intelligence (i.e., managing and understanding ideas), mechanical intelligence (i.e., managing and understanding concrete objects), and social intelligence (i.e., managing and understanding people).

Psychologists Mayer and Salovey were the first to use the term emotional intelligence and are generally credited for performing the first systematic programme of research on EI in the 1990s (Matthews, et al., 2012). Mayer and Salovey (1990) first proposed EI as a subset of social intelligence and defined it as 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. Their concept of EI included three branches consisting of appraisal and expression of emotion, regulation of emotion, and utilizing emotion. Zeidner, Matthews, and Roberts (2004) contend that this is the most widely accepted scientific definition of EI. Later Mayer and Salovey (1997) expanded their definition of EI to involve the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion, the ability to 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. The aim was to exclude elements that had similar personality traits from their previous concept and to include all the abilities represented by EI.

However EI only gained popularity and academic attention as a result of the publication of Daniel Goleman’s book entitled Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ. Goleman (1995) defined emotional intelligence as a capacity for recognizing our own and others feelings, for motivating our self and for managing our emotions, both within ourselves and in our relationship. He claimed that EI is as powerful, and at times more powerfullthan IQ in predicting success in life. He further claimed that the uniquecontribution of emotional intelligence to effective performance at work is as much as 6 percent for all jobs and 85 percent for leadership jobs. His claim elicited several researches on emotional intelligence and as Brackett, Rivers, and Salovey (2011) indicated, people from all professions—educators, psychologists, human resource professionals, and corporate executives began to incorporate emotional intelligence into their daily vernacular and professional practices. However as Seal, Sass, Bailey and Liao-Troth (2009) note, this very popularity has occasioned a plethora of terms, definitions, models, and measures that create considerable confusion about the scientific and applied merit of EI.

EI is based on three principles, that is emotions play an important role in life, people vary in their ability to perceive, understand, use, and manage emotions, and that these differences affect individual adaptation in a variety of contexts including the workplace (Cherniss, 2010). Goleman’s (1998b) came up with the first model of EI which he suggested contained 25 competencies grouped into five domains: self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, social awareness and social skills. When Goleman’s (2001) model was revised and changes were made on the basis of statistical analysis conducted by Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee (2000), the five domains were integrated into the following four (and 20 competencies) which still form the basis of Goleman’s model: (1) self-awareness (knowing our own emotions, knowing how emotions affect the self and others), (2) self-management (knowing our own emotions), (3) social awareness (recognizing the emotions of others), and (4) relationship management (handling relationships).

Leading a school is a complex responsibility and principals require more than just IQ and as Goleman (1998b) pointed out EI is the sine qua non of leadership and argue that without it one will not make a great leader. Principals are entrusted with the task of leading their school, making decisions, influencing and guiding the activities of their schools toward achieving their goals. They are responsible for administering all aspects of their school’s operations as well as working and improving relationship with the entire school stakeholders such as the students, teachers, Board of Management, parents, and local community. As they relate with these groups they not only have to learn how to manage their emotions but must also manage others emotions. The fact that principals are empowered to oversee entire school activities means that they hold a powerful position to determine how much schools can achieve. Tschanennen-Moran and Gareis (2004) posits that in this era of accountability and significant school reform, effort to improve schools look to the
principal to spearhead change effort at the school level. While they must attend to myriad administrative tasks they are required to find time to focus on more important issues such as promoting of teaching and learning activities in the school since it plays a decisive role for students’ success. Hallinger (2003 and 2005) refers to this function as instructional leadership which involves controlling, setting goals, allocating resources to instruction, supervising implementation of the curriculum, and supervising all teaching and learning activities.

1.2. Problem Statement

Over the years however concerns have been raised regarding the lack of commitment among teachers as evidenced by a great number of teachers leaving the profession, frequent industrial actions, a high number of teachers missing school, and others failing to attend class even if they are in school. A recent study by Kenya National Union of Teachers (2015) indicate that more than 200,000 (807 of them being secondary school teachers or 76 per cent) of teachers in public schools wish to leave teaching because of professional needs such as promotion and personal needs which include salaries and allowances. Earlier, report by Machio (2011) indicates that in the year 2008 alone, more than six hundred secondary school teachers left teaching for other jobs as a result of poor pay and conditions of service which is a sign of lack of commitment. When teachers leave the profession there is a potential loss of experienced teachers. A survey by Teachers’ Service Commission (2002) established that 20% of secondary school teachers miss lessons while in school whereas only 39.2% of the teachers are in school every day of the month. The Uwezo East Africa (2014) reported that about 12% of teachers are not going to school which is about 35,000 teachers on any given day which may be an indication of lack of commitment on the part of the teacher. When teachers miss school, it increases the burden on the part of principal and the deputy principals of handling student indiscipline as they go unattended.

A teacher who is less committed is likely to put less effort in their work compared to one with high level of commitment. Zeidner, Roberts, and Matthews (2002) argue that EI provides the medium by which educational reforms can and finally will reach its full potential, across primary, secondary, and tertiary level of school. Salami (2008) argue that understanding and regulation of one’s emotions as well as understanding other’s emotions are factors that affect interpersonal relations in the workplace which means leader’s EI may influence the OC of employees. Employees feel good about working with emotionally intelligent leaders since they are more likely to react to problems in a more controlled manner and may be more accommodative to different views of the subordinates. This study sought to establish whether principals’ EI had an influence on OC of secondary school teachers.

1.3. Significance of the Study

As school principals execute their roles and responsibilities they experience multiple challenges which require specific skills to overcome them in their work stations. School also involves daily social interactions between the principal, students and other key stakeholders (e.g., parents, teachers, education officials etc.) whereby the principal must not only take into consideration his or her own emotions but also of others. Research has shown that EI (Goleman (1998b; George, 2000; William, 2008) distinguish between outstanding leaders and typical performers. George (2000) for example noted that leaders who are high in EI are more likely to engage in constructive thinking, to build and maintain high level of cooperation in an organization. Understanding and regulation of one’s emotions as well as understanding others emotions affect interpersonal relations in an organizational hence influencing organizational commitment of employees (Salami, 2008). Since this study has established that principals’ EI has an influence on the teachers’ OC it will go a long way in informing the TSC on the importance of EI to school principals. The knowledge will inform the TSC on the need to implement training policies that will help improve EI among secondary school principals. It will also be beneficial to the TSC since it will inform them on competencies to look for as they recruit new principals. With increased challenges in our schools, principals need to believe in their capabilities to overcome them. One way of improving this belief is through frequent feedback and this knowledge will inform the TSC on the importance of improving their performance appraisal system and also come up with a reward system based on the principals’ performance. Since teachers’ self-efficacy determines the effort they put forth and their persistence in the face of challenges, this study will assist those in charge of the teachers to come up with ways of maximizing their motivation of to enable them do their work effectively.

There has been relatively little empirical research in Kenya examining the influence of principals’ EI on organizational commitment of teachers. The study will go a long way to fill this gap and improve the understanding of the influence of principals’ emotional intelligence on teachers’ organizational commitment. This study will also make great contribution to researchers who may want to replicate it in other sectors. There is also agreement among researchers that emotional intelligence is in need of further study and development, and that successful efforts to measure this construct may prove advantageous for organizations (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000).

2. Literature Review

2.1. Emotional Intelligence

Until 1990s, the concept of emotional intelligence had been ignored due to the rise of scientific management and the myth that emotions of any kind are disruptive in the workplace (Robbins & Judge, 2009) and they were typically seen as a threat to the stability of an organization (Fambrough & Hart, 2008). The term only became popular during the1990’s as a result of Goleman (1995) claim that EI is as powerful, and at times more powerful than IQ in predicting success in life. An employee high in EI is able to regulate his and others emotional responses. As a result the interest in EI research has increased greatly over the last decade which has led to research in various fields including business, psychology, education
(Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2010; Conte, 2005). Goleman (1998a) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to recognize one's emotions, as well as those of others, and as the ability to manage one's emotions, as well as those of others. Emotional intelligence enables one to recognize and manage their own emotions while at the same time recognizing the emotions of others. It is important to note that as individuals understand their emotions and those of others, they are then able to better control and/or regulate those emotions which in turn enhance harmony among them. However, Dulewicz & Higgins (2000) contend that many of these claims lack empirical evidence and have been based on anecdotal accounts.

Goleman (1998b) came up with a model that viewed EI as a wide array of competencies and skills but Goleman (2001) presented a refined model of emotional intelligence from the 1998 model which resulted due to changes made on the basis of statistical analysis conducted by Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee. This model is referred to as mixed model as it presents EI as a set of competencies. It consists of four clusters namely self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management each consisting of several competencies. The four clusters can simply be explained as knowing our own emotions, managing our emotions, recognizing the emotions of others, and handling relationships. These can also be summarised into two dimensions i.e. awareness and management of one's emotion and awareness and management of other people emotions. Goleman, Boyatzis, and Mcke (2002) clustered the four EI domains into 18 competencies. Goleman (1998a) defined an emotional competence as a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work while Seal, et al. (2006) define it as a capability or ability that leads to a successful outcome. This model is divided into personal competencies which comprises of self-awareness and self-management and social competencies composed of social-awareness and relationship management. Personal competence involves individual’s ability to manage his own emotions and social competence is about an individual ability to manage relationships.

EI involves a combination of competencies which allows a person to understand and to be in control of their own emotions, to recognize and understand the emotions of others, and to use this knowledge to foster their success and the success of others (Goleman, 1998a). According to Goleman (2001) these emotional competencies indicate the level in which an individual possess specific abilities depending on his/her level of EI and in turn makes this person more effective in his work. Each of these domains then becomes the foundation for learned abilities, or competencies, that depend on underlying strength in the relevant EI domain. The emotional competencies themselves represent the degree to which an individual has mastered specific skills and abilities that build on EI (Goleman, 2001). It is the emotional competency then that aids the learning of job-related skills and which translates EI into on-the-job capabilities and are claimed to be critical for success in organizational setting (Zeidner, et al., 2004).

2.2. Organization Commitment

Organization commitment (OC) has been the focus of numerous studies. This may be due to the fact that OC has been associated with positive organizational behavior such as extra-role behavior, decreased employee turnover rate and absenteeism (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Solinger, vanOlffen & Roe, 2008; Turunen, 2011). Meyer et al. (2002) for example found that the correlations between the three commitment components, absenteeism and turnover were all negative. It is the desire of every organization to retain a committed workforce because of its related benefits such as increased productivity. Various definitions on organization commitment exist. Newstrom & Davis (1997) defines organizational commitment as the degree in which an employee identifies with the organization and wants to continue active participation in it. An individual who is committed to an organization identifies with it, is proud of being a member of the organization and is unwilling to leave it. According to Colquitt et al., (2009) organizational commitment is the desire on the part of an employee to remain a member of the organization. As such a committed person strongly identifies with and feels a part of the organization which he/she works for and have a feeling of loyalty towards his/her organization. Mowday (1998) posits that organizational commitment has three related factors: a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.

Despite these many definitions there, is no agreement on the definition of OC. Hence Meyer and Allen (1991) suggest that one must specify the definition he or she uses to avoid confusion. The duo developed the most widely accepted and most dominant multidimensional commitment framework referred to as the three-component model (TCM). This model consist of three dimensions namely; affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. They clarify that the three dimensions of commitment are distinguishable components, rather than three separate types of commitment. These three can be related to each other in different ways and that an individual can experience different levels of the three forms of commitment. These have received considerable interest from researchers and have been tested in different empirical settings (Meyer et al., 2002; Cohen, 2007; Solinger et al., 2008). The main reason for this, Meyer et al., (2002) notes is the belief that three-component model relate negatively to turnover, but relate differently to measures of otherwork-relevant behaviors. However, it is important to note that AC was found to be the most reliable and strongly validated dimension and correlated with the widest rangeof behavioral criterion variables (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Affective commitment (AC) is employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization (Solinger, et al., 2008). Identificationis about the belief in and acceptance of the goals and values of the organization; involvement pertains to a strong willingness to put in effort for the organization, whereas loyaltyimplies the desire to remain with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Employees or teachers with a strong affective commitment stay with the organization/school because they want to do so. They are able to identify with their organization and at the same time feel emotionally attached to it. As an individual stays with an organization a unique relationship develops and
Continuance commitment (CC) refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Employees or teachers who perceive that the cost of leaving the organization/school is greater than the cost of staying therefore remain with the organization because they need to. Other employees remain with the organization due to lack of alternative (Meyer et al., 2002). CC therefore involves calculation of the cost of leaving the organization or an employee’s assessment of the investment into the organization. Sinclair, Tucker, Cullen, & Wright (2005) refers to CC as the perceptions that the costs of leaving the organization exceed the costs of remaining which Meyer et al., (2002) referred to as investments. These costs include time and energy put into acquiring organization and that of others can tell when a change in an organization has occurred indeed highly cumulative commitment. Allen & Meyer (1990) & Meyer & Allen (1997) studies found positive work experiences (Jaros, 2007). According to Meyer & Allen (1997), CC therefore involves calculation of the cost of leaving the organization or probably due to lack of alternative job opportunities. Since an employee only stays with the organization to safeguard their investments, CC has been criticised for failing to lead to positive work behavior (Meyer et al., 2002). The last dimension is normative commitment (NC) which refers to employees’ feelings of obligation to the organization. Therefore, employees’ stay with the organization because they think it is the right and acceptable thing to do. Teachers with high levels of normative commitment stay with the organization/school because they feel they ought to, which may be attributed to the need to repay for the treatment they receive from their school. This according to Meyer & Allen (1991) may develop when an organization trains the employees or give rewards in advance. This sense of moral obligation may develop mainly to socialization and/or culture which mean that NC may develop before entry in an organization (Cohen, 2007). It may also be influenced by family, marriage, or religion. For instance the normative commitment of the Japanese is deeply rooted in their society and as a traditional society they value commitment greatly (Hofstede, 1980). However, according to Meyer et al., (2002) NC may also develop due to the length of service in an organization, organizational justice and perceived organizational support.

Meyer and Allen (1997) & Meyer et al., (2002) found that affective and normative commitment are indeed highly correlated, however the correlation between the constructs is not unity. There is controversy on whether there is a difference between AC and NC as there exists a strong correlation between the two, while analyses has established a near zero correlation between AC and CC (Meyer et al., 2002) which is why NC has received the least attention (Meyer & Parryonova, 2010). AC is the most widely studied dimension of OC (Jaros, 2007; He, 2008; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001). The reason for this is because AC has been strongly linked to positive work-related behaviors (e.g., attendance, job satisfaction) (Meyer, et al., 2002) and it also reflects commitment based on emotional ties that an employee develops with the organization primarily via positive work experiences (Jaros, 2007). According to Meyer & Allen (1997), CC has been criticised for failing to lead to positive work attitudes since the employee only retains membership with the organization to safeguard their investments and may be lack of alternatives. Malik, Nawab, Naem, and Danish (2010) posit that individuals may become committed to an organization for many reasons: a person may stay with an organization because the organization’s values, mission, and goals align with his/her own; another person may stay with the same organization because leaving may impact his/her prestige, benefits, or social networks; yet another may be committed to the organization due to a sense of obligation.

Many other forms of organizational commitment have been examined (Cohen, 2006; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Cohen 1999). For example, Cohen (2006) studied organizational and occupational commitment whereas Mathieu & Zajac, (1990) referred to attitudinal and calculative commitment. Allen & Meyer (1990) & Meyer & Allen (1997) studies found that OC is a multi-dimensional construct. Cohen (1999) studied affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment, career commitment, job involvement and work ethic endorsement. Since as an employee relate with the organization can express different degree of each of the constructs, this study will adopt Meyer & Allen (1991) TCM construct.

2.3. Emotional Intelligence and Organization Commitment

Leadership is about influence and for leaders to positively influence their subordinates they must possess the necessary skills and abilities. Research indicate that emotionally intelligent leaders tend to influence not only their subordinates’ emotions and actions (George, 2000) but also their organizational commitment (Long, Shanmugam & Yusoff, 2014; Qureshi, Ali, Raza & Whitty, 2015). A leader with a high EI can inspire subordinates to perform their tasks with a lot of enthusiasm. A growing body of research also indicate that a leader’s mood and emotions can influence their subordinate emotions either positively or negatively (Volmer, 2012; George, 2000) which in turn triggers positive organizational outcome and personal relationship. A leader who is excited and optimistic about a certain task is likely to influence his/her subordinate optimism hence increasing their commitment toward the task.

Several studies have investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and organization commitment and found significant relationship between these two variables (Carmeli, 2003; Khalili, 2011; Tsai, Tsai, and Wang, 2011; Aghabozorgi, Mehni, Alipour, & Azizi, 2014). This can be explained by the fact that emotionally intelligent leaders presumably succeed at communicating their ideas, goals, and intentions in interesting and assertive ways, thus making others feel better suited to the occupational environment (Goleman, 1998b). Recognition of one's emotions and others promote good relationship between a leader and the subordinates thus resulting in organizational commitment among the employees. As a result, employees trust them and feel good about working with emotionally intelligent leaders (Coetsee & Pauw, 2013). A leader who recognizes his/her emotions and that of others can tell when a change in an organization has caused anxiety among employees and therefore try to resolve the problem. At the same time leaders who know and can
manage their emotions are more likely to react to a problem in a more controlled manner and may be more accommodative to different views of the subordinates. An emotionally intelligent leader should also be able to manage conflicts among employees in an organization. By managing conflict and encouraging supportive member interaction, the leader creates a supportive environment for the members (Prati et al., 2003).

Understanding and regulation of one's emotions as well as understanding other's emotions are factors that affect interpersonal relations which means EI of leaders may influence the OC of an employee (Salami, 2008). This is because a leader who is able to regulate their emotions can express excitement even when annoyed with the subordinates which in turn elevates the followers' emotional state. Petrides and Furnham (2006) posit that individuals who are high in EI are confident that they can identify and regulate their own and other people's emotional reactions and therefore are better placed to deal with job stress. A leader who has the skill of self-management is able to manage stress and remain calm in case of a conflict which may in turn create a good working environment in an organization. According to Wong, Kenneth, and Law (2002) the continual presence of positive emotional states of the employees will lead to positive affection towards the work environment and the organization. As a result, the positive experience on the job and positive affective emotions should make employees more committed to the organization and less likely to leave their jobs. They noted that emotional intelligence has a significant association with career outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This is in line with Salami (2008) findings that understanding and regulating of one's emotions as well as understanding other's emotion are factors that affect intrapersonal well-being and interpersonal relations which affect workers attitudes to their colleagues, bosses, jobs and the organization.

Long, et al. (2014) carried out a study in Malaysia in a plastic component manufacturing company to find out the relationship between leader’s emotional intelligence and organizational commitment of their subordinates. The correlation and multiple regression analysis indicated that a statistically significant and a positive relationship between 4 dimensions of EI and OC. Aghabozorgi, et al., (2014) addressed the impact of emotional intelligence on organizational commitment among nurses in the public hospitals of Sanandaj. This study found a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment of nurses. In a study aimed at explaining the interactive and relative effects of emotional intelligence and human relationship management on the organizational commitment among Nigerian civil servants, Adeoye, &Torubelli, (2011) found emotional intelligence to be a more potent predictor of organizational commitment. The results of these studies reveal significant positive relationships between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment.

Shooshhtarian, Ameli, and Amidinari (2013) conducted a study among employees in Fars Province industries in Iran to determine the effect of labour’s emotional intelligence on job satisfaction, job performance and commitment. However, the results showed that there was no relationship between emotional intelligence and their commitment. They argue that there is no significant relationship between EI and commitment because employees with high EI have many job opportunities and that they are able to choose the best. Since the results of these studies on the influence of EI on OC are inconclusive, this study hopes to establish whether there is any significant influence of the school principals’ EI on OC of teachers in the Kenyan context.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Design

This study employed a survey research design in order to investigate the influence of principals' self-management on the organizational commitment of teachers as moderated by teachers' self-efficacy.

3.2. Study Population and Sample

The population for this study was all the 560 principals and all teachers in secondary schools in Nairobi, Machakos, Kajiado, and Kiambu Counties. The research sample size for this study consisted of 120 principals and 480 teachers. Simple random sampling was used to select the principals and teachers from each school. Stratified sampling was used to group the principals into male and female so as to have a representative of each gender and to select the number of principals in the selected four counties. Kothari (2004) notes that stratified sampling technique is applied in case the population from which a sample is to be drawn does not constitute a homogeneous group.

3.3. Data Collection Method

Data collection method for this study was by the use of questionnaire. Emotional intelligence Questionnaire: Principals’ emotional intelligence was assessed using the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) v.2 which is a multi-rater assessment that combines self, subordinate, peer, and supervisor rating on the EI competencies (GOLEMAN, et. al., 2002). This study combined the principals and teachers to rate principals’ emotional intelligence because research indicates that self-reports are subject to bias, especially in organizational contexts where people might be motivated to fake good (ROSETE & CIARROCHI, 2005). Thirty two items were composed from the four competencies of emotional intelligence that is self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. Organizational Commitment Questionnaire: The Meyer; Allen; Smith, (1993) TCM Employee Commitment Survey designed to measure the three dimensions of organizational commitment (AC, CC and NC) was used to measure teachers' OC. To avoid confusion the term organization was replaced by school and in some instance with the term job.
3.4. Analysis and Presentation

This study employed independent samples t-test, descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and multiple regression method to analyze data. Independent samples t-test was used to compare means of the two groups (male and female (BANDA, 2018). Descriptive statistics was analyzed in form of means, frequencies, percentages, and standard deviation. This study used Pearson’ correlation analysis to determine the relationship between principals’ EI, and teachers’ OC. Multiple regression was used to determine how the principals’ EI (independent variable) correlated significantly with on teachers’ OC (dependent variable).

The model for this study was:

a) \[ Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon \]
b) \[ Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + \epsilon \]
c) \[ Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + \beta_{12} X Z + \epsilon \]

4. Results of the Study

4.1. Profile of the Participants

Data was collected from a total of 102 secondary school principals and 408 teachers. The results of the study indicate that 52% of the teachers were female and 48% were male, 42.2% of the principals were female whereas 57.8% were male. The ages of the respondents ranged from 25 years to above 50 years where 47.1% of the principals and 12.5% of teachers were 50 and above years of age. Most of the respondents (55.9% of the principals and 73.3% of teachers) were degree holders.

4.2. Correlation Analysis for the Linear Relationship between the Study Variables

To establish whether there exists a relationship between the study variables a correlation matrix was run. Correlation is the degree of relationship between variables. Mason, Roberts & Lind, Douglas (1999) define correlation analysis as a group of techniques to measure the strength of the association between two variables. It measures the relationship between variables in order to identify whether they are positively or negatively related or not related in any way.

The correlation matrix (Table 1) displays the correlation between the independents variables related to principals’ EI and the dependent variable teachers’ OC. The results revealed that there was positive though weak correlation between principal’s self-awareness (X1) and teachers’ organization commitment (r=0.254, p-value<0.001). Self-management (X2) revealed a moderate but positive correlation with organizational commitment (r=0.343, p-value<0.000). Social awareness presented a weak but positive correlation with organizational commitment (r=0.234 p-value<0.000). The correlation coefficient between principals’ relationship management and teachers’ OC was positive (0.346, p-value<0.000).
Table 1: Correlation Matrix for the Study Variables

|       | Y            | X1          | X2          | X3          | X4          |
|-------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|       | Teachers Commitment | Self-Awareness | Self-Management | Social Awareness | Relationship Management |
| Y     | Pearson Correlation |              |              |              |              |
|       | Sig. (2-tailed) N |              |              |              |              |
| X1    | .254**       | 12          |              |              |              |
|       | 0            |              |              |              |              |
|       | 408          | 408         |              |              |              |
| X2    | .234**       | .682**      | 12          |              |              |
|       | 0            | 0           |              |              |              |
|       | 408          | 408         | 408         |              |              |
| X3    | .346**       | .684**      | .727**      | 12          |              |
|       | 0            | 0           | 0           |              |              |
|       | 408          | 408         | 408         | 408         |              |
| X4    | .343**       | .640**      | .768**      | .752**      | 12          |
|       | 0            | 0           | 0           | 0           |              |
|       | 408          | 408         | 408         | 408         | 408         |

4.3 Regression Model for the Relationship between Principals’ Emotional Intelligence and Teachers’ Organizational Commitment

Regression analysis was run to establish the extent to which principal’s EI dimensions had an influence on the OC of teachers in county governments in Kenya. To establish the influence of the EI dimensions, self-awareness (X1), self-management (X2), social awareness (X3), and relationship management (X4) were regressed on the dependent variable, organizational commitment of teachers in Kenya. The study hypothesized that:

- H05: There was no significant influence of principal’s EI dimensions on the organizational commitment of teachers in Kenya.

To test the hypothesis the following model Y=\beta_0+\beta_1X_1+\beta_2X_2+\beta_3X_3+\beta_4X_4+\epsilon was fitted. The standardized coefficient for self-awareness was not statistically significant with (\beta_1= -0.012, t = -0.170, p-value = 0.865). This means that a unit increase in the extent of self-awareness led to decrease of 0.12 in organizational commitment of teachers in Kenya. We therefore fail to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that principals’ self-awareness (X1) had no significant influence on teachers OC (Y). Self-management standardized coefficient was positive and statistically significant (H05: \beta_2 \neq 0), since \beta_2= 0.343, t =3.249, p-value<0.001. This indicates that a unit increase in self-management led to an increase of about 0.343 units in organizational commitment. The null hypothesis is rejected and the conclusion is that principals’ self-management (X2) has significant influence on teachers OC.

The standard coefficient for social awareness was statistically significant (H05: \beta_3 \neq 0), since \beta_3= -0.167, t = -2.145, p-value=0.033). A unit increase in social awareness led to a decrease of -0.167 in organizational commitment. We reject the null hypothesis and conclude that principals’ social awareness (X3) has significant influence on organizational commitment of teachers. Relationship management had a positive and significant relationship with organizational commitment (H05: \beta_4 \neq 0), since \beta_4= 0.346, t =3.145, p-value<0.000). We therefore reject the null hypothesis and conclude that principals’ relationship management (X4) has significant influence on teachers OC (Y).

The model equation is:

Y = 3.329 - 0.012X_1 + 0.253X_2 - 0.167X_3 + 0.291X_4

where Y = organizational commitment, X_1 = self-awareness, X_2 = self-management, X_3 = social awareness, X_4 = relationship management.

In conclusion, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there was significant relationship between EI dimensions and organizational commitment (p-value<0.001). The findings indicate that the relationship between EI dimensions and organizational commitment was significant. This is consistent with Suifani, Abdalla & Schweis (2015) findings on the effect of manager’s EI on employees’ OC in the insurance industry in Jordan that all dimensions of EI were positively and...
significantly related to employees’ OC. Long, et al. (2014) study on the relationship between leader's emotional intelligence and organizational commitment of their subordinates also found that there was statistically significant and a positive relationship between 4 dimensions of EI and OC.

| Model | R   | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate | Change Statistics |
|-------|-----|----------|-------------------|--------------------------|------------------|
|       | .382a | 0.146    | 0.137             | 0.49162                  | R Square Change  |
|       |      |          |                   |                          | F Change         |
|       |      |          |                   |                          | df1              |
|       |      |          |                   |                          | df2              |
|       |      |          |                   |                          | Sig. F Change    |
| 1     |      |          |                   |                          |                  |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness, Relationship Management

**ANOVA**

| Model | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F       | Sig. F       |
|-------|----------------|----|-------------|---------|--------------|
| 1     | 16.595         | 4  | 4.149       | 17.165  | .000+        |
|       | 97.403         | 403| 0.242       |         |              |
| Total | 113.998        | 407|             |         |              |

a. Predictors: (Constant): X₁, X₂, X₃, X₄

**Coefficients**

| Model | Unstandardized Coefficients | Standardized Coefficients | t      | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics |
|-------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|--------|------|-------------------------|
|       | B                            | Std. Error                | Beta   |      | Tolerance               |
|       |                             |                           |        |      | VIF                     |
| 1     | (Constant) 3.329             | 0.024                     | 136.786| 0    |                         |
|       | X₁ -0.01                    | 0.061                     | -0.012 | -0.17| 0.865                   |
|       | X₂ 0.205                    | 0.063                     | 0.253  | 3.249| 0.001                   |
|       | X₃ -0.126                   | 0.059                     | -0.167 | -2.145| 0.033                   |
|       | X₄ 0.274                    | 0.078                     | 0.291  | 3.512| 0                       |

a. Dependent Variable: Organization Commitment

Table 2: Regression Results for the Joint Regression Relationship between Principals’ Emotional Intelligence and Teachers’ Organizational Commitment

X₁ = Self-Awareness, X₂ = Self-Management, X₃ = Social Awareness, X₄ = Relationship Management, Y = Organization Commitment

5. Discussion and Conclusion of the Study

The overall objective for this study was to investigate the influence of principals’ emotional intelligence on organizational commitment of secondary school teachers in county governments in Kenya. The findings reveal that the relationship between principals’ EI dimensions and teachers’ OC was statistically significant (F = 17.165, p-value<0.001). With R² = 0.146, the model implies that about 14.6% variation in organizational commitment is explained by variation in EI dimensions.

With R= 0.382, the findings indicates that the relationship between principals' EI dimensions and teachers' OC was significant. Hence, the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between principals' EI and teachers' OC was rejected. The results are consistent with those of Long, et al. (2014) that indicated a statistically significant and a positive relationship between leaders’ 4 dimensions of EI and subordinates OC. The findings agree with those of Rath & Rastogi (2009) and Matheri, et. al (2018) who found a positive relationship between EI and OC. Consistently Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) argues that positive or negative events experienced by employees at the workplace which mainly originate from a leader causes emotional/affective reactions and a have direct influence on their OC. Hence, leaders who know and can manage their emotions are more likely to react to problems in a more controlled manner and are able to manage conflicts among employees thereby increasing their OC.

6. Practical Implication

The results of our study have important implications for management practice. This article has found that principals’ EI has significant influence on teacher’ OC. Emotional intelligence training may be a powerful tool that organizations can employ to enhance OC of their employees. This study makes significant contribution to the advancement of knowledge in academic sector in Kenya. Given that most research on principals’ EI and teachers’ OC has been conducted outside Kenya.
(CARMELI, 2003; KHALILI, 2011; COETZEE, PAUW, 2013), findings from our study demonstrate that the effects of these two variables are not only limited to those other countries.

7. Recommendations of the Study

This study suggests that development programmes for principals should include the study of EI as part of education management training programmes in order to build and enhance these skills. Better still this may be included in curriculum of institutions that train student teachers such as universities in order to enhance their EI. Teachers’ Service Commission (teacher employer in Kenya) should include EI as an important skill during recruitment of new principals. The study confined itself to Nairobi, Machakos, Kajiado, and Kiambu counties; hence more research could be carried out in other counties in Kenya to verify these findings. Since principals’ EI significantly influences teachers’ OC, this study recommends that more research could be carried out in other sectors on the effects of leaders’ EI on employees’ OC. To fully understand principals OC, further research needs to be carried out on perceived organizational commitment of principals by teachers.

8. Drawbacks Factors and Limitations of the Study

Though the research used the teachers to rate principals’ EI for fear of biases, the results had no major differences between the principals’ ratings and those by teachers. Secondly, the fact that the study was cross-sectional in nature rather than longitudinal did not allow a affirmative causal explanations. The results of this study are drawn from data collected from education sector as such; generalization of the findings to other sectors might be limited. Finally the researcher had limited resources to collect data from the four counties in Kenya. This was resolved by requesting the assistance of some county directors who would issue questionnaires to sampled principals during meetings.

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