The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Work Commitment: The Moderating Role of Organizational Culture

Saira Irfan, Department of Applied Psychology, University of Sahiwal, Pakistan
*Waris Ali, Department of Business Administration, University of Sahiwal, Pakistan
Muhammad Abdul Basit Memon, Department of Business Administration, Institute of Business Administration, Sukkur, Pakistan
Shahzad Younis, Department of Business Administration, University of Sahiwal, Pakistan

*Corresponding author’s email: waris.ali@uosahiwal.edu.pk

ARTICLE DETAILS
History
Revised format: May 2021
Available Online: Jun 2021

Keywords
Clan culture,
Adhocracy culture,
Hierarchy culture,
Market culture,
Emotional intelligence

JEL Classification
M0, M12

ABSTRACT
Purpose: The objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment through the moderating role of organizational culture.

Design/Methodology/Approach: A sample of 351 teachers was randomly selected from public sector universities of Punjab, Pakistan. The data was acquired using a self-administered questionnaire. The study used the structural equation modeling technique (PLS-SEM) to test the hypothesized relationships.

Findings: The result showed a differential impact of all the dimensions of emotional intelligence on work commitment. The results showed a significant positive relationship between the interpersonal dimension and work commitment and a significant negative relationship between the adaptability dimension and work commitment. The remaining dimensions of emotional intelligence were found to have an insignificant relationship. However, hierarchy culture moderated the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment.

Implications/Originality/Value: The results highlight the significance of emotional intelligence and hierarchy culture for university teachers. The study suggests university authorities to invest in organizational culture to develop and improve emotional intelligence competencies among university teachers to enhance work commitment.

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Introduction
This study investigates the moderating role of organizational culture in the relationship between
emotional intelligence and work commitment in university teachers. Emotionally intelligent staffs refer to those who want to continue a job in the organization and are determined to accomplish corporate objectives (Nordin, 2012). The concept of emotional intelligence (EI) has acquired remarkable significance among academic institutions and it has a profound influence on teachers’ functioning. Teachers are the essential stakeholders of the educational hub. Teachers moderate the process of transferring knowledge to the students who are the strength for national development (Ahmed, 2015). The teaching profession is regarded as a very social and emotional career (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Research has revealed that highly emotionally intelligent employees perform efficiently and can manage their work outcomes positively given the fact that they are more contented, have better work-related skills, and can control emotions (Sy, Tram & O’Hara, 2006). Similarly to the above, employees who are emotionally intelligent are considered happier, dedicated, successful, and better performer in the organization (Goleman, 1988; Gardner & Stough, 2002). Further, they make decisions positively and are capable to impart a sensation of enthusiasm, confidence, and cooperation in coworkers through interactive relations (George, 2000). In addition, scholars have reported that emotional intelligence is associated with high levels of career success (Mustafa, Ismail & Buntat, 2014; Dulewics & Higgs, 2004). Isenbarger and Zembylas (2006) emphasized that emotions have great significance for teaching and consequently improves a sense of commitment, satisfaction, and self-esteem in teachers. Besides, researchers reported that emotional intelligence has a significant positive relationship with three components of organizational commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment)(Shafiq & Rana, 2016). Similarly, the extant literature has shown that emotionally intelligent employees show greater organizational commitment (Moradi & Ardahaey, 2011).

Emotional intelligence is vital for the development of organizational commitment (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002). Thus, to attain a maximum level of work commitment, the organization may need to promote emotional intelligence in its staff. Jang and George (2010) argued that employees high in emotional intelligence tend to be more optimistic as they manage their perception of the work environment. Brown (1998) described culture as an influential force that refers to the thoughts, conduct, and emotions in an organization. Besides this, Kitayama and Markus (1994) suggested that culture forms and supports emotions. Cultural values, ethics, and customs affect how people think and react in certain situations. Pragmatically, the fundamental attributes of emotional intelligence such as an individual’s conduct in interpersonal relationships and interactions are affected by culture. Beyer and Nino (2001) suggested that culture establishes a societal forum that allows individuals to recognize and develop affectional relationships with others. This leads to the satisfaction of an individual’s affiliation need (De Dreu, West, Fischer, & MacCurtain, 2001) and commitment to organizations (Schein, 2004). Since the majority of the past studies have focused on organizational commitment and there is a lack of research on the construct of work commitment. Therefore, the current research adds to the existing body of knowledge by investigating the effects of emotional intelligence on work commitment through organizational culture.

**Literature Review and Hypotheses Development**

**Trait Activation Theory**

Literature has verified the validity and reliability of emotional intelligence for predicting retention and performance in industry and scholars have recommended that the same advantages may be achieved in the educational sector (Rankin, 2009). According to the context-based perspective, the legitimacy of emotional intelligence may be liable on contexts (organizational culture). Since prominent cues (emotion-based cues) related to traits are embedded in contexts. These cues are expected to trigger the countenance of EI and thereby improve its connotation with organizational outcomes (work commitment) (Miao, Humphrey, & Qian, 2016; Farh, Seo,
& Tesluk, 2012). There is a consistency between context-based perspective and trait activation theory. Trait activation theory proposes that traits predict additional implications in the presence of trait-relevant cues in a context. These cues stimulate the expression of an individual's psychological traits and trigger them to behave consistently with contextual cues (Farh, Seo, & Tesluk, 2012).

**Work Commitment**

Morrow (1993) defined work commitment as an individual’s adherence to work ethic endorsement, job involvement, affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment, and career commitment. Several aspects of employee commitment are incorporated in work commitment within the domain of work. Given that different levels of commitment are experienced based on diverse foci of employment, therefore, employee’s work outcomes such as behaviors and withdrawal intents should be expressed as a function of all types of commitment instead of a particular or a combination of few commitment types (Wiener & Vardi, 1980). Hackett, Lapierre, and Hausdorf (2001) supported the notion and commented that different foci of work commitment correspond to different attitudes, and thus different impacts on work outcomes are foreseen. An individual’s commitment is important because it affects the journey of goal achievement. Literature has shown that an individual’s work commitment is directly and positively related to organizational performance (Akintayo, 2010; Blood, 1969; Vandenber & Self, 1993). Other researchers have reported that it is essential for organizations to establish organizational commitment that includes their respective standards, objectives, and as well as work commitment, career commitment, occupational commitment and work ethic endorsement in its employees (Dalton & Todor, 1993; Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993). Therefore, as a significant motivational instrument, work commitment inspires individuals to advance careers in their organization.

**Emotional Intelligence and Work Commitment**

This research undertook the definition of emotional intelligence provided by Bar-On (2002). The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence defines EI as a collection of associated emotional and social behaviors, capabilities, and skills that determine the degree of our self-understanding, self-expression, understanding towards others, relation with others, and management of day-to-day pressures, demands, and challenges. This eventually brings benefits to the organization through several individual outcomes such as employee commitment. Seo et al., (2012) reported an association between positive and negative emotions and commitment. Similarly, Wong and Law (2002) described that emotional intelligence and job outcomes (organizational commitment and job satisfaction) are significantly related. Inability to assess and manage emotions is related to decreased organizational commitment (Abraham, 2000), whereas an elevated degree of emotional intelligence in employees is associated with greater organizational commitment (Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002). Deleon (2015) commented that greater emotional intelligence brings well committed and helpful employees. In previous studies, a significant positive relationship was observed between emotional intelligence, work commitment and satisfaction (Salim et al., 2015) and organizational commitment (Alavi, Mojatidzadeh, Amin, & Savoji, 2013; Raza, Saleem, & Qamar, 2014; Shafiq & Rana, 2016). Moreover, emotional intelligence has been recognized as an important success indicator in education, industries, and community relationships, and their influence on the administration, production, and work attitudes was also supported (Madani & Asgari, 2014). Contrary to the above-mentioned studies, Aghdasi et al. (2011) revealed that emotional intelligence has no impact on occupational stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Rather, job satisfaction significantly affects organizational commitment. In addition to the impact of overall emotional intelligence, few studies also investigated the effects of emotional intelligence dimensions on employees' commitment. Dimensions of emotional intelligence such as self-awareness, self-management, social awareness were positively related to organizational commitment in previous studies (Aghabozorgi, Mehn,

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Alipour & Azizi, 2014; Dehghan & Saeidi, 2013). Whereas other two dimensions of EI such as stress management and intrapersonal were insignificantly related to job satisfaction (Hosseinian, Yazdi, Zahraie, & Fathi-Ashtiani, 2008; Livingstone, 2001). In another study, stress management and adaptability were not maintained as predictors of academic achievement (Zahed-Babelan & Moenikia, 2010). These inconsistent findings leave a gap for future studies. It is therefore assumed that dimensions of emotional intelligence affect work commitment, as set out in the following hypotheses.

H1. The intrapersonal dimension of emotional intelligence has a significant positive effect on work commitment among university teachers in Pakistan.
H2. The interpersonal dimension of emotional intelligence has a significant positive effect on work commitment among university teachers in Pakistan.
H3. The adaptability dimension of emotional intelligence has a significant positive effect on work commitment among university teachers in Pakistan.
H4. The general mood dimension of emotional intelligence has a significant positive effect on work commitment among university teachers in Pakistan.
H5. The stress-management dimension of emotional intelligence has a significant positive effect on work commitment among university teachers in Pakistan.

The Moderating Role of Organizational Culture

Organizational culture is very significant to understand organizational behavior. Organizational culture profoundly influences employees’ attitudes and behaviors (Wagner, 1995). Manetje and Martins (2009) explained that organizational culture comprises standards and values that influence the employees’ behavior in an organization. The behavior of employees includes a commitment to an organization. In an organization, the core values are well preserved and commonly shared with a strong culture. The commitment of employees can be improved by acknowledging these values (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Martins & Martins, 2003). The properties of culture and related human behavior are very strong, hence, there is a need to understand the connection between an employee’s sense of loyalty and organization (Brown, 1998). Organizational culture is the key determinant that directly affects how employees manage their efforts and energy in their roles (Black, 1999) and their attitudes related to work (Manetje & Martins, 2009; Wagner, 1995).

In previous researches, organizational culture was established to significantly influence organizational commitment among teachers from private higher education institutions of Pakistan (Sabri, Ilyas & Amjad, 2013), physical education teachers from Isfahan city (Azadi, Farsani, Farsani & Aroufzad, 2013), the faculty of Islamic Azad University, Iran (Masouleh & Allahyari, 2017) and employees of Perbadanan Kemajuan Negeri Kedah (Salleh, 2012). Moreover, organizational culture, its dimensions, and organizational commitment were also significantly related in another study (Azizollah, Abolghasem & Mohammad Amin, 2015). In addition, literature has also established moderating effects of organizational culture in the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment (Letam, 2017) and transformational leadership among academic leaders (Al Issa & Mahmood, 2016). Similarly, clan, market, and adhocracy culture were positively and significantly associated with emotional intelligence (Parker & Bradley as cited in Sin & Yazdanifard, 2013). Additionally, a significant correlation has been reported between dimensions of emotional intelligence and hierarchical culture (Tolmats & Reino, 2006). Inconsistent with the above studies, in Australian public sector organizations (Parker & Bradley, 2000), health organizations (Helfrich, Li, Mohr, Meterko & Sales, 2007), and educational institutions (Trivellas & Dargenidou, 2009) hierarchy culture was observed as dominant.

Hence, the present study finds a research gap in the literature in that very few studies have
considered all these three important research areas (organizational culture, emotional intelligence, and work commitment) in a single conceptual or empirical model. This study has attempted to conceptualize a unified model and seeks to investigate the moderating role of organizational culture in the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment among university teachers in Pakistan. Moreover, previous studies focused solely on general organizational culture as a moderator. The present study has also explored the moderating effects of different types of organizational culture in the above-mentioned relationship.

Based on the literature review, the following hypotheses are established.

H6. Clan culture moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment.
H7. Adhocracy culture moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment among the university teachers in Pakistan.
H8. Hierarchy culture moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment.
H9. Market culture moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment.

The research framework is presented in figure 1.

Research Methods
Participants and Procedures
This study applied the survey research method. Participants were selected from 9 public universities of Punjab, Pakistan employing a simple random sampling technique. The sample comprised of 351 teachers, with an average age of 25 to 34 years. Data collection was performed through validated questionnaires. The assumption of normality was a prerequisite to proceed to further tests.

Instruments
Work Commitment Index developed by Blau, Paul, and St. John (1993) was applied to investigate work commitment. The Likert scale ranged from (1) strongly disagree to (6) strongly agree was used to assess 31 items of WCI. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient value of this scale was 0.98. The current study used a short version of EQ comprised of 51 items (Bar-On, 2002) to measure emotional intelligence. It furnishes a score for total EI and its dimensions. Likert scale ranging from 1 = “very seldom or not true of me” to 5 = “very often true of me or true of me” was used to rate each item. Reported Cronbach’s alpha range for Bar-On EQ-I and Bar-On EQ-i:S subscales was 0.69 to 0.86 (Bar-On, 2002) and in the current study Cronbach’s alpha value range from 0.877 to 0.916. Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999) was applied to examine organizational culture. A five-point Likert scale ranging from (5) strongly agree to (1) strongly disagree was used to rate the 24 items of the instrument. The reported reliability coefficient for clan culture was .79, for adhocracy culture
0.80, for hierarchy culture 0.76, and for market culture 0.77 (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Yeung, Brockbank, & Ulrich, 1991). In the present study, Cronbach alpha values are 0.91, 0.93, 0.94, and 0.82 for the clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market respectively.

Results
The present study was carried out to examine the moderating effects of organizational culture on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment in university teachers. Data was collected from 351 university teachers, with a 76% response rate. The sample consisted of 60.1% females and 39.9% males. Respondents’ average age was between 25 to 34 years. Smart PLS 3.0 software (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2015) was applied to study the research model.

Measurement Model Evaluation
Convergent and discriminant validity was calculated for the assessment of the measurement model by performing confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Factor loadings, average variance extracted (AVE), and composite reliability was also analyzed to establish convergent validity. All loadings were greater than 0.60 except 3 loadings that were GM10 = .061, IP1 and IP10 = 0.57. The values of composite reliabilities were higher than 0.87 and the AVE values were higher than 0.51 as recommended by Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt (2014). Afterward, discriminant validity was assessed. It confirms the construct validity of the outer model. According to Chin (2010) recommendations, it was calculated by testing square roots of average variance extracted (AVE) with correlations amid the latent constructs. The accepted value of AVE is 0.50 and above and the suggested value of the square root of AVE is more than the correlations amid the latent constructs. Values can be observed in Table 1, since these values are less than 0.85, showing discriminant validity as suggested by kline (2011).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>AT</th>
<th>AY</th>
<th>CLAN</th>
<th>GM</th>
<th>HY</th>
<th>IER</th>
<th>IP</th>
<th>MT</th>
<th>SM</th>
<th>WC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AT</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>AY</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.09</td>
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<tr>
<td>CLAN</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>0.823</td>
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<tr>
<td>GM</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>0.379</td>
<td>0.464</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>HY</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.374</td>
<td>0.435</td>
<td>0.154</td>
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<td>IER</td>
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<td>0.153</td>
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<tr>
<td>IP</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>0.367</td>
<td>0.414</td>
<td>0.745</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>0.526</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>MT</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>0.096</td>
<td>0.175</td>
<td>0.455</td>
<td>0.312</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>SM</td>
<td>0.122</td>
<td>0.132</td>
<td>0.161</td>
<td>0.331</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>0.432</td>
<td>0.224</td>
<td>0.145</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>0.754</td>
<td>0.722</td>
<td>0.408</td>
<td>0.620</td>
<td>0.209</td>
<td>0.370</td>
<td>0.273</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: IP: Intrapersonal; IER: Interpersonal; AT: Adaptability; SM: Stress-Management; GM: General Mood; WC: Work Commitment; AY: Adhocracy; HY: Hierarchy; MT: Market

Second-order Construct Establishment
There are two categories of models in the measurement analysis: reflective measurement model and formative measurement model. The dependent variable of this study is work commitment which is a reflective-reflective model. Convergent validity was measured for work commitment because in this case, it is suggested to report AVE and Composite reliability (Hair, 2013). AVE value is 0.843 and composite reliability is 0.955 for a work commitment, which is according to the threshold values. However, this study has used the reflective-formative measurement model approach for independent variable emotional intelligence and moderator variable organizational culture as all the indicators were reflective-formative in nature after following the recommendations of Hair, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2014). Reliability and validity of the first-order indicators and their corresponding second-order construct are required through collinearity and significance of indicators tests in the reflective-formative measurement model (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2010). Three steps are involved in assessing formative measures: (1) test for
weight significance (t-value), (2) test for multi-collinearity (VIF), and (3) Indicator Weights.

In Table 2, the collinearity between dimensions of EI and types of OC is tested through VIF and no indication of collinearity was observed among the indicators. All the values are less than the threshold of VIF = <5.0 (Hair et al., 2014). This indicates that all dimensions are reliable and independent of each other. The analysis of PLS for second-order constructs is run through a two-stage approach. This approach estimates the model in the initial phase without the second-order construct. In the second stage, the construct scores of the first-order constructs are used as indicators for the second-order construct to evaluate the parameters of the model (Hair et al., 2014). To establish the construct validity, the significance of indicators of first-order constructs (dimensions of EI and OC) to work commitment is tested through their t-values and p-values by running bootstrapping of 500 resamples in Smart PLS 3.2.1, as shown in Table 2. The significance of the dimensions of EI and types of OC are also reported in Table 2. It is necessary to assess the significance of outer weights for formative indicators to validate them (Hair et al., 2014). In this study, all the weights are significant in each dimension excluding the adaptability dimension of EI and the market type of OC. However, these are retained for further analysis as these are important to study the variables. Moreover, these are the part of the instruments which cannot be eliminated solely based on statistical reasoning (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006; Jarvis, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003). Moreover, the elimination of any formative single indicator may modify the meaning and scope of the whole variable as it occupies the specific part of the construct (Noor & Hanafi, 2017; MacKenzie & Royle, 2005; Jarvis et al., 2003).

The results of VIF and weights, their respective t-values, and p-values of second-order constructs are presented in Table 2. The contribution and significance for each dimension in making the second-order constructs are also established at p< 0.05, thus, supporting the dimensions of EI and OC. Thus, it is established that these dimensions are formative constructs, thus verifying the nomological validity.

| Table 2. Convergent Validity (VIF and Significance of Second-Order Construct) |
| Variables | Dimensions | Weights | VIF | t-values | p-values |
| EI | IP | 0.395 | 2.346 | 18.491 | 0.000 |
| | IER | 0.356 | 2.049 | 14.518 | 0.000 |
| | AT | 0.008 | 1.013 | 0.488 | 0.313 |
| | GM | 0.360 | 2.302 | 18.362 | 0.000 |
| | SM | 0.172 | 1.286 | 7.426 | 0.000 |
| OC | CLAN | 0.400 | 2.922 | 28.678 | 0.000 |
| | ADHO | 0.428 | 2.51 | 22.797 | 0.000 |
| | HIRAR | -0.370 | 1.666 | 4.502 | 0.000 |
| | MAR | 0.085 | 1.307 | 1.120 | 0.132 |

Note: IP: Intrapersonal; IER: Interpersonal; AT: Adaptability; SM: Stress-Management; GM: General Mood; WC: Work Commitment; AY: Adhocracy; HY: Hierarchy; MT: Market; OC: Organizational Culture; EI: Emotional Intelligence.

Assessment of Significance of the Structural Model and hypotheses testing
The structural model analysis involves the significance of path coefficients, the level of R², f², and predictive relevance Q² (Hair et al., 2014). The path coefficients, t-values, R², f², and Q² values are presented in Table 3.

| Table 3. Direct Hypotheses Relationship |
| Hypothesized Relationship | Std. Beta | Std. Error | T-Value | P-Value | Result | 5.00% | 95.00% | VIF | R² | f² | Q² |
| H1 | 0.037 | 0.043 | 0.860 | 0.195 |Supported | -0.033 | 0.106 | 2.346 | 0.735 | 0.002 | 0.44 |
| H2 | 0.127 | 0.041 | 3.128 | 0.001 |Supported | 0.059 | 0.189 | 2.050 | 0.030 |
Table 3 showed an insignificant relationship between intrapersonal dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment ($\beta = 0.037, t = 0.860, p>0.05$), significant positive relationship between interpersonal dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment ($\beta = 0.127, t=3.128, p<0.05$), significant negative relationship between adaptability dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment ($\beta = -0.103, t=2.994, p<0.05$) and supported $H1$, $H2$ and $H3$. However, $H4$ and $H5$ were not supported, which exhibited that stress-management ($\beta = -0.015, t=0.416, p>0.05$) and general mood ($\beta = 0.057, t=1.367, p>0.05$) dimensions of emotional intelligence were not significantly correlated with work commitment.

To establish the existence of moderating effects, t-values and p-values were calculated. The findings of moderating effects are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4. Moderated Hypotheses Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypo</th>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>Std. Beta</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>T-Value</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
<th>Result</th>
<th>5.00%</th>
<th>95.00%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H6</td>
<td>Clan*EI→WC</td>
<td>-0.181</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>3.902</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>-0.258</td>
<td>-0.107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H7</td>
<td>Adho*EI→WC</td>
<td>-0.197</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>4.052</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>-0.277</td>
<td>-0.118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H8</td>
<td>Hirar*EI→WC</td>
<td>0.260</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>8.281</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>0.209</td>
<td>0.313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H9</td>
<td>Mar*EI→WC</td>
<td>-0.151</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>-0.245</td>
<td>-0.074</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 4, H6, H7 and H9 presented that clan culture ($\beta = -0.181, t=3.902, p<0.05$), adhocracy culture ($\beta = -0.197, t=4.052, p<0.05$) and market culture ($\beta = -0.151, t=2.90, p<0.05$) negatively moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. However, H8 revealed a significantly positive relationship between hierarchy culture and work commitment ($\beta = 0.260, t=8.281, p<0.05$).

**Discussion**

This study investigated the effects of EI on work commitment and the moderated role of organizational culture in this relationship. Results revealed that the intrapersonal dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment was not associated. The finding is in line with the past study in which the intrapersonal dimension of emotional intelligence was insignificantly related to job satisfaction (Kassim, Bambale, & Jakada, 2016). It contradicts the findings of other studies which proposed that preservice educators that were highly committed were those who were also emotionally intelligent, particularly in terms of self-appraisal and employing emotions in cognitive processing (Chesnut & Cullen, 2014).

The finding can be attributed to the possibility that ability to identify particular emotions, and personal strengths and weaknesses is not a core competency. Rather a combination of all other competencies leads toward work commitment.

In addition, a positive association among the interpersonal dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment was observed. It is in line with the findings of former researches, which established an association between the interpersonal dimension of emotional intelligence and...
organizational commitment (Shafiq & Rana, 2016) and general teaching efficiency (Hassan et al., 2015).

A significantly negative relationship was observed between the adaptability dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment. Findings of past studies established that the adaptability ability of senior leaders and employee engagement are insignificantly related and further it revealed a negative relationship when other proficiencies were controlled (Stroud, 2009).

In addition, an insignificant relationship was observed between stress management and the general mood dimension of emotional intelligence and work commitment. An insignificant relationship was found between stress management and job satisfaction (Hosseiniyan, Yazdi, Zahrane, & Fathi-Ashtiani, 2008; Livingstone, 2001). These findings can be attributed to the possibility that incapacity to understand and manage one’s emotions is related to decreased commitment (Brown, George-Curran & Smith, 2003).

Analysis regarding moderating effects indicated that clan culture negatively moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. This finding demonstrates that the relationship is weaker when clan culture moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. Adhocracy and market culture negatively moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. Hierarchy culture positively moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. In a study, Kallas (2010) found an insignificant or low relationship between emotional intelligence and hierarchy culture, moderate with market culture and strong with clan and adhocracy culture. In addition, Trivellas and Dargenidou (2009) also found hierarchy culture dominant in educational institutions.

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

Conclusion
This study extends the scope of the emotional intelligence literature by not only investigating the presence and significance of this construct in an eastern country like Pakistan but also testing the significance of organizational culture in enhancing the work commitment of university teachers. The construct of work commitment has been overlooked in Pakistan. Moreover, this study takes an initial step and supplies an opportunity to examine the role of organizational culture types as a moderator in the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. It is an important step because it benefits the university teachers as well as the academic institutions. The methodological strength of this study is that reflective-reflective and reflective-formative higher-order construct models are applied in PLS-SEM, which has not been used in past studies. Nonetheless, the study is not devoid of limitations. Firstly, it is a country and public sector-specific study. It is suggested to extend this study to cross-sector and culture as well since this would reveal the cross-cultural effects of this model. It is also suggested to explore the moderating effects of organizational culture types through all dimensions of emotional
intelligence as well. Consequently, through this study, it can be established that hierarchy organizational culture significantly moderates the above-mentioned relationship. Controlled and structured characteristics of hierarchy culture and emotional intelligence help university teachers to deal in a better way with job demands and challenges and emotional, behavioral problems. Hence, organizational culture supports emotional intelligence to eventually improve their work commitment. Emotional intelligence is inseparable from teaching and practice. By incorporating them in teacher-focused development efforts, clear advantages may be derived.

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