

2020

Emotional Intelligence, Turnover Intention, and Commitment Among Nonprofit Employees

Tabitha Brewster
Walden University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations>



Part of the [Organizational Behavior and Theory Commons](#), and the [Psychology Commons](#)

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies Collection at ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu.

Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Tabitha J. Brewster

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee

Dr. Matthew Fearington, Committee Chairperson, Psychology Faculty

Dr. John Schmidt, Committee Member, Psychology Faculty

Dr. Brian Cesario, University Reviewer, Psychology Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2019

Abstract

Emotional Intelligence, Turnover Intention, and Commitment Among Nonprofit
Employees

by

Tabitha J. Brewster

MS, Walden University, 2009

BA, Alfred University, 2004

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Psychology

Walden University

November 2019

Abstract

Employee turnover is a persistent problem contributing to financial issues and declining productivity in nonprofit organizations. Nonprofits cannot fulfill their core missions of providing services to people in need when managing staffing disruptions. Measuring employee turnover intention can determine the probability of employee turnover, and a potential predictor of turnover intention is emotional intelligence, an area unstudied in the nonprofit sector. This study was designed to explore this relationship, in addition to the employee's commitment to the organization. The population consisted of 273 nonprofit employees older than 18 years, working in a nonsupervisory capacity. They completed an online survey consisting of measures of emotional intelligence, turnover intention, and commitment. The findings of this study showed no relationship between total emotional intelligence and turnover intention; however, there were significant relationships with the 4 predictors of emotional intelligence, as well as the scales of commitment. The results of this study can be used to better understand how to strengthen a nonprofit employees' commitment to his or her organizations through better understanding of commitment levels themselves, as well as to the emotional intelligent that informs such commitment. With such understanding, organizations could potentially better retain the talent of their workforces, and in turn better serve their communities without as many interruptions to their services. Retaining employees is essential to organizational health to ensure consistent and excellent services are provided to those in need.

Emotional Intelligence, Turnover Intention, and Commitment Among Nonprofit
Employees

by

Tabitha J. Brewster

MS, Walden University, 2009

BA, Alfred University, 2004

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Psychology

Walden University

November 2019

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my family and in loving memory of my mom, Kathie Evelyn Sleight. My mom was a driving force for me always to do better. She helped me build resilience that I never thought existed. She taught me to push myself beyond limits. To work hard. To move mountains. Although my mom was part of my inspiration to pursue my doctoral degree, she could not be here for my graduation. I love you mom and I know you are proud of me for finishing this task I once thought was just a dream. To my family, who encouraged me to pursue my learning. Who helped me all things big and small. There were many days I couldn't be part of the family outings. You graciously shared the memories of each of those days with me and on occasion, would photoshop me in the pictures to help me feel part of the day. I will forever be grateful to each of you. To my husband, thank you for the extra push I truly needed to finish. Your unwavering support and encouragement to pursue my dreams of attaining my Ph.D will never be forgotten. To my children, Bradley and Kaidence, don't just chase your dreams, take hold of them and never let go! You have what it takes! Lastly, thank you, God for always sticking by me in my darkest moments.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	iv
List of Figures	v
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Background.....	3
Statement of the Problem.....	5
Purpose of the Study	6
Research Questions	7
Research Question 1	7
Research Question 2	8
Research Question 3	9
Theoretical Framework.....	11
Nature of the Study	12
Definitions.....	13
Assumptions.....	15
Delimitations.....	15
Limitations	15
Summary	17
Chapter 2: Literature Review.....	19
Literature Search Strategy.....	20
Emotional Intelligence	20
The Ability Model.....	23

The Mixed Model.	24
Theory of Performance	24
Turnover and the Theory of Planned Behavior.....	27
Organizational Sector Differences	29
Turnover.....	30
Turnover Intention	34
Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace	38
Emotional Intelligence and Turnover Intention.....	41
Measures	43
Summary.....	43
Chapter 3: Research Method.....	45
Research Design.....	45
Population and Sample	46
Instruments.....	48
Reliability.....	50
Validity	51
Reliability.....	53
Validity	54
Reliability.....	55
Validity	55
Procedure	56
Data Collection	59
Research Question 1	60

Research Question 2	61
Research Question 3	62
Ethical Considerations	64
Other Considerations	65
Summary	65
Chapter 4: Results	67
Research Questions	69
Research Question 1	69
Research Question 2 and Hypotheses	71
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, Recommendations.....	86
Implications for Social Change.....	94
Reservations and Limitations.....	95
Future Research	97
References.....	101
Appendix A: Invitation to Participate in Research	138
Appendix B: Informed Consent	139

List of Tables

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Study Measures	68
Table 2. Correlation of Turnover Intention and Total Emotional Intelligence.....	69
Table 3. Descriptives of Turnover Intention and Emotional Intelligence Subscales.....	71
Table 4. The Results of Regression Emotional Intelligence Subscales and Turnover Intentions.....	79
Table 5. Coefficients of Turnover Intention and Emotional Intelligence	80
Table 6. Descriptives for Turnover Intention and Commitment Subscales	83
Table 7. Correlations Matrix of Turnover Intention and Commitment Subscales.....	85
Table 8. Hierarchical Regression of Commitment Subscales and Turnover Intention.....	88
Table 9. Hierarchical Regression Coefficients	89

List of Figures

Figure 1. Normal Q-Q plot of standardized residuals.....	75
Figure 2. Normal Q-Q plot of residual for hierarchical regression.....	78

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Nonprofit organizations have been faced with the struggle of keeping up with the significant number of people who need the services that they offer. Recent researchers have indicated nonprofits are now the third largest industry in the United States and are expected to continue to grow substantially into the future (FAE Poverty, 2015; Nonprofit HR, 2014). As the growth of nonprofits increase to keep up with service demands, it presents challenges such as hiring and retaining qualified staff (FAE Poverty, 2015).

According to a recent nonprofit employment survey, 45% of nonprofits reported hiring new staff; nearly 20% of all new hires were associated with filling positions related to employee turnover (Nonprofit HR, 2014). Although some employee turnover can be healthy for organizations, turnover among key staff can be costly (Berry, 2010). For example, replacing only one employee can cost an organization more than a year's salary for the position to be filled (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010). The effects of too much turnover can result in serious financial problems for organizations.

Employee turnover can be either voluntary or involuntary (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Voluntary versus involuntary turnover relates to whether the employment was initiated by the employee or the organization. Voluntary turnover can be functional (when people leave who are not necessarily considered high performers) or dysfunctional (workers who leave and leaders want them to stay). which means losing high performing employees (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Employees who are high performers, and who voluntarily leave, can generate further issues with the performance of organizations when they resign (Kim, 2012). Performance issues can result within organizations with high turnover, such as low employee morale, followed by difficulties meeting program goals and quality services

(Kim, 2012). Although employee turnover is part of any business, both profit and nonprofit, turnover in nonprofits has been a major problem (Debebe, 2007; Long, Thean, Ismail, & Jusoh, 2012; Nonprofit HR, 2014).

Researchers have provided evidence that *emotional intelligence* (defined in this study as optimism, social skill level, emotional regulation ability, and utilization of emotion ability) can affect how decisions are made, as decisions are frequently guided by the emotions (Alkozei, Schwab, & Killgore, 2015). According to Mohammad, Chai, Aun, and Migin (2014), individuals who display higher levels of emotional intelligence can accurately recognize emotions and thoughts as they arise and correspondingly control their own reaction, thus lessening the chances of making irrational decisions. An organization's leadership's ability to accurately recognize employees' emotions may help the leadership address problems as they arise, prior to a worsening situation.

In addition to emotional intelligence as a predictor of turnover intention, I also explored employee commitment to the organization. According to Meyer and Allen (2004), *commitment* infers an intention to continue forward with a potential plan of action. Therefore, organizations often promote employee commitment, which helps strengthen the business, and voluntary turnover (Meyer & Allen, 2004). *Commitment* is defined as having a strong belief in the goals and values of the organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). According to Meyer and Allen (1991), commitment is a psychological state that that can positively or negatively affect an employee's relationship to the organization. Employees possessing a strong negative emotional response to remain committed to the organization are generally less likely to leave (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Thus, organizational commitment has been identified as a strong

negative predictor of the organizational outcome, turnover intention (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). For purposes of this research, I examined organizational commitment to determine commitment level and association to turnover intention behaviors.

In summary, exploring employee emotional intelligence with turnover intention, while determining employee commitment to the nonprofit organization, may provide a clearer understanding of the associated high turnover. Nonprofit organizations may be able to retain valuable employees if employee emotions are acknowledged. Subsequently, if organizations can retain their high functioning employees, they can most likely continue to be viable entities in the workforce. In the remainder of Chapter 1, I describe the background of this study, followed by the significance and purpose, an overview of the research questions, and then an overall summary.

Background

The U.S. nonprofit sector has experienced substantial growth, both in size and numbers, and therefore has been subjected to significant change (Akingbola, 2015). The driving force behind the workforce shift has been attributed to a number of reasons such as baby boomers exiting the workforce, the wars associated with the events of September 11, 2001, generations entering the workforce being less educated than previous ones, the most recent economic crisis, as well as the increased cultural diversity in the workplace (Dychtwald, Erickson, & Morrison, 2006; Jamrog, 2004). Largely, the transformation in U.S. nonprofit organizations has been attributed to the changes in social needs (Akingbola, 2015). Despite the growing role of the demand for services, nonprofits' capacity to keep up with the requirements remains unsteady.

The financial resources of nonprofits are limited (Kaplan, 2003). The fiduciary responsibility to juggle funds can be complex. Nonprofits continuously face scrutiny for how public and philanthropic funding may be allocated (Bruce, 2000). Donors and funders who put their dollars towards nonprofit services expect the majority to go directly toward services as opposed to expenses associated with high administrative fees or other nondirect service costs. The effects that employee turnover impose are a tremendous cost on nonprofit's bottom line (Stewart, Volpone, Avery, & McKay, 2011). Organizations spend substantial amounts of money associated with turnover; 27% of a nonprofit's income is spent on turnover expenses for exit interviews, administrative fees, separation pay, hiring, and training new employees (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Inderrieden, 2005). For that reason, further consideration to reduce turnover in nonprofits is vital to ensure financial resources are spent in the most efficient and effective way.

In addition to turnover costs, approximately 16.5% of a nonprofit's income is spent on costs associated with employee turnover intention (Stewart et al., 2011). Turnover intention has been researched and the intention is a moderator to turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Turnover intention captures the individual's perception and evaluation of other job opportunities (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979). Accordingly, turnover intention has been integrated into several models of turnover (Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001). Prior researchers have identified some behaviors associated with employee turnover intention, such as decreased motivation, lack of purpose, and job dissatisfaction (Stewart et al., 2011). Withdrawal behaviors of employees tend to impose high degrees of breakdown within the organization (Clegg, 1983).

As would be expected, nonprofits cannot afford high voluntary turnover (Ledford, 2014). A considerable amount of research regarding emotional intelligence has transpired; however, the focus has been primarily within the for-profit business and with leadership personnel, and lacking attention in the nonprofit industry (Dong, Seo, & Bartol, 2014; Moon & Hur, 2011; Mousavi, Yarmohammadi, Nosrat, & Tarasi, 2012; Purdy, Macintosh, Miguel, & Mitchell, 2014). Given the lack of empirical research, the results of this study stand to contribute to positive social change within the field of organizational psychology by way of examining the constructs of employee emotional intelligence and organizational commitment as a predictor to turnover intention and turnover intention of nonprofit employees. Organizations can benefit from a more in-depth understanding of how factors such as emotional intelligence, and organizational commitment may influence the employee's decision to stay or to leave. In doing so, leaders of nonprofits can be better informed about their employee's turnover intention before turnover materializes, deepening the organization's structural issues

Statement of the Problem

Voluntary turnover of high performing employees is dysfunctional and can lead to compromised services as well as increased organizational costs as discussed above. When employees leave, the organization is taxed with finding and hiring qualified staff with a limited budget, as well as considerable time constraints to find the right person for the job (Nonprofit HR, 2015). In 2013, the turnover rate in nonprofits was 16%, and only 17% of the nonprofits had any formal retention plans (Nonprofit HR, 2015). Executing formal retention plans to reduce voluntary turnover in nonprofits to achieve optimal organizational performance is hindered by high dysfunctional turnover.

Prior research has postulated several determinants that attribute to turnover such as job satisfaction, family structure, and job-role conflict (Steers & Mowday, 1981). Other determining factors such as turnover intention, organizational commitment, and elements commonly associated with emotional intelligence have also gained considerable attention (Jaros, 2007; Jha, 2014; Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall, & Salovey, 2006; Yucel, 2012). Though studies have made substantial findings that have exposed the reasons why employees contemplate leaving, analysis across organizations of nonprofits is rare. Therefore, the core problem addressed in this study was turnover intention of employees of nonprofits, and whether emotional intelligence was a contributing factor to reducing turnover. In addition, as an extension of the research associated with turnover intention and emotional intelligence, this research included the variable of organizational commitment as a predictor to turnover intention.

Purpose of the Study

My purpose in this study was a focus on the nonmanaging employees of the nonprofit workforce within the United States and predicting their intention to leave given their emotional intelligence and commitment to the organization. My goal in this study was to develop a further understanding of the stimuli of turnover intention, emotional intelligence, and whether one or more factors related to the construct of emotional intelligence would lead to the decision to leave a current position of employment. I also designed this study to examine whether organizational commitment is a concomitant predictor to turnover intention. The potential relationship between voluntary turnover and emotional intelligence may offer an alternative strategy to leaders of nonprofits when exploring approaches to lessen turnover.

The majority of prior researchers have focused primarily on leaders' emotional intelligence and the effects that it has on employees' decision to stay or go, indicating significant relationships between the two (Hall, 2005). Despite this, there have been limited studies consisting of employees of nonprofit organizations and the potential impact of emotional intelligence on turnover intention (Hess & Bacigalupo, 2013). Therefore, I designed this study to examine the relationship between turnover intention and emotional intelligence level. In addition to turnover intention and emotional intelligence, I explored belief in the mission by examining organizational commitment. In this way, adding organizational commitment may help identify more fully why turnover intention may or may not be dissimilar with employees of nonprofits. The first research question was a replication to the current literature associated with turnover intention of emotional intelligence. The second research question was an extension of the current literature by adding the factor, organizational commitment. Last, the third research question allowed me to consider components of emotional intelligence appraisal and turnover intention of nonprofit employees. The specific questions and hypotheses were as follows:

Research Questions

Research Question 1

R₁: Is there a relationship between turnover intention and emotional intelligence level of employees in nonprofits?

Hypothesis 1

*H*₁₀: A positive relationship, or no relationship, exists between employee turnover intention and emotional intelligence.

H1_a: A negative relationship exists between employee turnover intention and emotional intelligence.

Research Question 2

R₂: Does one or more of the emotional intelligence components: optimism, social skill level, emotional regulation ability, and utilization of emotion ability, predict employee turnover intention?

Hypothesis 2A

H2₀: There is a positive relationship, or no relationship, between employee's emotional intelligence sub score of optimism and intent to leave.

H2_a: There is a negative relationship between high optimism of the employee's emotional intelligence sub score and intent to leave.

Hypothesis 2B

H2B₀: There is a positive relationship, or no relationship, between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of social skill level and intent to leave.

H2B_a: There is a negative relationship between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of social skill level and intent to leave.

Hypothesis 2C

H2C₀: There is a positive relationship, or no relationship, between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of emotional regulation level and intent to leave.

H2C_a: There is a negative relationship between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of emotional regulation level and intent to leave.

Hypothesis 2D

H2D₀: There is a positive relationship, or no relationship, between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of utilization of emotion level and intent to leave.

H2D_a: There is a negative relationship between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of utilization of emotion level and intent to leave.

Research Question 3

The relationship between turnover intention and commitment has been an important construct in attempting to understand (Yucel, 2012). Meyer and Allen's (1997) three-component commitment model proposes that employee commitment is tied to emotions and is demonstrated by different mindsets: desire, obligation, and cost. Affective commitment and normative commitment are often displayed in cultures where there is lower conformity, more individualistic, obligation to the organization, and emotional attachment. Affective commitment is referred to as the emotional attachment to the organization and often is related to employees staying because they want to, and normative commitment is connected to employees staying because it is in the best interest of the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Conversely, continuance commitment is associated with what the employee will have to give up such as money (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Employees of nonprofits tend to stay because they may feel a sense of obligation to the organization, and the type of commitment. Therefore, based on previous literature pertaining to nonprofit employees, and reasons why they may stay with an organization, I developed the following research question to address this:

R₃: Will there be a stronger relationship between affective and normative commitment on turnover intention than with continuance commitment on turnover intention of nonprofit employees?

Hypothesis 3

H3₀: There is no relationship between Affective Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

H3_a: There is a relationship between Affective Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

Hypothesis 4

H4₀: There is no relationship between Normative Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

H4_a: There is a relationship between Normative Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

Hypothesis 5

H5₀: There is no relationship between Continuous Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

H5_a: There is a relationship between Continuous Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

Hypothesis 6

H6₀: The relationship between Affective Commitment and turnover intention is not stronger than the Continuous Commitment and turnover intention relationship of nonprofit employees.

H6_a: The relationship between Affective Commitment and turnover intention is stronger than the Continuous Commitment and turnover intention relationship of nonprofit employees.

Hypothesis 7

H7₀: The relationship between Normative Commitment and turnover intention is not stronger than the Continuous Commitment and turnover intention relationship of nonprofit employees.

H7_a: The relationship between Normative Commitment and turnover intention is stronger than the Continuous Commitment and turnover intention relationship of nonprofit employees.

Theoretical Framework

The grounding theory for this study is work by Salovey and Mayer (1990).

Salovey and Mayer suggested emotional intelligence is a form of social intelligence and is described as a four-factor model to include the ability to monitor one's own and the emotions of others, as well as the use of emotions to guide thinking and decision making (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The four-factor construct is known as the ability model of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

The most fundamental form of Salovey and Mayer's (1990) four-factor model is the capacity to perceive emotion accurately. Salovey and Mayer have stated that emotions drive the cognitive thought process. Decoding emotional messages and the actions associated with them are necessary skills to achieve according to this model (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The overarching concept of this model is the regulation of emotion and the utilization of the information associated with the emotion in thinking and acting as primary components (Petrides & Furnham, 2000).

In addition to the Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model of emotional intelligence, I considered the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991). The theory of planned behavior was developed by Ajzen (1991) and has been a widely applied theory to examine

individual behavior in the workplace (Lin, Chen, & Fang, 2011). The basic premise behind this theory is the linking of beliefs and behavior (Ajzen, 1991). The theory includes the assertion that attitude toward the behavior, the perceived social norms to carry out the behavior, and perceived ability to control the behavior, together form the behavioral intentions and the behaviors (Ajzen, 1991; Van Breukelen, Vlist, & Stensma, 2004). The theory of planned behavior was developed to facilitate further understanding of behaviors, and, therefore, seems most appropriate for this research.

Last, I incorporated Meyer and Allen's (1997) model of three elements Affective, Normative, and Continuance of the commitment into this research. According to this model, employees experience the three elements of commitment based on emotional ties. This three-component model has been used by researchers to predict employee turnover (Meyer et al., 2002).

Nature of the Study

A quantitative research method was determined to be the most appropriate for conducting this study to investigate whether a relationship between the predictor variables of emotional intelligence and organizational commitment, with the criterion variable, is associated with and predicts voluntary turnover intention. The emotional intelligence variables include optimism, social skills, emotional regulation, and utilization of emotion, and the organizational commitment variables are affective, normative, and continuance commitment. The use of quantitative research methods permits the use of inferential statistical procedures and generalizes more broadly to the overall population. On the contrary, I did not choose a mixed methods or qualitative research for this study

because my goal was to gain the perspectives of nonprofit employees at large, not from a single location or source, which would be far less generalizable.

For this study, I chose a correlational research design because there was no treatment found in experimental studies (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002), nor did I manipulate any of the variables. The methods of measurement included a demographic survey in conjunction with three pre-existing and validated instruments: the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSRI,) a turnover intention scale by Mobley (1978), and a revised scale to determine commitment by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993). I created the survey in SurveyMonkey software. Then, I recruited participants via Amazon Mechanical Turk. Amazon Mechanical Turk is a web platform where researchers can recruit and survey participants fairly quickly and inexpensively (Buhrmester, Kwong, & Gosling, 2011).

I analyzed fully completed surveys using a correlation, multiple regression and hierarchical regression analysis. I examined the results of the multiple regression analysis to determine whether a relationship existed between the predictor variables, emotional intelligence factors and organizational behavior, with turnover intention. I provide a more detailed discussion of the research design and methodology in Chapter 3.

Definitions

Affective commitment: Desire-based commitment: Employees stay because they want to (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Continuous commitment: Cost-based commitment: Employees stay because they have to (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Emotional intelligence: The ability to regulate emotions to support intellectual growth (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Employee turnover or actual turnover: An employee is leaving a position within an organization (Jha, 2014).

For profit: A business whose goal is to generate a profit.

Intent to leave: The process of contemplating the departure from a current position.

Nonprofit: Any organization that conducts business but does not do so for the purpose of making a profit.

Normative commitment: Obligation based: Employees stay because they feel they should for the organizations best interest (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Organizational Commitment: Is a pattern of behaviors, behavioral intentions, motivator of intentions, or an attitude (Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994).

Self-awareness: “Knowing what we are feeling in the moment, and using those preferences to guide our decision making: having a realistic assessment of our on abilities and a well-grounded sense of self-confidence” (Goleman, 1998, p. 318).

Self-regulation: “Handling our emotions so that they facilitate rather than interfere with the task at hand; being conscientious and delaying gratification to pursue goals; recovering well from emotional distress” (Goleman, 1998, p. 318).

Social skills: “Handling emotions in relationships well and accurately reading social situations and networks; interacting smoothly; using these skills to persuade and lead, negotiate and settle disputes, for cooperation and teamwork” (Goleman, 1998, p. 318).

Turnover intention: The process of thinking about whether to leave a current position or stay (Schutte, 2009).

Voluntary turnover: An employee's decision to leave an organization (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013).

Withdrawal intentions: A process of thinking about quitting, intention of searching for other employment, and intention to quit (Mobley et al., 1978).

Assumptions

Assumptions are found in most cases of research. For this study, I made three assumptions. First, I assumed that the survey platform used appropriately screened participants based on the geographic region selected (included in this was the assumption that SurveyMonkey Audience recruited the targeted population of employees who worked in the nonprofit sector). Second, I assumed that participants answered questions honestly when completing the self-report as participant truthfulness is critical to obtaining accurate results.

Delimitations

Delimitations pertain to the boundaries of a study. The first delimitation for this study was the population. The population was limited to employees who were currently working in a nonprofit organization within the United States. Also, the employee had to be older than 18 years. Last, the employee could not be a manager or leader to any other employees.

Limitations

Limitations are considered to be potential weaknesses within a study (Simon, 2011). As with all studies, this study had limitations. Four limitations include the

following: convenience sampling, self-report method, important factors that influence identity, and skewness of the turnover intention scale.

First, I chose convenience sampling rather than probability sampling. In probability sampling, each member of the population of interest has a known chance of being selected for the study. When probability sampling is used, it gives the best chance of obtaining a sample that is representative of the population. However, I did not have access to a list of all nonmanagement employees of nonprofits in the United States, so I did not select study participants based on probability. Instead, I used a convenience sampling by relying on participants who volunteered to complete the online survey. By using convenience sampling, the researcher was not able to maximize the chance that the sample is representative of the population of interest. Therefore, it cannot be assumed the sample is similar to the population.

The second limitation was the accuracy of a self-report method. Self-report surveys rely solely on participant's answers and, as such, the participant's full and honest responses. Although I explained confidentiality, one limitation was the potential of inaccurate responses to the survey due to fear of recrimination on behalf of their organization. I asked participants to respond to questions related to components of the Schutte et al.'s emotional intelligence scale which consists of 33 items, a three-component scale related to commitment totaling 18 questions, and a three-item turnover intention scale. The limitations of a self-report method include misunderstanding of questions asked, accuracy of participant responses related to each of the questions, and respondents may lose interest and quit if the questionnaire is too lengthy (Schutte et al., 1998).

The third limitation of this study was the lack of data collection. To avoid compromising the privacy of participants, I did not collect demographics for this study. Collecting demographics might have made respondents uncomfortable, believing they could be potentially be identified. Further, I did not collect demographics because of the length of the questionnaire as it would have been too lengthy for an online data collection method. If a survey consists of too many questions, response rates can be greatly affected.

The fourth limitation of this study was the skewness in the distribution of the data sample for the turnover intention scale. If data are too skewed in the distribution, a transformation is recommended. A transformation was done and resulted in little to no difference in skewness. I determined the analyses performed were robust enough, and therefore I used the original data set (not transformed).

Summary

Employee turnover is a common problem in nonprofits and can often lead to both financial and performance issues. Therefore, it is vital to find ways to lessen employee turnover. As I identified previously, the concept of emotional intelligence can help identify and explain why employees may think about voluntarily leaving from their current place of employment. Findings from this research can be used to inform nonprofit leaders of the potential benefits of exploring the concepts associated with emotional intelligence to deter future turnover within their organization. Therefore, my objective in this study was to determine whether a relationship exists, and to what extent, between employee emotional intelligence and turnover intention, and organizational commitment as a predictor to turnover. In Chapter 2, I further examine the

extant literature about nonprofits. Also, in Chapter 2, I describe the extant literature of emotional intelligence, turnover intention, and organizational commitment.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Explanations for employee turnover have been part of a lengthy history of research (Griffeth et al., 2000; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Mobley, 1977). The research of emotional intelligence and turnover has been a field of interest generally in the corporate business (Carmelli, 2003). More recently, there has been a growing body of research on the relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and employee turnover (Jang & George, 2012; Svarna, 2013). Given this historical information on emotional intelligence and turnover, exploring employee emotional intelligence could be useful in understanding employee turnover intention in nonprofit organizations. One factor that has been well recognized to be a predictor of intentions is organizational commitment. Therefore, for purposes of this study, I considered organizational commitment as an extension to this study as concomitant predictor to turnover intention.

My intent in this chapter was to provide an in-depth literature review of each of the constructs associated with this research. This chapter starts with an overview of the literature review search strategy. Then, I provide an overview of emotional intelligence, history, and associated theories. After I address emotional intelligence, I provide a brief background of turnover and an explanation of why the theory of planned behavior was chosen for this study. Next, I considered the topic of nonprofits, followed by turnover, turnover intention, and determinants of turnover. Also, I discuss emotional intelligence and the relation to turnover intention. Last, I consider organizational commitment to turnover intention.

Literature Search Strategy

Key search terms that I used to review the literature included *nonprofit, not for profit, not for profit, emotional intelligence, employee emotional intelligence, turnover, turnover intention, organizational commitment, scales of organizational commitment, and employees*. Literature review searches included peer-reviewed articles and the electronic databases that I accessed were the Walden University Library, EBSCO, Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, and Walden Dissertations. Also, Google Scholar was accessed to retrieve journal articles and locate books for the aforementioned key search areas. Last, the search conducted included websites such as Nonprofit HR and Gallop Poll to access up-to-date statistics.

Emotional Intelligence

This section includes an explanation of emotional intelligence, which was the foundation of this research study. *Emotional intelligence* has been commonly referred to the social intelligence theory. Early scholars, Thorndike and Stein (1937), defined *social intelligence* as “the ability to understand and manage people” (p. 265). Others, such as Salovey and Mayer (1990), viewed emotional intelligence as an extension of social intelligence. Goleman (1995) noted social intelligence by distinguishing between the interpersonal and intrapersonal constructs.

A well-known definition of *emotional intelligence* is the ability to identify, understand, and evaluate one’s emotions, as well as the emotions of others (Zeidner, Roberts, & Matthews, 2002). Commonly used terms associated with the definition of *emotional intelligence* include *motivation, empathy, optimism, and social and emotional*

management (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Goleman, 1995; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Individuals who display competencies of emotional intelligence often contribute to a more efficient workplace (Zeidner et al., 2002).

Since the conception of emotional intelligence, researchers have made significant progress understanding it as well as further explaining the importance of it (Ashkanasey, 2002). Emotional intelligence is engaged when in the decision-making process (Webb, 2009). When employees begin to think about leaving their job, the process to effectively make a decision involves emotional intelligence factors; However, there is still controversy and uncertainty about the role and extent to which emotional intelligence has in the workplace, and further complicating the matter, researchers have yet to determine what may be the best measurement (Chermiss, 2000; Parker, 2012).

Early scholars such as Thorndike (1921), Weschler (1943), Guilford (1956), and Gardner (1983) disclosed the intellectual properties behind emotions known as social intelligence (as cited in Zeidner et al., 2002). These early pioneers were able to convey that traditional intelligence and social intelligence were important factors that determine behavior. After that, researchers had begun to support emotional proficiencies when trying to understand the effectiveness it has on employees (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weich, 1970).

In 1948, the Office of Strategic Services, an agency of the U.S. Federal Government, had established a process that assessed noncognitive and cognitive abilities (Chermiss, 2000). Subsequently, the *Assessment Center* was developed to evaluate social and intellectual qualities (Byham, 1970). This was first used by AT&T in 1956 (Byham, 1970). However, it was not until the early 1980s when Gardner (1983) established the

Theory of Multiple Intelligence related to interpersonal and intrapersonal concepts that emotional intelligence took hold.

In the early 1990s, standard intelligence tests were no longer considered a sufficiently determining factor in assessing employee success. During this period, the use of intelligent quotient and emotional intelligence tests had begun to develop in the workplace (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Parker, 2012; Zeidner et al., 2002). Research by Salovey and Mayer (1990) and Goleman (1995) have developed the concept of emotional intelligence, advancing it with a more thorough understanding.

Essentially, there are two paradigms of emotional intelligence. One view of emotional intelligence is the ability paradigm that conceptualizes emotional intelligence as a pure form of mental ability (Krishnaveni & Deepa, 2011; Stys & Brown, 2004). In contrast, the mixed models of emotional intelligence capture various elements of the ability models, and also personality constructs (Stys & Brown, 2004). For all models of emotional intelligence, there are clear connections between each of them (Webb, 2004). Each of the models imply that, levels of emotional intelligence can vary across individuals, emotional intelligence skills can be developed over a period, and emotional intelligence can act as a guide for regulating emotions (Goleman, 1995; Krishnaveni & Deepa, 2011; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). According to Goleman (2000), there is no definitive period to improve emotional intelligence abilities and competencies; some people will decide to improve their emotional intelligence skills, and some people will not. Nevertheless, emotional intelligence skills can be learned.

For purposes of this literature review, I focused on two prominent models which included Salovey and Mayer's model and Goleman's model of emotional intelligence, to

facilitate a more thorough understanding of each of them. Also examined included the relationship and differences between the two models. Presenting facts about each model helped convey why the Salovey and Mayer model of emotional intelligence was chosen for this research study.

The Ability Model

The concept behind the ability model of emotional intelligence is the abilities directly related to that of emotions. Four components are associated with the ability models and are considered to be a part of everyday functioning (Webb, 2004). According to the ability model, people who have increased abilities of emotional intelligence will experience greater functioning (Webb, 2004). The four categories associated with the ability models are (a) the capability of perceiving emotions of one's self and others, (b) facilitation of emotion, (c) emotional understanding, and (d) emotional management (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000). According to Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, and Sitarenious (2001), each of the four subcategories of the ability model may be referred to as a four-branch hierarchy. The bottom branch of the ability model is the perception of emotions. The ability to process emotions is necessary to moving to each of the remaining three branches. If the ability to process emotion is lacking, then the ability to manage the emotion would also be poor (Mayer et al., 2001). According to Mayer et al. (1999), three criteria must be met for emotional intelligence to be considered a validated type of intelligence. Intelligence involves the capacities of abstract reasoning. Abstract reasoning takes place when information is received and then processed (Sternberg, 1997). The first factor to be considered is the intelligence must be reflective of cognitive performance and not personality factors (Mayer et al., 2000). The second

criterion of the ability model is there should be some correlation with already established intelligences but can also be distinguished from them (Mayer et al., 2000; Webb, 2004). The last of the three criteria was referred to as the developmental criterion. The developmental criterion implies that any form of intelligence should increase with experience which was explored by age groups (Mayer et al., 2001). The ability model of emotional intelligence has evolved and focuses on the capacity to process emotional information and use it to navigate social situations, including the workplace (Salovey & Mayer, 2004).

The Mixed-Model.

Goleman (1995) was the other pioneer of emotional intelligence proposing a mixed model of emotional intelligence. According to Goleman's model, individuals who possess skills of emotional intelligence can self-motivate, regulate mood, empathize, and express empathy (Goleman, 1995). The five major competencies of Goleman's emotional intelligence theory are self-awareness of emotions, self-control, personal motivation, awareness of others' emotions, and relationship management (Gardenswartz, Cherbosque, & Rowe, 2010; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2004). According to researchers, Goleman's theory has included all of the essential elements pertaining to emotional intelligence (Northouse, 2015). After Goleman's original theory of emotional intelligence, he further proposed the theory of performance.

Theory of Performance

The theory of performance was intended to predict employee success and individual outcomes within the workplace (Fernández-Berrocal, 2006; Goleman, 1995). The performance theory consists of 20 competencies which are grouped into one of four

sections, self-awareness, social awareness, self-management, and relationship management. Competencies are learned in phases which pave the way for additional skills to be developed (Fernández-Berrocal & Fernández-Berrocal, 2006; Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000; Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002).

The first set of competencies of the performance theory consists of skills associated with self-awareness. According to Goleman, self-awareness skills can be described as the ability to be cognizant of one's emotions, accurate self-assessments of those emotions, and the self-confidence to firmly understand them. To a large extent, employees who have the competence to manage one's emotions can direct their thinking related to the emotions, which enables the emotion to be expressed in an appropriate manner (Lopes et al., 2006). If the self-awareness competencies have not been developed, erroneous decisions can be made (Goleman, 2000).

After self-awareness are the competencies related to social awareness? Social awareness skills are valuable when employees are able to apply them in the workplace. The proficiency of self-awareness, when implemented in the workplace, is illustrated by employees increased understanding of the organization reinforced by a genuine concern for others and service oriented work. Employees who possess the ability to read and understand other people are better able to relate to their coworkers (Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2006).

Following the competencies of self-awareness are those about self-management. Self-management skills are demonstrated by the ability to have self-control, is trustworthy, is conscious of surroundings, can easily adapt, goal orientated to attain achievement, and can take the initiative when necessary. Individuals who display higher

interpersonal skills related to self-management can keep emotions under control and often can prevent making impulsive decisions (Goleman, 2000; Hess & Bacigalup, 2011).

The final group of competencies related to the emotional intelligence performance theory is the ability to connect with others, known as relationship management. Skills associated with relationship management are comprised of the capacity to build bonds, inspire as well as influence others, and help others (Boyatzis et al., 2000). According to Goleman (2000), people who have the competencies that are associated with the performance theory are considered to be the most positive and productive employees in the workplace. Some research suggests, employees who display these abilities can be identified; however, one of the struggles leaders face is the ability to recognize and assess emotional intelligence skills (Ashkanasy, Ashton-James, & Jordan, 2003; Zeidner et al., 2002).

The application of emotional intelligence and its role in the workplace has been evaluated to a great extent in the past 15 years. Singh (2010) declared that emotional intelligence acts as a supportive function to managers and employees to properly manage emotions. Like cognitive intelligence, the value of emotional intelligence and the link to individual success in the workplace has been found to be remarkably important. Although research has concluded that cognitive and emotional functioning are significantly important to achieving success, an important advantage of emotional intelligence is it allows people to understand and effectively manage their emotions. Thus, the ability to manage emotions intelligently through the competencies associated with emotional intelligence has been shown to play a significant role in workplace success (Mayer et al., 2004).

Workplace success has been examined on a number of factors such as the ability to manage conflict and stress, cultivate workplace relationships, connect with and interact well with others, job performance, and job satisfaction (Lopes et al., 2006). Employees' who successfully manage stress are considered to be more skillful at evaluating, adapting, and directing their emotions, which are consistently associated with higher emotional intelligence (Trivellas, Gerogiannis, & Svarna, 2013). A study conducted with employees of a health insurance company and results of peer/supervisor ratings concluded that scores higher in emotional intelligence were related to stress tolerance and social functioning than those with lower emotional intelligence (Lopes et al., 2006). Further, research by Jordan and Troth (2011) reported that emotional intelligence positively predicted overall performance, and also improved relationships in the workplace. Jordan and Troth's (2011) longitudinal study included 579 employees in a pathology company using a self-report measure. The study focused on leaders and employee's emotional intelligence, and the impact of quality relationship to turnover intention and job satisfaction. The results show that emotional intelligence was significantly and positively correlated with job satisfaction and higher quality relationships, and negatively correlated with turnover intention (Jordan & Troth, 2011).

Turnover and the Theory of Planned Behavior

Turnover can be detrimental to an organization. Theorists have recognized employees who are thinking of quitting, go through a decision making process (Herrback, Mignimac, & Gatignon, 2004; Steers & Mowday, 1981). Some people make sudden decisions, while others go through more of a sequential process when contemplating a departure from a job (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). An employee's decision to leave can stem

from various reasons such as having an alternative and viable job offer, definite and deliberate plans to depart well in advance, and the impulse of leaving with little to no planning (Maertz & Campion, 2004). Therefore, for purposes of this study, theory related to employee turnover intention was also explored.

The theory of planned behavior was derived from the theory of reasoned action where a fundamental element is an intention of carrying out a particular behavior (Ajzen, 1991). The theory of planned behavior was designed to forecast and explain behavior such as turnover intention within a particular environment (Ajzen, 1991; Maertz & Campion, 2004). According to this theory, intentions are presumed to demonstrate one's commitment to carrying out a plan (Ajzen, 1991). The stronger the drive to carry out an intention, the more likely it is to occur. However, the theory of planned behavior is not solely dependent upon the motivation of intention. This theory also incorporates the ability to move forward with the intended plan such as opportunity, money, and ability (Ajzen, 1991).

In addition to intention and ability, the theory of planned behavior differs from the original theory of reasoned action encompassing the view of perceived behavior control. This concept suggests that the actual plan cannot be attained if one does not have the confidence to produce the intended result (Ajzen, 1991). A more positive attitude and the greater the intention to act upon the behavior is indicative of an individual performing it (Lin et al., 2011). Collectively, belief, attitude, behavioral intention, and ability facilitate the intended outcome. good

The theory of planned behavior has been examined within several contexts including the workplace setting and is one of the most widely applied theories that

accounts for individual behavior (Lin et al., 2011). According to research, the theory of planned behavior is considered a direct precursor of the intentions and actual performance (Armitage & Connor, 2001). Therefore, for this research, the theory of planned behavior would be appropriate to apply.

Organizational Sector Differences

Nonprofits and for-profit organizations do have some differences (Amundson, Borgen, Jordan, & Erlebach, 2004; Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010). One common difference between the two sectors is the interest in generating income, and how it is distributed (Oster, 1998). One difference between nonprofit and for profit businesses is the profit margin. For profit businesses primary focus is their bottom line often to satisfy investors; However, nonprofit organizations emphasize a community shareholder concept with proceeds generated going back out for services (Oster, 1998).

Other differences between nonprofits and for profits are the mission. Nonprofits tend to be more mission driven, exhibiting higher intrinsic motivators; namely emphasizing what is better for the common good of the people served (Hamann & Foster, 2014). Employees who are considered intrinsically motivated tend to perform their job for fundamental reasons rather than external stimulants such as additional pay (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In contrast, profit organizations tend to have extrinsic motivators such as reward based upon performance (Chen, Ren, & Knoke, 2014; Kalleberg, Marsden, Reynolds, & Knoke, 2006). Research has suggested nonprofits provide more substantial fringe benefits and care more about their employees, than that of profit organizations (Ben-Ner, Ren, & Paulson, 2011). The idea of higher fringe benefit packages has been considered to be a contributing factor to why people may choose to work for a nonprofit

(Ben-Ner et al., 2011). Exploring further, two commonly used variables closely associated with nonprofit research is mission focus and organizational commitment to turnover. A fair amount of literature pertaining to organizational mission suggest employees of nonprofit organizations may be more mission focused; however, this concept remains ambiguous and also has been related to other issues of concern (Tippet & Kluvers, 2009). According to research, employees working in the nonprofit business may face higher workloads, increased job demands, higher stress levels, as well as higher burnout rates than employees of the profit sector (Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008; Hamann & Foster, 2014). The concept of mission was explored further down in this chapter.

The economic challenges have forced organizations to reevaluate and critically examine day-to-day operations to ensure their effectiveness (Datta, Guthrie, Basuil, & Pandey, 2010). Identifying ways to keep up with robust and innovative approaches to retain employees are essential (Crawford et al., 2010). Reducing employees' intent to leave can be a significant step in the right direction (Crawford et al., 2010).

Turnover

Employee turnover has been a fundamental issue within nonprofit organizations. Although there are variations across subsectors of nonprofits, according to the Council on Foundations (as cited in the National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2014), on average they experience an annual turnover rate of 24%. Nonprofits have continued to lose staff consistently and often employees have left to work for another nonprofit (Peters, Fernandopulle, Masaoka, Chan, & Wolfred, 2002). This is concerning because of the destructive effects' turnover can have, namely on nonprofits because of the time and

money it takes to replace employees (Heavey, Holwerda, & Hausknecht, 2013; Yin-Fah, Foon, Chee-Leong, & Osman, 2010).

Excessive employee turnover is a substantial problem organizations have to deal with (Rigas, 2009). Annually, the cost of turnover across the United States is projected to be \$5 trillion (Frank, Finnegan, & Taylor, 2004). In 2013, the turnover rate in nonprofit organizations was an estimated at 2.3 million people who quit their job (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013; “Nonprofit Employment Trends Survey,” 2013). Consequentially, the negative impact employee turnover imposes on organizations can be unfavorable (Campion, 1991; Sturman, Trevor, Boudreau, & Gerhart, 2003).

Identifying the determinants of turnover has been a primary focus for researchers (Allen et al., 2010; Firth, Mellor, Moore, & Loquet, 2004; Griffeth et al., 2000; Herrbach et al., 2004; Long & Thean, 2011; Mignimic, Horn, Walker, Prussia, & Griffeth, 1992; Steel & Ovalle, 1984). Some of the reasons why turnover occurs are based on internal and external factors. Internal and external reasons why employees leave include a sudden life event requires the change (Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011; Lee & Mitchell, 1994), job dissatisfaction (Campion, 1991; Gardner, Stransbury, & Hart, 2010; Limpanitgul, Boonchoo, & Photiyarach, 2014), trust and communication difficulties (Kim & Lee, 2009; Lovett & Otero, 2012), commitment issues to the organization, or other forms of unmet needs (Limpanitgul et al., 2011). Determinants primarily associated with why employees leave are the result of job satisfaction and employee job commitment (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hancock, Allen, Boscoe, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2011; Holtom et al., 2008). Other major findings related to turnover have pointed towards, lack of support and ineffective leadership skills (Cline, Reilly, & Moore, 2004).

Allen et al. (2010) explained there are two types associated with turnover; involuntary and voluntary. Involuntary turnover is when the organization starts the process of leaving and is often associated with an economic lay-off or performance dismissal (Allen et al., 2010; Morrell, Loan-Clarke, & Wilkinson, 2001). In contrast, voluntary turnover begins with the employee (Allen et al., 2010). Voluntary turnover can be the result of employer and employee conflict, job dissatisfaction, or for personal reasons such as staying home with a child. Voluntary turnover can adversely affect organizational effectiveness because of the loss of highly functioning employees (Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004). Further, losing valuable employees can impact the remaining employee's morale and then production (Allen et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2004). Typically, leaders are primarily concerned with voluntary employee turnover because they are considered to be the highly productive ones, or better known as key employees (Allen et al., 2010; Oluwafemi, 2013).

Turnover can be either functional or dysfunctional (Allen et al., 2010; Dalton, Toder, & Krackhardt, 1982). Functional turnover is when a poorly performing employee leaves and the organization views this as more beneficial than harmful. On the other hand, dysfunctional turnover is when an organization loses an employee viewed as vital to the work environment, and the organization continues to have a positive assessment of that person (Oluwafemi, 2013). According to research, generally, both dysfunctional and functional turnover can negatively impact organizational operations (Allen et al., 2010; Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011; Jha, 2014). Ways to minimizing voluntary, dysfunctional turnover may help with the retention of high performing employees (Chiboiwa, Samuel, & Chipunza, 2010).

In many cases, research suggests turnover can be difficult to capture and measure based solely upon employee records (Campion, 1991). A common form of determining turnover is the crude measurement, which considers the number of employees who leave, times 100, and divided by the number of employees within the same period calculated (Morrell et al., 2001). This measurement is not specific, but rather an estimate in determining the overall number of employees leaving. Further, the crude measurement does not encompass exact reasons for leaving.

Employee records with documented turnover are often ambiguous, making it difficult for researchers to obtain accurate information (Campion, 1991; Mitchell, Mackenzie, Styve, & Gover, 2000). In addition, locating employees who quit an organization to obtain a reason why they left can be a significant challenge (Firth et al., 2004). Therefore, examining an antecedent of turnover known as turnover intention is not only more efficient, but more accurate because it captures employee perceptions prior to quitting (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003; Hall, 2005; Lambert & Hogan, 2009).

Determining what initiates or stimulates an employee's decision to leave is important (Bernthal & Willins, 2000; Chiboiwa, Samuel, & Chimpunza, 2010; Lambert & Hogan, 2009; Morrell et al., 2001). In the past, the expectation was employees would remain at their job with the understanding that pay would be the determining factor of organizational commitment. While competitive offers continue to impact turnover, employees are focused on other variables that impact their decision to pursue alternative job offers such as, career development, growth opportunity, and unmet needs (Gardner et al., 2010; Allen et al., 2009).

Research has indicated there are many variables that impact an employee's reason for leaving; however, often times the turnover can be mitigated. Employees who have separated from their place of employment, likely considered leaving prior to the actual departure (Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Herrback et al., 2004). High turnover can cause extensive damage within organizations (Long et al., 2012). To this end, exploring what facilitates turnover is important (Firth et al., 2004).

Turnover Intention

Turnover intention is one of the strongest predictors of turnover (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000; Long & Thean, 2011). Turnover intention is the intended and cognitive thought process of whether to stay or leave a place of employment (Long & Thean, 2011; Wells & Welty Peachey, 2011). According to prior research, thoughts about leaving are often an indicator of employee dissatisfaction (Long et al., 2012). Dissatisfied employees can result in a wide range of issues within the organization, impacting the overall performance within the workplace (Long et al., 2012; Mobley, 1977).

Determinants of turnover intention

Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action has explained turnover intent there is a relationship between intentions and attitudes, followed by behavior. Subsequently, there are several factors that may be the reason for thinking about leaving. For example, attitude about the position and organization, co-workers, availability of other jobs, and leadership may be part of the reason to stay or go (Felps et al., 2009). A meta-analysis by Griffeth et al. (2000) was one of the most extensive research studies performed to better understand antecedents to turnover to include turnover intent. The

study revealed that although job satisfaction was a high determinant of turnover, but turnover intention was still the strongest predictor of turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000).

Other reasons that influence employees of nonprofits to stay may be the mission of the organization (Herman et al., 2011). Mission is defined as a shared goal to eliminate barriers to carrying out the mission (Wright, 2007). A higher degree of commitment to the mission tends to facilitate employee collaboration, experience higher levels of job satisfaction, and display considerable motivation (Wright, 2007). A study was conducted with 1,133 employees where employees were assessed using a number of questions relevant to mission focused or career focused. The survey results had shown 52% indicated mission was the reason for their motivation to stay, 27% were motivated by career opportunities, and 21% stayed because there were no other viable options (Herman et al., 2011). Additional research conducted by Berry (2010) further implied that mission does matter and can make a difference. Results of the study revealed a weak, however, positive correlation between mission-focused employees and turnover intention (Berry, 2010). Similarly, other studies have concluded that mission to the organization is a valuable factor for obtaining and retaining employees (Salamon, 2002). On the contrary, two additional studies have considered mission attachment of nonprofit employees was not significantly associated with turnover. Although employees had a positive attitude toward the organizations mission, other variables such as pay, and career advancement were highly correlated with turnover (Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Kim & Lee, 2009). The lack of attention of nonprofits mission to explain turnover remains fairly ambiguous (Kim & Lee, 2009).

According to the original concept regarding for profits and nonprofits, very few differences were acknowledged between the two sectors with concern to organizational values; however, research that has been done, differences appear to be within the core framework of the organization (Goulet & Frank, 2002). Similarly, to previous findings, the majority of research pertaining to core framework differences has been with managerial staff (Goulet & Frank, 2002).

According to Strohm, Seltzer, Cochran, and Mays (2009), higher levels of commitment of nonprofit employees may form a sense of community and togetherness. Individuals who tend to be organizationally committed, display organization-serving like behaviors (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). According to Mowday et al. (1979), organizational commitment is comprised of patterns of behavior, intentions of behavior, and employee attitude toward the workplace. The majority of research which considers organizational commitment as a significant predictor of turnover has been primarily with for profits (Mowday et al., 1979; Young, Worchel, & Woehr, 1998).

Behaviors commonly associated with organizational commitment are typically demonstrated by the employee's motivation to go above and beyond the call of duty. Behaviors such as working additional hours than organization would officially require, or to complete work that may not be associated with his/her usual job (Goulet & Frank, 2002; Mowday et al., 1979). Goulet and Frank (2002) explained this type of displayed commitment as if there is a job to be done, the worker would stay to finish it. According to Mowday et al. (1979), when identifying the behaviors that are generally associated with organizational commitment, perhaps the most crucial one is the employee's willingness to put forth substantial effort for the organization. One more current study by

Goulet and Frank (2002), completed a cross sectional survey administering it to 375 full time employees, with responses from 228. There were 51% of responses from employees of a for profit business, 29% from nonprofit employees, and 20% from the public sector. Forty percent of employees held a supervisory role within the company. Organizational commitment was measured by a commonly used measure by Mowday et al. (1997), which examines number of hours worked each week and organizational expectations. Findings of this study do support the concept that nonprofit organizations are distinctive from the for profit sector, given the differences of organizational commitment between the nonprofit and public sector (Goulet & Frank, 2002). Results of the study suggest that organizational commitment was higher with for profit employees rather than what was predicted to significant with nonprofit and public sector employees. The researchers of the study indicated the results may be attributed the frequent lay-offs and high unemployment rates over the past decade where workers perceived this as job insecurity (Goulet & Frank, 2002).

Another model of organizational commitment was established by Meyer and Allen (1991). According to Meyer and Allen's (1991) Three Component Model (TCM), affective, normative, and continuance commitment are used to for a commitment profile (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The first component is Affective Commitment which considers the emotional attachment to the organization. Normative Commitment is the sense of obligation to the organization, and continuance commitment is the awareness of cost associated with leaving (Meyer & Allen, 1991). According to Meyer and Allen, employees can experience all three forms to some extent. Among some of the most commonly identified profiles that are consistent with high levels of satisfaction and are

among those fully committed include AC-dominant and AC/NC- dominant (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). For purposes of this research, this study employed the TCM model because of the valuable role it plays with commitment.

Lastly, in addition to commitment, the variable of emotional intelligence was explored as an attributing factor relevant to employee turnover intention. According to research, when an employee has engaged in the thought process of whether to leave or stay, emotional intelligence skills can be directly related to the outcome of that decision (Deutschendorf, 2009).

Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace

The study of emotional intelligence has progressed over the course of time. For example, there was considerable debate whether emotional intelligence was a separate intelligence, or whether it was a subcategory of another model of intelligence (Pegram, 2015). While there continues to be some debate about emotional intelligence as an entirely separate form of intelligence, a considerable amount of studies has demonstrated that emotional intelligence is separate from other intelligence models and is an important concept to the workplace (MacCann, 2010; Pegram, 2015).

Intelligence quotient was once considered the most important factor to determine workplace success; however, various studies suggest intelligence quotient (IQ) is not the only contributor to workplace success. In fact, IQ alone is not a good predictor of workplace success (Myers & Tucker, 2004; Goleman, 2000). Success in the workplace is described as the ability to work together with colleagues, use strategies to be able to manage conflict and stress, and perform at a high level (Bracket, Rivers, & Salovey,

2011). Studies emphasize emotional intelligence accounts for an equal share of workplace success, and in some cases, it may account for more than IQ (Goleman, 2000).

Salovey and Mayer's (1990) previous work has built upon the idea that non-cognitive abilities are important. Once referred to as social intelligence, Salovey and Mayer (1990) described emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive, understand, utilize, and manage one's own feelings, as well as others, to understand them, and to use them as a pilot to think and action. Research continues to accumulate providing evidence that skills associated with emotional intelligence are related to workplace outcomes (Law, Wong, & Song, 2004). In spite of this, empirical research is lacking regarding the extent to which emotional intelligence is related workplace outcomes (Matthews et al., 2002). The controversy of emotional intelligence factors and the role they play in the workplace has generated interest of researchers and today's workplace (Greenidge, Devonish, & Alleyne, 2014). Since, a variety of studies have attempted to show the usefulness of emotional intelligence in the workplace. A study by Sy, Tram, and O'Hara (2006) consisted of 187 workers, researching employee emotional intelligence. This study suggested that emotionally intelligent employees were more apt to regulate emotions, predict behavior, which influenced work outcomes. In addition, employees were considered more proactive (Sy et al., 2006).

A study by Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, and Palfai (1995) found that people who saw a disturbing movie and scored higher on the ability to identify with their emotions, were able to bounce back much quickly than those who scored lower. The ability to recognize and accurately express emotions are components that help facilitate quality decision making (Chopra & Kanji, 2010; Hess & Bacigalupo, 2011; Webb, 2004).

Employees with higher levels of emotional intelligence have the ability to adjust one's own emotional response, the mood of a group, and effectively manage stressful situations (Armstrong, Galligan, & Critchley, 2011; Schutte et al., 1998). Conditions such as job stress can have a negative impact the workplace, especially employees of nonprofits because of the high turnover (Crawford et al., 2010; Speckbacher, 2003). Job stress can contribute to mental and physical health issues (Martins, Ramalho, & Morin, 2010). As a result of high demands, employees are at risk of burnout which can impact stress levels (Grandey, 2003). According to Hosseinian, Yazdi, Zahraie, and Ashtiani (2008) self-knowledge about ones' own emotions can help employees manage knee-jerk reactions. The emotional response of employees related to job stress can change depending on emotional intelligence level (Gill et al., 2006). Emotional intelligence can be a contributing factor in reducing job stress and coping in the workplace by being aware of one's feelings (Mousavi et al., 2012; Samanvitha & Jawahar, 2012). An employee who has higher emotional intelligence is more optimistic, happy, is able to manage, change, adapt, and problem solve during stressful times without breaking down or making irrational decisions (Carmeli, 2003).

On the contract, while many studies have ascertained that emotional intelligence is positive, some research suggests emotional intelligence can be negative (Moeller & Kwantes, 2015). Goleman (2000) has suggested there may be a dark side of emotional intelligence. The dark side of emotional intelligence is the association between people with higher emotional intelligence and taking advantage of others (Konrath, Corneille, Bushman, & Luminet, 2014). For example, in some cases, the ability to read others' people's emotions, a competency of emotional intelligence, in some cases has been

linked to the narcissistic personality trait (Konrath et al., 2014). According to research, there has not been a significant amount of studies related to the theory of the dark side of emotional intelligence (Konrath et al., 2014).

Emotional intelligence and turnover intention.

Some studies have provided support that emotional intelligence is an important precursor to employee's intent to quit (Anand & UdayaSuriyan, 2010; Carmeli, 2003; Chermis, 2000; Kooker, Schoultz, & Codier, 2007). Several researchers have focused on determinants of turnover intention within various sectors of the workforce and have concluded there may be a relationship between emotional intelligence and withdrawal intentions (Carmeli, 2003; Firth et al., 2004; Trivellas et al., 2011). Skills associated with emotional intelligence may in fact act as a regulator thereby significantly impacting an employee's intent to leave (Carmeli, 2003). Essentially, employees with higher levels of emotional intelligence may be best able to adapt and then handle difficult situations by effectively managing both positive and negative emotions (Trivellas et al., 2013).

Moreover, employees who have higher levels of emotional intelligence are likely to overcome obstacles in their workplace, control stress from high impact work environments, and avert negative emotions (Trivellas et al., 2013). According to Jeswani and Dave (2012), in most situations' employees respond to stressful workplace situations abruptly, whereby emotions have dominated decisions. A survey study of 193 police officers that revealed emotional intelligence skills had a direct impact on employee job satisfaction, engagement, and level of commitment (Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock, & Farr-Wharton, 2012). As the research study predicted, emotions were a big part of employees' intent to leave (Brunetto et al., 2012).

Further research framed emotional intelligence as a competency that can impact work attitudes, behaviors, and turnover intention (Carmeli, 2003). Specifically, the study was conducted with senior managers, however, implied that emotionally intelligent people are more likely to categorize themselves as part of the solution when faced with difficult situations and decision-making (Carmeli, 2003). Results of the study indicated a strong and negative relationship between emotional intelligence and withdrawal intentions of senior managers, further establishing the importance of retaining emotionally intelligent employees (Carmeli, 2003).

Withdrawal is a process which forms ideas thoughts known as withdrawal intentions (Carmeli, 2003; Mobley et al., 1978). The withdrawal intentions are defined as thinking of quitting, intention to explore alternative options, and intention to quit (Griffeth et al., 2000). For purposes of this research study, the processes of withdrawal intentions with employees of nonprofits was assessed.

Despite the many research findings that contribute to the potential link between emotional intelligence and turnover, they are limited to specific populations (Bartock, 2013; Carmeli, 2003; Deutschendorf, 2009; Jang & George, 2012). Namely, research has focused primarily on leader's emotional intelligence and turnover intention (Bartock, 2013). Therefore, this research attempted to focus on non-managing employees to help contribute to the body of literature specifically with nonprofit employees. As an extension of the current literature, this study also considered the concept of commitment to the organizations mission as an immediate association of nonprofit employees.

Measures

There are several well-known and validated scales that have been used to measure emotional intelligence, turnover intention, and commitment. After an extensive review of the most widely used scales, the best choice of instruments to use for this study include the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SSRI), the Mobley et al.'s (1979) turnover intention scale, and the Organizational Commitment scale originally constructed by Allen and Meyer (1990).

The Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test has been a commonly used tool to measure employee emotional intelligence (Ravichandran, Arasu, & Kumar, 2011; Schutte et al., 1998; Schutte et al., 2007). This four factor scale includes 33 questions measuring an individual's perception of emotion, utilization of emotions, and how emotions are self-managed, as well as the management of other emotions. The turnover intention scale is a three item scale and has been considered to be reliable and valid, especially when targeting specific behavior intentions (Conklin & Desselle, 2007; Luu & Hattruo, 2010; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Mobley et al., 1979). Lastly, the commitment scale will be applied as a predictor of turnover (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Allen & Meyer, 1993). Each of the three scales were chosen for this study because they had been widely used throughout studies with acceptable validity and reliability. Chapter 3 provides a more extensive review of the instruments proposed for this research study.

Summary

Although a large volume of research has been examined and found relations among turnover and turnover intention across all sectors of employment, only a very small amount has been studied within the sector of nonprofits. Accurate reporting of why

employees leave can be difficult to track after the turnover has occurred. Therefore, turnover intention has been named as a predictor to turnover. The findings of turnover intention, taken together with those of emotional intelligence factors, and organizational commitment as associated with nonprofit employees, imply a gap in research. Given the recent focus on the roles of nonprofit organizations as a growing workplace, it seems necessary to examine the relation of turnover intention and factors of emotional intelligence, and organizational commitment as a concomitant predictor to turnover intention of nonprofit, non-managing employees. Therefore, this research could potentially provide leaders of nonprofit organizations with the further knowledge to address employee retention issues by exploring the stimuli of turnover intention.

Chapter 2 was to provide a background of the research literature of turnover, turnover intention, and the common variables that have been previously identified as potential determinants of turnover intention. Moreover, this chapter explored the growing sector of employment; nonprofit organizations. Therefore, the focus of Chapter 3 was to provide a detailed description of the research methodology to address the research questions.

Chapter 3: Research Method

In this chapter, I provide a concise roadmap of the study that I conducted. I have divided this methods chapter into four subsections. First, I describe the overall research design and rationale of this study. Second, I describe the population and sample. Third, I explain the psychometric properties of each of the instruments that I used. Last, I describe the procedures of this research with regard to how I collected the data, followed by a and then I summarize the primary ethical considerations and actions taken to protect each participant's rights.

Research Design

To fulfill my purpose in this study, I chose a quantitative survey design. A quantitative approach can best address the research question whether emotional intelligence and commitment contributes to the intent to leave a job. Quantitative research methods provide systematic and numerical data, whereas qualitative research is more subjective and primarily based on the researcher's observations. My goal in this study was not to draw conclusions based on observations, but rather quantifiably test the hypotheses to define a possible relationships between the two previously stated variables. Further, the majority of previous research on emotional intelligence and turnover were quantitative with the exploration of correlations (Bartock, 2013; Demir, 2011).

There are many types of overall designs to determine linkages. Researchers who use experimental and nonexperimental research designs use quantitative research techniques. Experimental research is a quantitative design that takes place in a controlled environment where differences between subjects or groups can be determined (Rudestam & Newton, 2007) and are typically employed to establish causation. Experimental

designs are the preferred method of quantitative research when assessing treatments, using control groups (Fitzgerald, Rumrill, & Schenker, 2004). For purposes of this study, my intent was to obtain results from a single group that had been underrepresented in the current literature with respect to the concept of emotional intelligence and turnover intention without the use of a control group.

One type of nonexperimental research is correlational. Correlational research is used to establish a possible relationship between variables and to measure the magnitude of the relationship (Lomax & Li, 2013). Correlational research is common when the data are obtained by way of surveys (Creswell, 2009). Prior research has established that methods of direct observation can be cause for concern because responses may be fictitious, depending on the type of question(s). Therefore, when direct observation of responses is not appropriate, using survey research can be advantageous. For purposes of this research, the survey method was most appropriate to obtain responses over intention to leave a current job.

This study did not make use of groups or controls and there was no intention to establish causation, thus employing nonexperimental research was the logical and appropriate option for this study.

Population and Sample

The targeted population for this study were employees who were 18 years and older, and who worked in any type of nonprofit organization in the United States. Employees, rather than executives or leaders, were my main focus in this study. The criterion that I selected for this study was because prior studies concentrated primarily on

leaders' emotional intelligence and the intent here was to examine turnover of non-executive employees.

The use of the Internet as a way to gain participants for research is becoming increasingly popular (Creswell, 2009). Internet-based platforms will allow for access to a much larger, and a more diverse, sample of participants (Heppner & Heppner, 2004). Data collected using the internet could be completed at any time of the day or night, making it convenient for individuals who were interested to participate. Data completed online can be coded and saved, reducing time spent by the researcher (Heppner & Heppner, 2004). Therefore, for purposes of this research, to recruit participants, one Internet-based survey. Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) is seen as a highly visible source to attract participants for research in a small time frame (Landers & Behrend, 2015). MTurk is a service offered by Amazon for members to purchase a targeted group of survey participants (Landers & Behrend, 2015), with settings for specific geographic locations (the United States selected in this case) and access to a large, diverse population of nearly 1 million individuals (those employed in nonprofits selected; Cunningham, Godinho, & Kushnir, 2017). An additional advantage to the use of MTurk included the capability of keeping responders anonymous.

The best approach to estimate the minimum number of a sample for the purposes of sufficient analytical power is to conduct a power analysis (Rudestam & Newton, 2007). An insufficient sample could lead to a Type 2 error (retaining the null hypothesis inappropriately as an effect could not be discerned). I performed a computerized a priori power analysis using a G*Power, version 3.1.9.2. Per Cohen (1988) and in the effort to detect at least a medium effect size, a medium effect size ($f^2 = .15$) parameter was used.

The alpha was set at .05, and the power at .95, with seven predictors. Using these parameters, a minimum sample size of 153 participants was required to conduct this study (Cohen, 1988; Soper, 2015). To achieve at least 153 fully completed surveys, oversampling occurred.

Instruments

The research measure consisted of one (combined) survey comprised of 58 questions using self-report instruments. The first two questions were screens for eligibility to proceed with the survey. The two questions included whether the participant was employed with a nonprofit organization, and the second question was to discern if the participant managed one or more employees. Following the participant eligibility questions, the survey included three additional self-report instruments to including the Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSRI), a Turnover Intention Scale (Mobley et al., 1978), and a scale of Organizational Commitment (Meyer et al., 1993). Each of the self-report instruments are further described below.

Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Scale

The Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Scale (SSRI) (1998) instrument was used to identify levels of emotional intelligence of each participant. The SSRI was developed based on the original model by Salovey and Mayer (1990), as well as their updated model (Salovey & Mayer, 1997). The SSRI has been used extensively throughout a number of studies and has been acknowledged as a brief way to measure trait emotional intelligence within a wide variety of settings (Bartock, 2013; Ciarrochi, Chan, & Bajgar, 2001; Dimitriadis, 2007; Grant & Cavanaugh, 2007; Schutte et al., 2002; Schutte et al., 2007).

The SSRI has been recommended for research purposes that involve goals related to potential career advances, as well as workplace flourishing, which is commonly associated with a more positive work environment, increased employee engagement, better work-related outcomes, and improved mental health (Schutte & Loi, 2014). Some theorists suggest that emotional intelligence may be a predictor of success that goes beyond common intellectual ability (Zeidner et al., 2002). According to Mayer et al. (2000), emotional intelligence is the ability to respond and adjust according to changes in a person's current environment. The SSRI is intended to determine how well people recognize, understand, regulate, and use their emotions (Schutte et al., 2007). Therefore, each of the described factors are closely associated with the concept and definition of emotional intelligence concepts and were able to capture the relevant information pertaining to emotional intelligence for this research. Lastly, the SSRI is unique in that it is a self-report measure available for public use for purposes of performing further research.

The SSRI consists of 33 items is a four factor model used to measure emotional intelligence. The four factors of the SSRI are perception of emotions in oneself and others, how one expresses emotion, the harnessing of emotions in oneself and others, and applying emotions to solve difficulties. This questionnaire is closely related to the dimensions of Digman's Big Five Personality (1990) which include openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism (Digman, 1990). Responses from each item are rated on a five-point Likert scale where "1" is mapped to strongly disagree and "5" is mapped to strongly agree. The total for all 33 items is calculated with scores ranging from 33 to 165. A higher score represents a higher

level of emotional intelligence (Schutte et al., 1998). The original authors (Schutte et al., 1998) of the SSRI suggested the sum of the total scale be used as a one factor model, while other research has found it to be a four factor scale (Ciarrochi et al., 2001; Palmer, 2003; Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Schutte et al., 1998; Schutte et al., 2007). Research suggests the SSRI should be further explored if used as a four-dimension scale versus a one factor model (Palmer, 2003; Schutte et al., 1998; Schutte et al., 2007). For purposes of this study, each participant was measured on all four constructs of the SSRI and their total score of emotional intelligence.

Reliability

An instrument that is used to determine possible relationships with variables must prove to be an accurate and consistent assessment of what it is intended to measure. The reliability of an instrument is determined by providing consistent and repeated results when administered (Creswell, 2009). One particular method of ascertaining the internal consistency of a survey instrument is by computing the Cronbach's alpha, a measure of scale reliability (Creswell, 2009; Johnson & Chistensen, 2008). Prior research has given evidence of strong internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha ranging from .86 to .94 in various studies (Bartock, 2013; Dimitriades, 2007; Grant & Cavanaugh, 2007; Schutte et al., 2002; Schutte et al., 2007).

SSRI subscales reliability in prior work has ranged from .83 to .84 for optimism, .81 to .84 for social skills, .76 to .78 for utilization, and .76 to .78 for appraisal (Palmer, 2003; Murphy, 2006). Both Murphy (2006) and Palmer's (2003) research indicated the SSRI to be a reliable scale, overall and with each subscale.

Validity

Where reliability establishes the consistency of a measure, validity is the degree to which the items in the measure reflect the variables associated with the theoretical framework it was based on (Owen, 1996). There are numerous methods researchers use to determine the validity of a measure. Creswell (2009) suggested there are three conventional methods used to establish the validity of an instrument to include content validity (the extent to which questions within an instrument measure a particular construct), criterion validity (the scores of an instrument are indicative of predicting future behavior or the degree of to which scores between two measurements correspond), and construct validity (the degree to which a test measures a particular skill, trait, or ability). Construct validity consists of two subtypes, convergent and discriminant. Convergent validity refers to the degree two measures of constructs, which are intended to be related, does exist. Whereas, discriminant validity is concerned with the degree to which two measures of a particular construct are not related, as theorized.

Lane (2009) used subject matter experts to establish the content validity of the SSRI. These experts evaluated each item of the scale to the extent they are related to emotional intelligence in terms of awareness, regulation, and the utilization of emotions (Lane et al., 2009) and if the scales contained sufficient observations to measure the constructs. Schutte (1998) established criterion validity by examining the SSRI scores against the prediction of higher year end academic achievement in first year college students. Results of the ability of emotional intelligence were found to be related to first year student's GPA, $r(63) = 0.32, p < 0.01$ (Schutte et al., 1998).

Evidence of convergent validity of the SSRI has been provided with significant correlations to theoretically similar concepts such as, attention to and clarity of feelings, improved mood repair, optimism, increased impulse control, lack of depressed affect, and less alexithymia (Schutte et al., 1998). Scores on the SSRI scale were related to eight of the nine measures associated with emotional intelligence (Schutte et al., 1998). In addition, other theoretically similar concepts such as empathy of other perspectives, self-monitoring in social environments, closeness and warmth pertaining to relationships, emotional well-being, higher self-esteem, and more positive mood conditions (Schutte et al., 2002; Schutte et al., 2007). Further, research has established convergent validity between the SSRI and another well-known instrument to assess emotional intelligence known as the Emotional Quotient Inventory Scale (EQ-I). Results indicated there was a substantial relationship between the SSRI and EQ-I where, $r = .43$ (Schutte et al., 2007). The scale was also compared to the Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004) Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) with results indicating there statistical significance, however, not strong at $r = 0.18$ (Schutte et al., 2007). At the same time, research has shown evidence supporting discriminant validity of the SSRI. Schutte et al. (1998) reported $r(41) = -0.06$ for the correlation between the SSRI and SAT scores $r(22) = -0.28$ to $.54$ pertaining to the NEO Personality Inventory subscale scores.

Overall the validity of the SSRI has been established as an acceptable tool to measure general emotional intelligence by means of each of the three conventional methods previously defined (Bhochhibhoya et al., 2014).

Turnover Intention Scale

The second instrument used in the survey was the Turnover Intention Scale originally developed by Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978; see Appendix C). Mobley et al. (1978) developed a three-item instrument to examine the turnover intent of employees. Responses to the three-item scale are reported using a 5-point Likert Scaling from 1= "Strongly disagree" to 5 = "Strongly agree." The minimum score is three, and the maximum score is 15. A higher score is indicative of higher intentions to quit.

Mobley's model of turnover intent is based upon a series of steps beginning with the evaluation of leaving a job followed by the emotional state of mind of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (thinking of quitting). Then, the evaluation of the job search and the cost associated with quitting are processed. The next step in the Mobley turnover decision model is the intent to find alternative jobs followed by the actual search process and then the evaluation of employment alternatives. Lastly, job comparison of the alternatives versus present job takes place preceded by intent to leave or stay, resulting in a final decision to quit or to stay (Mobley, 1977).

Reliability

The turnover intention scale has been measured for reliability using Cronbach's alpha, with a reported internal consistency of .90 (Yin Fah et al., 2010). Similarly, other research has reported high reliability of the turnover intention scale using Cronbach's alpha ranging from .82 to .86 (Bigliardi, Petroni, & Dormio, 2005; Joo & Park, 2010; Morrison, 2004; Yucel, 2012). Another study by Buttigieg and West (2013) examined 65,142 employees of leadership quality on job design, and social support using the turnover intention scale by Mobley et al. (1978). Findings for the study by Buttigieg and West (2013) reported Cronbach's alpha at .92, which is indicative of high reliability.

Validity

The Mobley et al. (1978) model of turnover intention was chosen for this study because it has been shown through numerous studies that the scale measures what it is intended to measure (Baker, 2013; Buttigeig & West, 2013; Chan, 2006; Morrison, 2004; Yin Fah, Foon, Leong, & Osman, 2010; Yucel, 2012). A study by Yin Fah et al. (2010) of 120 Malaysian employees examined the relationships among job satisfaction, job stress, organizational commitment, and turnover intention using the Mobley et al. (1978) turnover intention scale. At the significance level set at .05, statistical correlations existed between employee scores of turnover intention and organizational commitment, $r = -.367$, job stress, $r = .96$, and a negative relationship was found with job satisfaction $r = -.447$ at $p < .01$ (Yin Fah et al., 2010).

Another study conducted by Yucel (2012) evaluated the construct validity of the three item scale. A questionnaire was distributed to 188 Turkish employees. The confirmatory factor loadings of the turnover intention scale are intent to leave at .858, intent to look for alternative employment at .920, and often think about leaving at .846. There was a negative relationship between turnover intention and job satisfaction (-.364), Affective Commitment (-.077), and continuance commitment (-.063). The factor loads of the turnover intent scale are indicative of acceptable construct validity (Yucel, 2012).

Organizational Commitment Scale

The third instrument is called the TCM Employee Commitment Survey (Meyer et al., 1993). There are two versions of the TCM scale which includes the original and also a revised measure. Both versions of the commitment scale measure Affective Commitment (desire to stay), Continuous Commitment (cost related), and Normative

Commitment (obligation to stay). To measure each of these, there are three scales (referred to as components) in the TCM which include the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), Continuous Commitment Scale (CCS), and Normative Commitment Scale (NCS). Both versions of the scale include questions pertaining to the employees' opinion of their relationship to the organization, and motives for staying (Allen & Meyer, 2004).

The original scale has 24 items overall, which include eight questions on all three components, whereas the revised version of the scale has six questions for each component. According to Allen and Meyer (2004), the choice between the two scales may be dependent upon the basis of the desired length. For purposes of this study, in order to keep the survey shorter, the revised scale was employed. Responses to each of the 18-item scale were recorded on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree).

Reliability

According to Allen and Meyer (2004), there has been extensive research that supports the validity and reliability of the survey. The revised 18-item, Employee TCM scale has been measured for reliability using Cronbach's alpha, with a reported internal consistency of the overall scale to range from .81 to .89 (Yucel, 2012; Karim & Noor 2006). For the three component scales; ACS has ranged from .82 to .87, CCS from .71 to .74, and NCS from .83 to .89 (Abbas & Khanam, 2013; Cheng & Stockdale, 2003; McMahan, 2007; Powell & Meyer, 2004).

Validity

The validity of the TCM scale has been further explored through various processes. Organizational commitment has been an emerging concept central to the

concept of workplace attitudes and behaviors (Meyer & Allen, 1991). This is primarily because of the demonstrated relationship between turnover, turnover intention and organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996). The validity of the commitment scale has been reported as acceptable levels in terms of the predictive, discriminant, and convergent validity (Abston, 2015).

Concurrent validity of the TCM scale was established where scores between Mowday et al.'s (1979) well-known measure, Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and that of the TCM scale ($r=.34, p>.05$) indicating a moderate and significant relationship (Abston, 2015). Further, a confirmatory factor analysis was done to determine the discriminant and construct validity of the TCM scale with a sample of 239 professionals (Bagraim, 2003). The Varimax rotation method was applied because it was consistent with previous research, which explains the TCM scale three components and are separate constructs of one another (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Bagraim, 2003). The three commitment components accounted for 47.84% of the total variance which is reflected of a multidimensional construct and in this case factor 1 is continuance commitment, factor 2 is Affective Commitment, and factor 3 is Normative Commitment (Bagraim, 2003). The factor loadings for each of the commitment component ranged from .41 to .95, with a minimum of .30 deemed to be meaningful. The results of the exploratory analysis further provided evidence that the TCM scale is a worthwhile approach to determining commitment of professionals.

Procedure

The researcher obtained approval from the Walden Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct this study. After the required approval was received, the survey

software Survey Monkey was used to design, manage, and collect participant responses. Survey Monkey was chosen as a collector account for this study, primarily as it offers secure transmission (SSL encryption) of information. Also, Survey Monkey allows for anonymous surveys by disabling the IP address tracker, a condition of approval for the study. Once the survey was created in Survey Monkey, a collector account was established prior to posting the survey live. This account permitted the researcher to preview and test the survey to ensure it was working properly. At this stage the researcher disabled IP and email address tracking.

Once the survey functionality was validated using the software's test mode, a link to the survey link was posted to Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). MTurk is a crowdsourcing Internet marketplace (as described earlier) where workers complete a Human Intelligence Task (HITS). MTurk was a paid recruitment source for this study given that studies that have indicated MTurk to be a valid and fairly reliable source to obtain participants for research purposes (Berinsky, Huber, & Lenz, 2012; Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). HITS was configured using the worker requirements feature, set to workers in nonprofit organizations, and the location field set to the United States. Once the target requirements were set in MTurk, the survey was published in MTurk to recruit interested and eligible MTurk workers. The online questionnaire was marked as published and surveys were collected in Survey Monkey until the minimum number of eligible participants completed the entire survey was received.

The study was described as an investigation of nonprofit worker's thoughts about job turnover. Individuals who were interested and eligible (based on the selection criteria questions), were directed to a URL where their eligibility was discerned. Participants

were asked two eligibility questions: are you employed at least part time with a nonprofit organization, and not a managing employee? If the individual was not employed with a nonprofit, they received a response that specified the intentions of this study and were not eligible to participate. The participant was then exited from continuing with the survey. If the participant was eligible based on the criteria, employed with a nonprofit and does not manage any other persons within the organization, and interested in completing the survey, the survey would remain open for completion.

Participants were asked to agree to a consent form (see Appendix B). Participants who agreed to the informed consent (agreement was indicated by clicking on the test reading, “I have read this page, and I would like to take the survey”) were given the survey, which included three instruments, the turnover scale, the SSRI, and the organizational commitment scale. The consent form addressed voluntary participation and the confidentiality of individual answers when received by the researcher. Also, the consent form gave indication that no identifying information would be collected. Participants were informed of the survey completion length (approximately 10 to 15 minutes). Following the administration of the survey, participants were provided with a debriefing of the study. The entirety of the survey was conducted electronically with identifying information collected.

Participants were asked questions using the three measures described previously and all contained within one survey. The first section of the survey after the eligibility questions was the turnover intention scale. The second instrument of the survey was the SSRI scale. The title of the individual survey for the SSRI was renamed as Emotions, in an effort to minimize potential fabrication of answers and participant social desirability

bias (Schutte & Malouffe, 1999). The final instrument was the Three Component Commitment Scale (Meyer et al., 1993).

The order of the instruments was carefully considered when organizing the survey to minimize order effects and to keep the respondents motivated and engaged (Pew Research Center, 2016). The turnover intention scale was placed at the beginning as prior studies gave evidence that participants may be more inclined to engage in questions pertaining directly to turnover. Following the turnover intention scale, was the emotional intelligence measurement, and then the commitment scale. The order of the instruments followed the analytical plan of the study to investigate turnover as influenced by emotional intelligence and commitment.

Data Collection

Nonprofit workers in the United States were recruited and asked to answer 54 questions regarding their thoughts about their job. The survey was used to collect individual responses through Survey Monkey. The survey included three instruments, a turnover intention scale, a self-report emotional intelligence scale, and an organizational commitment scale. All three instruments are explained in detail above. Each instrument was included in one total survey. As participants complete the survey, individual results were collected in Survey Monkey. The researcher had the ability to view the status of the study and number of responses at any time. Once the required number of completed surveys were obtained, the recruitment process ended, and the survey link was disabled.

The data were accessed on the Survey Monkey site using a secure username and password which was established by the researcher. Data were password protected and not accessible to anyone other than the researcher. The data were downloaded from Survey

Monkey into a statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS), version 21.0. Exporting data from Survey Monkey into SPSS was performed using a secure online connection. Once the data were downloaded into SPSS, they were secured on the researchers' personal computer, available only by a password. No other parties had access to the data. Data were stored per Walden University guidelines. As such, the raw data is stored in the SPSS software, as well as a password, protected flash drive. Data will be kept for no less than five years after this dissertation was completed (Walden University Dissertation Guidebook). The password protected flash drive will remain in the researcher's care and destroyed after five years.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using SPSS Statistics Version 25. SPSS is comprehensive and robust software that is used to sort and analyze the results of responses obtained.. This study included a number of quantitative analyses to answer the following research questions:

Research Question 1

R₁: Is there a relationship between turnover intention and emotional intelligence level of employees in nonprofits?

Hypothesis 1

*H*₁₀: A positive relationship, or no relationship, exists between employee turnover intention and emotional intelligence.

*H*_{1a}: A negative relationship between employee turnover intention and emotional intelligence.

Research Question 2

R₂: Does one or more of the emotional intelligence components: optimism, social skill level, emotional regulation ability, and utilization of emotion ability, predict employee turnover intention?

Hypothesis 2A

H2₀: There is a positive relationship, or no relationship, between employee's emotional intelligence sub score of optimism and intent to leave.

H2_a: There is a negative relationship between high optimism of the employee's emotional intelligence sub score and intent to leave.

Hypothesis 2B

H2B₀: There is a positive, or no relationship, between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of social skill level and intent to leave.

H2B_a: There is a negative relationship between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of social skill level and intent to leave.

Hypothesis 2C

H2C₀: There is a positive, or no relationship between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of emotional regulation level and intent to leave.

H2C_a: There is a negative relationship between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of emotional regulation level and intent to leave.

Hypothesis 2D

H2D₀: There is a positive, or no relationship between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of utilization of emotion level and intent to leave.

H2D_a: There is a negative relationship between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of utilization of emotion level and intent to leave.

Research Question 3

The relationship between turnover intention and commitment has been an important construct in attempting to understand (Yucel, 2012). Meyer and Allen's (1997) three-component commitment model proposes that employee commitment is tied to emotions and is demonstrated by different mindsets; desire, obligation, and cost. Affective Commitment and Normative Commitment are often displayed in cultures where there is lower conformity, more individualistic, obligation to the organization, and emotional attachment. Conversely, continuance commitment is associated with the cost associated with leaving (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). It is theorized that employees of nonprofits tend to stay because they may feel a sense of obligation to the organization, and sense of commitment. Therefore, based on previous literature pertaining to nonprofit employees, and reasons why they may stay with an organization, the following research question was developed to address this:

There will be a stronger relationship between Affective and Normative Commitment on turnover intention than with continuance commitment on turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

Hypothesis 3

H3₀: There is a no relationship between Affective Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

H3_a: There is a relationship between Affective Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

Hypothesis 4

H4₀: There is no relationship between Normative Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

H4_a: There is a relationship between Normative Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

Hypothesis 5

H5₀: There is no relationship between Continuous Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

H5_a: There is a relationship between Continuous Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

Hypothesis 6

H6₀: The relationship between Affective Commitment and turnover intention is not stronger than the Continuous Commitment and turnover intention relationship of nonprofit employees.

H6_a: The relationship between Affective Commitment and turnover intention is stronger than the Continuous Commitment and turnover intention relationship of nonprofit employees.

Hypothesis 7

H7₀: The relationship between Normative Commitment and turnover intention is not stronger than the Continuous Commitment and turnover intention relationship of nonprofit employees.

H7_a: The relationship between Normative Commitment and turnover intention is stronger than the Continuous Commitment and turnover intention relationship of nonprofit employees.

Ethical Considerations

There were three concerns primarily considered: confidentiality, willingness to participate, and obtaining proper authorization to continue with the survey. To gain responses electronically, an agreement was provided before the survey was accessible. The agreement set forth was to inform participants of the amount of time it would take to complete the survey, the potential impact responses can generate, and the intention of the research.

According to the APA (2010) guidelines for ethical considerations, there are four primary concerns with online surveys, the survey should not be stressful, and the questions asked should not be offensive, respondents must be willing and not coerced, participants cannot be harassed to take the survey, and protect participant's rights by upholding the confidentiality of their individual answers. This research study anticipated no or minimal risks. Participants were working adults, ages 18 or older. Ethical treatment of participants was ensured abiding by the provisions associated with social research. Participants were provided with an overview of the study, and a signed informed consent was required to participate. Participants' responses were not publicly available, and identity was protected.

The data collected remained confidential. For this study, the confidentiality was particularly important as the data collected may indicate an employee's intention to leave without their employer's knowledge. Identifying information, to include IP address, was

not transmitted with the survey results. Further, confidentiality was important to ensure no retaliation on the part of the nonprofit organizations toward employees with intent to leave. Emotion intelligence as well is a sensitive measure and needs to be confidentially secured (Privitera, 2013).

Survey Monkey was chosen to collect the data given the high-security level offered. Survey Monkey is a secure site that uses encrypted Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) and Transport Layer Security (TLS) connections to protect data. Survey Monkey has individual user authentication to ensure data is only shared with the account holder. Online data are protected by Norton and TRUSTe, both highly respectable antivirus programs. All data exported were completed using a secure network.

Other Considerations

Because this study used human subjects, it was also important to disclose to the people what potential harmful effects may occur because of participation in the study (Privitera, 2013). Since this was an online survey, there were minimal risks, although the possibility existed that people might experience some level of anxiety when indicating whether or not they were planning on leaving their jobs.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to outline the methodology for the basis of this study. A quantitative research method was used in this study to examine the effects emotional intelligence, and commitment level, may have on employee's intent to stay or seek alternative employment. The research proposal involved the use of a self-report survey to participants who were willing to complete the survey. The goal was to obtain a sample representative of employees in the nonprofit sector by gathering data from the

completed surveys to answer the research questions identified in this chapter. The results of the proposed research are shared in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Results

My purpose in this research was to examine whether a relationship exists between turnover intention, emotional intelligence, and employee commitment level. I begin this chapter with the data collection method, research tools, data analyses, followed by research findings, and a summary. The outline for this chapters consists of three sections related to each research question and corresponding hypotheses that contain a restatement of the research question along with corresponding hypotheses, assumptions, and descriptives. In each section, I will provide a detailed account for the scales that I used and their corresponding descriptive, reliability, assumptions, followed by the results. I conclude the chapter with a summary of Chapter 4.

My focus in this study was on employees of nonprofit organizations in the United States. I established a self-reporting survey consisting of 54 questions in SurveyMonkey. I posted a survey link to Amazon Mechanical Turk, where employees working in the nonprofit sector were solicited to participate in the study. Participants who electronically signed an informed consent and attested to working for a nonprofit organization were able to proceed with the full survey.

There were 597 surveys received from MTurk and downloaded to SurveyMonkey. Of the 597 surveys, I did not include 322 responses in the analysis as their responses to the screening questions indicated that they did not meet the inclusion criteria. This left 275 eligible participants; however, I did not include data from two of those participants in this analysis as one answered only the screening questions, and one did not respond to the emotional intelligence scales. The final number of participants that contributed data to this study was 273, exceeding the calculated necessary sample size of a minimum of 153.

As noted, I did not collect demographic data to avoid compromising the anonymity of the survey responses; in addition, there was a consideration given to the length of the survey and potential participant fatigue leading to attrition and unstable results. Even as the determination to exclude demographic information was sound in reason, this has been added to limitations section of this study due to the potential that gender, race/ethnicity, or socioeconomic background could serve to moderate the turnover intention.

I analyzed data using three types of analyses: a Spearman correlation, a standard multiple regression, and a hierarchical regression. I computed a Spearman correlation coefficient between turnover intention and total emotional intelligence score. The original intention of computing a Pearson's product moment correlation was deemed inappropriate as the assumption of linearity was violated as indicated by a significant Shapiro-Wilks result. The Spearman value and the related statistical significance were used to report the results of the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention.

Next, I conducted a multiple regression analysis with the four subscales related to the emotional intelligence scale on the dependent variable, turnover intention. The four subscales include (a) perception of emotion, (b) utilization of emotion, (c) managing others emotion, and (d) managing own emotions, on turnover intention. Multiple regression is conducted to determine variance between a number of predictor variables and a criterion variable (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013). A multiple regression analysis was appropriate for this study to assess the direction, significance, and relationship between each of the four SSRI emotional intelligence subscales as negative predictors to turnover intention.

I performed a hierarchical regression to explain whether dimensions of commitment, ACS, NCS, and CCS accounted for a significant amount of variance to turnover intention. The results of the hierarchical regression determined by the values R^2 , F statistic, p value, and the R^2 change. For all significance tests, the alpha level was set at .05, unless otherwise noted.

Research Questions

Research Question 1

The first research question included an exploration of whether a relationship exists between turnover intention and emotional intelligence. The following hypothesis was formed:

$H1_0$: A positive relationship, or no relationship, exists between employee turnover intention and emotional intelligence.

$H1_a$: A negative relationship exists between employee turnover intention and emotional intelligence.

The two measures used for research question one are the turnover intention scale and the SSRI. The turnover intention scale is a measure consisting of three statements with responses on a five point scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = unsure, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree. The responses to the three statements were summed to create a total scale score with higher scores indicating a greater intention to leave the organization, and lower scores indicating a lower intent to leave.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics for the Turnover Intentions and the SSRI scale are located in Table 1. The turnover intention mean (with standard deviation) was 7.53 (3.3). A low score on turnover intention is indicative of a low intent to leave, and a high score for EI is indicative of a high level of emotional intelligence.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Turnover Intention and Total Emotional Intelligence

Variable	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max	Skew
Turnover intention	273	7.53	3.29	3.00	15.00	0.25
Total emotional intelligence	273	114.44	8.75	78.00	130.00	-.662

Correlation Analysis

To answer research question one, a Spearman correlation was computed using the original turnover intention scores and emotional intelligence scales. A correlation analysis was chosen in an attempt to establish whether a relationship existed between employee turnover intention and their emotional intelligence. Hypothesis 1 included the prediction that a positive, or no relationship exists between turnover intention and emotional intelligence. The alternative to hypothesis 1 is that a negative relationship exists between turnover intention and emotional intelligence. There was a non-significant, very low positive correlation between turnover intention and emotional intelligence, $r = .079$, $p = .194$. Results are in Table 2. As such, the null hypothesis for hypothesis 1 was not rejected.

Table 2

Correlations for Turnover Intention and Emotional Intelligence

		TI total	Total EI
TI	Spearman correlation	1	.079
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.194
	<i>N</i>	273	273
Total EI	Spearman correlation	.079	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.194	

Note. ** $p < .01$, 2-tailed test; TI, turnover intention; EI, emotional intelligence.

Research Question 2 and Hypotheses

Does one or more of the emotional intelligence components: Perception of emotion, Manage other Emotion, Manage own emotion, and Utilization of emotion, predict employee turnover intention?

Hypothesis 2A

H2₀: There is a positive relationship, or no relationship, between employee's emotional intelligence sub score of Perception of emotion and intent to leave.

H2_a: There is a negative relationship between Perception of emotion of the employee's emotional intelligence sub score and intent to leave.

Hypothesis 2B

H2B₀: There is a positive relationship, or no relationship, between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of Manage other emotion and intent to leave.

H2B_a: There is a negative relationship between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of Manage other emotion and intent to leave.

Hypothesis 2C

H2C₀: There is a positive relationship, or no relationship, between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of Manage own emotion level and intent to leave.

H2C_a: There is a negative relationship between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of Manage own emotion and intent to leave.

Hypothesis 2D

H2D₀: There is a positive relationship, or no relationship, between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of Utilization of emotion level and intent to leave.

H2D_a: There is a negative relationship between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of Utilization of emotion level and intent to leave.

To answer research question two, a multiple regression was performed with the four components of emotional intelligence predicting turnover intention. The SSRI measures four aspects of emotional intelligence: (a) Perception of emotion, (b) Manage own emotion, (c) Manage other emotion, and (d) Utilization of emotion (Petrides & Furnham, 2000). The responses that comprised each subscale were summed yielding a total subscale score (indicating a greater degree of emotional intelligence). Higher total scores on a subscale indicate a greater amount of that particular factor of emotional intelligence.

The means, standard deviations, and reliability results (calculated by Cronbach's alpha) are reported in Table 3. All but one subscale showed what is generally regarded as acceptable internal validity. The SSRI subscales were measured for reliability using Cronbach's alpha, where coefficients should generally be above .70 (Heppner et al., 1999). Utilization is lower at .65, potentially due to the smaller number of items (6) composing the construct where the others are comprised of 8 – 10 items . As .65 is not substantially below what is generally considered acceptable, the determination was made to retain the subscale. The EI survey in its entirety showed overall strong validity, .89.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Turnover Intention and SSRI Subscales

	Total TI score	EI managing own emotions	EI managing other emotions	EI utilization of emotions	EI perception of emotions
	Total number of items: 33	Number of items: 9	Number of items: 8	Number of items: 6	Number of items: 10
<i>N</i>	267	267	267	267	267
Mean	7.5	36.93	30.82	23.45	38.68
<i>SD</i>	3.25	4.47	3.98	3.22	5.19
Skewness	0.247	-0.182	-0.104	-0.342	0.051
Kurtosis	-1.012	-0.347	0.207	0.349	-0.356
Cronbach's alpha	.89	.72	.71	.65	.76

Multiple regression analysis.

A standard multiple regression was performed to determine if one or more of the four subscales of the SSRI predicted turnover intention of nonprofit employees. The predictor variables (SSRI subscales as previously described) were simultaneously entered into a regression model predicting turnover intention. Analyses of the assumptions and carrying out the multiple regression were performed using SPSS (Version 25).

A number of assumptions were examined in order to perform a multiple regression: (a) adequate sample size, (b) lack of multicollinearity of independent (predictor) variables, (c) independence of observations (residuals), (d) linearity, (e) absence of outliers, (f) homoscedascity of residuals (equal error variances), and (g) normality of residuals (O'Brien & Scott, 2012). A power analysis for an appropriate sample size was conducted resulting in a sample size of 153. The resulting sample of 273 was sufficient to provide adequate power for the multiple regression.

The first assumption tested was for independence of observations. This assumption was met as assessed by the Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.714.. The studentized residuals/expected values plot was also inspected for homoscedascity. There was homoscedascity as the residuals were evenly scattered. Multicollinearity was checked for by assessing the tolerance. No value exceeded .1 (which indicates the presence of multicollinearity). There were no evident outliers. Linearity was assessed by visual inspection of a normal PP plot of the standardized residuals (Figure 2).

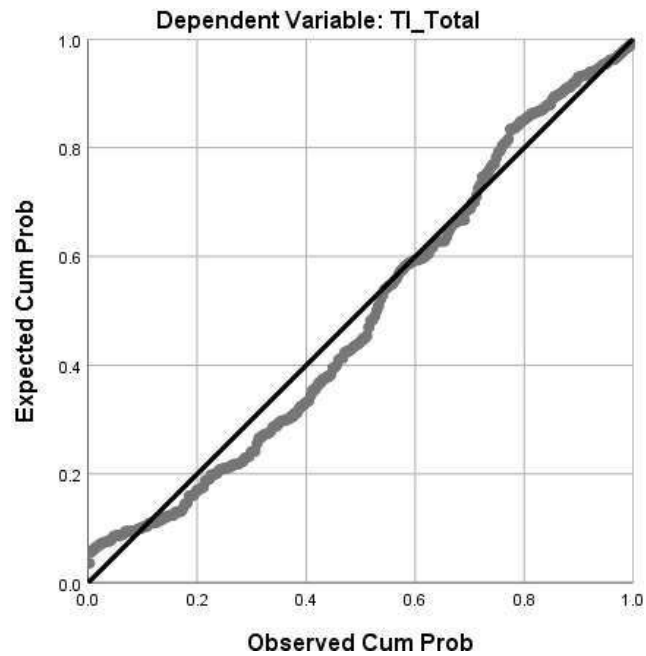


Figure 1. P-P plot of standardized residuals.

The adjusted R^2 was .021. The overall model was just statistically significant, $F(4, 268) = 2.45, p = .047$. Managing Others Emotions and Utilization of Emotions contributed significantly to the model. The model results are listed in Table 4.

Table 4

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis

Variable	B	SE	β
Intercept	6.768	2.598	
Managing own emotions	-.034	.119	-.028
Managing other's emotions	.279	.122	.209*
Utilization of emotions	-.311	.128	-.190*
Perceptions of emotions	.016	.103	.015

Note. * p value < .05.

Hypothesis *H2_a*: There is a negative relationship between perception of emotion of the employee's emotional intelligence sub score and intent to leave ($\beta = .02, p = .877$), was not supported and the null not rejected. Hypothesis *H2B_a*: There is a negative relationship between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of manage other emotion and intent to leave was positive yet significant ($\beta = .21, p = .023$), however given the positive direction the null could not be rejected.

The hypothesis *H2C_a*: there is a negative relationship between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of manage own emotion and intent to leave was negative and not significant ($\beta = -.03, p = .779$), with the non-significant result indicating that the alternative hypothesis was not supported. The final hypothesis for this research question, there is a negative relationship between the employee's emotional intelligence sub score of utilization of emotion level and intent to leave, was negative and significant ($\beta = -.19, p = .015$), and the null was rejected.

Research Question 3 and Hypotheses

The relationship between turnover intention and commitment has been an important construct in attempting to understand (Yucel, 2012). Meyer and Allen's (1997) three-component commitment model proposes that employee commitment is tied to emotions and is demonstrated by different mindsets; desire, obligation, and cost. Affective commitment and normative commitment are often displayed in cultures where there is lower conformity, more individualistic, obligation to the organization, and emotional attachment. Conversely, continuance commitment is associated with the cost associated with leaving (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). It is theorized that employees of nonprofits tend to stay because they may feel a sense of obligation to the organization,

and sense of commitment. Therefore, based on previous literature pertaining to nonprofit employees, and reasons why they may stay with an organization, the following research question was developed to address this: The following is the research question and associated hypotheses:

R₃: There will be a stronger relationship between Affective and Normative Commitment on turnover intention than with Continuance commitment on turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

Hypothesis 3

H3₀: There is a no relationship between Affective Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

H3_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Affective Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

Hypothesis 4

H4₀: There is no relationship between Normative Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

H4_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Normative Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

Hypothesis 5

H5₀: There is no relationship between Continuous Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

H5_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Continuous Commitment and turnover intention of nonprofit employees.

Hypothesis 6

H6₀: The relationship between Affective Commitment and turnover intention is not stronger than the Continuous Commitment and turnover intention relationship of nonprofit employees.

H6_a: The relationship between Affective Commitment and turnover intention is stronger than the Continuous Commitment and turnover intention relationship of nonprofit employees.

Hypothesis 7

H7₀: The relationship between Normative Commitment and turnover intention is not stronger than the Continuous Commitment and turnover intention relationship of nonprofit employees.

H7_a: The relationship between Normative Commitment and turnover intention is stronger than the Continuous Commitment and turnover intention relationship of nonprofit employees.

To answer research question three, and the corresponding hypotheses, a hierarchical regression was carried out. The dependent variable for the hierarchical regression was the turnover intention, with the TCM Employee Commitment subscales (which was used to assess participants' commitment to their organization) as the predictor variables. These subscales consist of: (a) The Affective Commitment Scale, (b) The Continuance Commitment Scale, and (c). The Normative Commitment Scale. Each subscale has six statements that participants rate on a scale of 1 to 7: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 4= Undecided, 5 = Slightly Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree. Three items on the Affective Commitment Scale and one item on the Normative Commitment Scale were reversed scored.

The average response for each of the subscales was between 4 = undecided and 5 = slightly agree. For each participant, the responses on each subscale were summed to yield a total subscale score. The overall Cronbach's alpha was .88. The organizational commitment scale was assessed for internal reliability using Cronbach's alpha, with the results showing acceptable reliability. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics: Affective, Normative, Continuous Commitment

Variable	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max	Skew	α
Turnover intention	273	7.50	3.25	3.00	15.00	.238	-
Commitment							
Affective	267	28.16	8.17	8.00	40.00	-.544	.88
Normative	267	28.00	8.26	6.00	42.00	-.472	.88
Continuous	267	24.60	7.08	6.00	41.00	-.448	.76

Prior to conducting the hierarchical regression analysis, the variables of each of the TCM Employee Commitment scales were examined through SPSS (Version 25) to test the relevant assumptions. These assumptions mirror those of multiple regression (e.g., adequate sample size, independence of observations, linear relationships, homoscedasticity of residuals, no multicollinearity or significant outliers, and normal distribution of the residuals).

The first assumption checked was for independence of observations. The Durbin-Watson test produced a result of 1.28 which is indicative of potential positive autocorrelation. This could potentially be due to one correlation (Affective Commitment) being highly (.825) correlated with Normative Commitment. However, the researcher determined that it is unlikely that these variables are indeed dependent upon each other. Linearity was assessed by visual inspection of partial regression plots and plotting studentized residuals against the expected

values. The studentized residuals/expected values plot was also inspected for homoscedascity. There was homoscedascity as the residuals were evenly scattered with no evident funneling.

Multicollinearity was ruled out with no tolerance level above .1. There were no outliers. Linearity was established by visual inspection of a pp-plot (Figure 3).

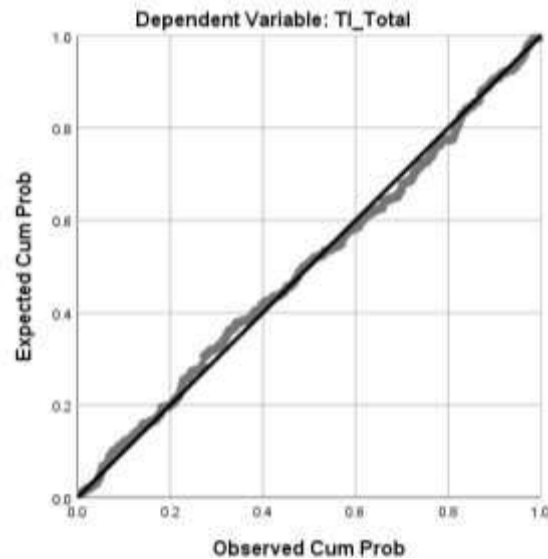


Figure 2. P-P plot for hierarchical regression linearity.

Hierarchical regression.

A hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine the predictive utility of the subscales of the TCM Employee Commitment scale (Affective Commitment; Continuance commitment; Normative Commitment) on turnover intention. For this analysis, the three dimensions of the TCM Employee Commitment scale were entered into the equation as the predictors, and the turnover intention scale was the criterion variable. The predictors were set in a specific order as determined by the hypotheses to examine how much remaining variance on the criterion variable, turnover intention, can be accounted for by the Affective Commitment and Normative Commitment scale over and above the Continuous Commitment scale. The goal was to control for the Continuous

Commitment scale to discern the Affective Commitment and Normative Commitment of employees in nonprofit organizations. Continuous Commitment may be associated with turnover intention of the specified population, and it was therefore used in the first model to ascertain its weight on the other predictors.

In the first model, Continuous Commitment accounted for minimal variance in turnover intention and was not significant (adjusted $R^2 = .008$, $F(1, 271) = 2.168$, $p = .142$). The addition of Affective and Normative Commitment resulted in a significantly improved model, $F(3, 269) = 83.727$, $p < .0005$. The adjusted R^2 was .477, considered a very strong finding, explaining almost half the variance within the model. The R^2 change went from .008 to .475. Results of the hierarchical regression are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Model summary for Hierarchical Regression

Model	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. Error of the estimate	Change statistics			Sig. F change	
					R square change	F change	df1		
1	.089 ^a	.008	.004	3.82	.008	2.168	1	271	.142
2	.695 ^b	.483	.477	2.378	.475	123.527	2	269	.000

a. Predictors: (constant), CCS_sum

b. Predictors: (constant), CCS_sum, ACS_sum, NCS_sum

c. Dependent variable: TI_total

The correlations matrix, located in Table 6, was examined to answer hypotheses H3, H4, and H5. Hypothesis 3 indicated that Affective Commitment would have a statistically significant relationship to turnover intention. The correlation between

Affective Commitment and turnover intention showed a moderate, statistically significant, negative correlation ($r = -.680, p < .0005$). A moderate, negative correlation between the measured variables indicated that lower scores on the Affective Commitment scale are associated with higher scores on the turnover intention scale. This suggests that turnover intention is higher when Affective Commitment is lower. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Similarly, hypothesis 4 indicated that Normative Commitment would have a statistically significant relationship to turnover intention. The correlation between Normative Commitment and turnover intention showed a moderate, statistically significant, negative correlation ($r = .603, p < .0005$), and the null hypothesis was rejected. Therefore, the measured variables indicated that lower scores related to Normative Commitment are associated with higher scores on the turnover intention scale.

Hypothesis 5 specified that Continuous Commitment would have a statistically significant relationship to turnover intention. The correlation between Continuous Commitment and turnover intention showed a weak, non-significant, positive correlation ($r = .089, p = .071$). Therefore, the measured variables indicated that higher scores in Continuous Commitment were related to higher scores on the turnover intention scale, and the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 7

Correlation Matrix for Continuous, Affective, Normative Commitment and Turnover Intention

Correlation with TI	N	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
---------------------	---	----------	----------

Continuous	273	.089	.071
Affective	273	-.680	.000
Normative	273	-.603	.000

For hypothesis 6 and 7, the standardized beta values (β) for each of the predictors were examined. (See Table 8). The β values in the equation describe the relationship between turnover intention and the three predictors. The results of the equation indicate that Affective Commitment had the strongest impact on the equation that predicted turnover intention ($\beta = -.509, p < .0005$), followed by Normative Commitment ($\beta = -.207, p < .0005$), and then Continuous Commitment ($\beta = 0.129, p = .006$). The predictors Affective Commitment and Normative each made a significant, negative contribution to turnover intention. Similarly, the Continuous Commitment association was significant, however, with a positive value, which suggests as Continuous Commitment scores increase, turnover intention also increases. Therefore, for hypothesis 6 and 7, the null hypotheses for both were rejected.

Table 8

Hierarchical Model Properties

Model		<i>B</i>	Std. Error	<i>Beta</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	(Constant)	6.517	.719		9.061	0.000
1	Continuous	.041	.028	.089	1.472	.142
2	(Constant)	14.065	.724		19.347	0.000

Continuous	.060	.022	.129	2.758	.006
Affective	-.205	.033	-.509	-6.277	0.000
Normative	-.082	.033	-.207	-2.505	.013

Summary

The results from the data collected for this research study revealed that turnover intention is impacted by emotional intelligence and commitment. Noting that while the Spearman correlation indicated no association between total SSRI emotional intelligence score and turnover intention (thus failing to support hypothesis one), the overall findings indicated such an impact.

The next research question was whether the four identified subscales of the SSRI emotional intelligence scale were significant, negative predictors of turnover intention. Assumptions were computed using various analyses. With the assumptions met, aspects of emotional intelligence – managing others’ emotions and utilization of emotions – contributed significantly to the model.

Finally, hierarchical regression analyses were computed to identifying three variables as being influential predictors of turnover intention: Affective Commitment, Normative Commitment, and Continuous Commitment. First, a correlation matrix was produced to identify relationships between turnover intention and the TMI commitment scales. These computations revealed significant relationships between turnover intention and Affective Commitment, as well as Normative Commitment, while the correlation

between Continuous Commitment and turnover intention was not significant. Further, the three commitment scales were entered into the regression in the following order:

Continuous, Affective, and Normative, to determine whether Affective Commitment and Normative Commitment had stronger relationships with turnover intention, above and beyond Continuous Commitment. The data suggest that there is a significant relationship between Affective and Normative Commitment and Turnover Intention., The magnitude of the relationships between Affective and Normative Commitment and Turnover Intention are stronger than that of Continuous Commitment and Turnover Intention.

Chapter 5 includes implications, conclusions, and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, Recommendations

My purpose in this study was to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and commitment on turnover intention of employees who work in the nonprofit sector. Although several research studies have supported the relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention and employee commitment on turnover intention in various employment settings (Anari, 2012; Demir, 2011; Jordan & Troth, 2011; Mohammad et al., 2014; Trivellas et al., 2011) further research was necessary in the nonprofit sector employing different scales. In this study, I built on what is already understood regarding emotional intelligence by use of the 33 item self-rated scale (Schutte et al., 2009) and by to determining whether one or more of the four subscales predicts turnover intention. In addition to the relationship of emotional intelligence and turnover intention, I used the three-component model of commitment to determine whether an association existed with turnover intention.

I applied a quantitative approach using three analyses, including a Spearman's r , a standard multiple regression, and a hierarchical regression. I solicited participants using M-turk (recruiting software). This study was limited to nonmanaging employees working in the nonprofit sector. There were 273 eligible participants who completed the entire questionnaire. The results of the study were limited to a self-report questionnaire, relying on the honesty and full disclosure of participants. Responses to the self-reported questionnaire showed that turnover intention was influenced by emotional intelligence scores and commitment. This chapter consists of a discussion of findings, implications for social change, limitations, future research suggestions, and I end the chapter with a conclusion.

Discussion

Nonprofit organizations have experienced a high rate of turnover attributed to issues with additional costs related to recruitment and training of new employees, heavy burden on remaining employees to pick up additional responsibilities, and service provision (Kim & Lee, 2007). Filling vacant positions in a nonprofit can be challenging, especially when considering a significant number of individuals searching for work are not necessarily turning to the nonprofit world, but rather the for-profit sector (Salamon, 2002). High turnover can have ripple effects which ultimately lead to difficulty recruiting and retaining valuable talent (Schoshinski, 2013). During the period of turnover intention, employees contemplate their decision to stay or go, using their emotional intelligence, as well as identifying with how he or she fits within the organization (indicative as well as to their commitment to the organization) (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Chopra & Kanji, 2010).

Employees of nonprofits have been known to stay with the organization due to the desire to help fulfill the mission. There is a growing concern that nonprofit organizations experience higher turnover rates as a result of increased job stress, too much workload, increased requirements, and lack of financial security (Howe & McDonald, 2001). According to Jayaratne and Chess (1984), the majority of nonprofit employees intend to leave their jobs, given turnover rates ranging between 30% to 60% each year. Exacerbating the issue are the sizable costs to replace only one person (Institute for the Future of Aging Services, 2003; Mor Boarak, Nissly, & Levin, 2001). A pressing issue in nonprofits is the retention of skilled employees in the face of such a turnover rate.

Mowday et al. (1979) indicated that employees who are committed to the organization tend to outperform those who are not, and remain focused on the best

interests of the organization. Research has consistently indicated that employees with high affective and normative commitment tend to out-perform those with high continuence commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Allen, 1997). My purpose in this study was to determine whether a relationship between turnover intention and emotional intelligence, as well as turnover intention and commitment, exists. I explored the relationship between emotional intelligence, commitment, and turnover intention through a correlation, multiple regression, and hierarchical regression.

My aim in the first research question required an exploration as to whether turnover intention would be negatively correlated with the total emotional intelligence score. Employees in nonprofits are generally understood to face greater workloads, more job demands, and higher stress than employees in the for-profit sector (Gilboa et al., 2008; Hamann & Foster, 2014). Since employees with higher emotional intelligence tend to display greater stress tolerance (Lopes et al., 2006), I expected that employees with greater emotional intelligence would therefore be more resilient to the greater demands of nonprofit organizations. This resilience, in turn, would make them less inclined to experience burnout, and thus potentially leaving the organization.

The Spearman's r correlation between total emotional intelligence and turnover intention resulted in $r = .079$, $p = .194$ (a nonsignificant finding). Previous research suggests individuals with higher emotional intelligence would be more in control of their emotions, regardless of external factors such as environment, and therefore less likely to leave (Askhtar, Shabir, Safdar, & Akhtar, 2017; Khalili, 2012). The positive, weak, nonsignificant relationship between the two variables was not expected, and is suggestive

that other factors besides emotional intelligence may influence the intent to leave with this particular population.

Emotional intelligence is defined 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” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, pg. 189). As I previously indicated, it was expected that employees with higher emotional intelligence would be less likely to leave. However, one known factor that precipitates turnover is career advancement opportunities (Mayton, 2011). It may be the case that individuals who are top performers see the limited advancement opportunities, and employees with higher emotional intelligence may be more inclined to pursue other career options. Because no literature could be located with regard to the nonprofit sector, there is also a possibility that the SSRI instrument may require further exploration with this particular population.

The second research question included the aim of identifying whether a particular dimension of emotional intelligence is related to turnover intention. It was predicted the four SSRI subscales (a) Manage own emotion, (b) Manage other emotion, (c) Perception of emotion, and (d) Utilization of emotion would be significant and negatively related with turnover intention. The results of the multiple regression analysis indicated that the model did significantly predict turnover intention. Managing other’s emotion was significant but positively correlated. Utilization of Emotion was positive and significant. Managing own emotion was neither significant nor in the expected direction. In terms of the analytical design, it is important to note that running a number of analyses may result in a significant finding regardless of an actual association. This is due to the probability of a one in twenty (when the alpha is .05) chance of a lower probability and would result

in a Type I error (Roback & Askins 2005). Therefore, when testing more than one variable a researcher should use an omnibus test to reduce that possibility. Multiple regression (based on a F-test) was used for the research questions with more than one factor being explored to mitigate the possibility of inflating the p-value. Also important is the setting of a priori expectations for multiple hypotheses; Veazie (2006) stated “Setting hypotheses a priori is important in order to avoid a combinatorial explosion of error” (p 805).

The results of the analyses conflict to some degree with what was anticipated with the exception of Utilization of Emotion and Turnover Intention, which was supported. The other expected outcomes were that there would be significant, negative relationships between each of the remaining subscales with turnover intention. The weak correlations may be due to other factors such as timing of participants taking the self-measure questionnaire (the internal validity threat of history). The great recession began in 2007 and ended in 2009 (Economic Policy Institute, 2012). During this time, the unemployment rate peaked in 2009, and did not lessen until 2016, suggestive of slow recovery. While the recession officially ended in 2009, the rebound for many workers has not been quite as fast, and has the potential to negatively impact employment growth for years to come (Lowrey, 2017). The possibility exists that employees of nonprofits were less likely to consider job change given the potential that other employers were not hiring.

An additional potential explanation for the weak correlations found with the four SSRI subscales and turnover intention could be the potential restriction of range in the sample population. Restriction of range implies there is little degree in variation of scores

(Salkind, 2010). Collectively the turnover intention scores for this population were tightly grouped into the low score range, indicating employees were less likely to leave their organization. With so many turnover intention scores clustering in such a small range, it seems expected to have low correlations. Future samples of the target population could potentially result in greater degrees of variance, particularly if the intent to leave was moderated by economic circumstances.

Although the overall regression model was significant, it doesn't explain much of the variation of data. Collectively, the four predictors of emotional intelligence accounts for 5 percent of variance in turnover intention, but a much larger percentage of the variance in the model remains unexplained, which indicates that other factors have an influence on turnover intention. The characteristics associated with emotional intelligence are the ability to perceive, process, integrate, understand, and regulate emotion to support personal development (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Emotional intelligence has been widely recognized as playing a critical role in turnover intention due to the ability to effectively identify and control psychological responses such as stress and frustration (Jeswani & Dave, 2012; Trivellas, Gerogiannis, & Svarna, 2013). As the main draw of nonprofit employees is their mission to generally underfunded and underresourced causes, employees are generally earning lower salaries with excessive caseloads, a lack of advancement opportunity, and dissatisfaction with supervision (Larson & Hewitt, 2005; Light, 2003; Ruhm & Borkowski, 2003). The low adjusted R^2 value may be an indication that emotional intelligence is not as influential with this particular population, or the possibility that this particular instrument has not been studied sufficiently on non-profit populations.

The third research question included the aim to identify whether the TCM Affective and Normative Commitment scales predicted turnover intention above Continuous Commitment. Hierarchical regression analysis was performed to answer research question three. Results of the first hierarchical model suggest that Continuous Commitment did not predict scores on the turnover intention ($p > .05$) while the second set of predictors, Affective Commitment and Normative Commitment did negatively predict turnover intention, $p < .01$. Affective Commitment is often associated with higher levels of contributing to organizational mission, and highly related to turnover (Chordya, et al., 2017). Similarly, the dimension of Normative Commitment is also a reflection of a compelling connection to the organization (Tekingündüz, Top, Tengilimoğlu, & Karabulut, 2017). Higher scores related to Affective and Normative Commitment may suggest that employees feel obligated to stay because of the mission, as well as a strong sense of belonging to the organization, therefore, reducing their intent to leave. Conversely, the weak contribution of the Continuance commitment scale to turnover intention is not surprising and may be considered a less desirable attribute to turnover intention with the population surveyed for this research study.

The results indicate a significant negative relationship between turnover intention and Affective Commitment. Results of the Spearman's r gave was a significant, negative, moderate relationship between turnover intention, Affective ($r = -.680$), and Normative Commitment ($r = -.603$), and a positive, non-significant relationship between Continuous Commitment and turnover intention ($r = .089$). To examine the unique contribution of each predictor semi-partial correlation coefficients were computed. The semi-partial correlation of a variable estimates the effect of that variable on the outcome over and

above all the other variables by controlling the effects of those other variables. Each of the variables semi-partial correlations are significantly different from zero.

The semi-partial correlation gives the direction and strength of a variable while controlling for another. For Affective Commitment the partial correlation is $-.357$, which indicates a low negative association when controlling for Continuous Commitment. The partial correlation for Normative Commitment when controlling for Continuous Commitment is $-.151$; a low, negative association. The importance of Affective Commitment has been confirmed by other researchers who found a negative correlation between Affective Commitment and turnover intention (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Pitt et al., 1995). Overall, the results indicate that the combination of Affective and Normative Commitment are significantly better at predicting turnover intention, than Continuance commitment alone.

Research consistently shows employee commitment reduces costly turnover and, higher scores in Affective Commitment feel more emotionally connected to the organization, and tend to out-perform those with lower scores. Equally, those with higher Normative Commitment scores, out-perform employees with high Continuous Commitment (Herscovitch, Meyer, Stanelly, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Meyer & Allen, 2004). While much of the previous research has focused on managing staff, this research highlights the important role of non-managing employees and the role of dominant Affective and Normative Commitment in being predictors of turnover intention.

Organizations are faced with keeping up with continuous change and greater uncertainty. The study of organizational commitment is a complex concept and continues to be explored in a variety of settings to determine the link between employee behavior

and organizational commitment (Hansen & Kjeldsen, 2017; Wang et al., 2017). Non-profit employees express they are underpaid, however, willing to forfeit monetary means to support the organizational mission of which they believe is important (Kim & Lee, 2007; Ohana & Meyer, 2016). Affective Commitment has been linked to the way an individual associates himself with the organization (Wang et al., 2017). Continued exploration of the dimensions of organizational commitment may be beneficial with the retention of their valued employees, even when faced with the inability to pay their employees more (Ohana & Meyer, 2016).

In summary, the findings of this research suggest that emotional intelligence may be considered a weak predictor to assess employee turnover intention in the nonprofit sector, while the three predictors of commitment may be better aligned.

Implications for Social Change

While this research study has limitations, the results offer further understanding between the impact of emotional intelligence and commitment to turnover intention. The nonprofit sector may find the results of this study helpful when considering hiring practices, as well as current training modules. Further, leaders and executives of nonprofits may find this research valuable when looking at new ideas for training and employee development.

Losing employees, especially high performing ones, can be costly to any organization, but it can be potentially devastating to nonprofits that struggle with tight budgets. Replacing an employee can often cost an organization more than a year's salary for the particular position (Allen et al., 2010). In addition, the loss of a high performing employee can mean essential tasks left undone, increased workloads for the remaining

employees, and lowered morale. The strongest predictor of an employee leaving is turnover intention (Griffeth et al., 2000). Therefore, it is vital for nonprofit organizations to understand turnover intention and how it can be reduced.

The results of the present study suggest that nonprofit organizations may strive to attract job candidates that have higher levels of Affective and Normative commitments. Further, employers may also consider implementing various strategies to enhance Affective and Normative commitment skills in current employees. Perhaps just as important as a candidate's skills is whether the candidate identifies with the goals of the organization. Once an organization has hired committed employees, it must work to maintain and even increase their commitment. Valuing employees and treating them fairly and justly can strengthen their Affective commitment (Luchak & Gellatly, 2007). As their Affective commitment increases, employees become more engaged with their jobs (Coffman & Gonzalez-Molina, 2002). The organization can maintain engagement by providing effective leadership, fostering collegiality among coworkers, and providing employees the resources they need (May et al., 2004). Employees that have Affective commitment, and are engaged, will be less likely to consider leaving the organization.

Reservations and Limitations

There are five noted limitations which include convenience sampling, self-report method, important factors that influence identity, skewness of the turnover intention scale, and the existence of outliers. First, convenience sampling was employed rather than probability sampling. In probability sampling, each member of the population of interest has a known chance of being selected for the study. When probability sampling is used, it gives the best chance of obtaining a sample that is representative of the

population. However, access to a list of all non-management employees of nonprofits in the United States was not available, thus study participants were not selected based on probability. Instead, a convenience sampling was used by relying on participants who volunteered to complete the online survey. Convenience sampling does not maximize the chance that the sample is representative of the population of interest. Therefore, biases in both internal and external validity are likely present.

It is important to note that where the power calculation suggested that 153 number of subjects would be needed for appropriate power, the final n was 273. Over-sampling is frequently recommended to protect against loss of power given attrition, missing data, and greater potential for improved external validity. It could be argued that the greater number could potentially “over-power” the findings and result in a Type 1 error (given the inverse relationship with insufficient samples and Type 2 errors). However, practical considerations of significance must be considered in the same degree as statistical ones and in such a case the increase in representation could be considered more compelling over a potential for an increase in a Type 1 error.

The second limitation was the accuracy of a self-report method. Participants were asked to respond to questions related to components of the Schutte et al.’s emotional intelligence scale which consists of 33 items, a three component scale related to commitment totaling 18 questions, and a 3-item turnover intention scale. The limitations of a self-report method include misunderstanding of questions asked, accuracy of participant responses related to each of the questions, and respondents may lose interest and quit if the questionnaire is too lengthy (Schutte et al., 1998). Another potential threat is social desirability and a participant’s hesitation to report his or her desire to leave the

nonprofit organization. Future research might include a qualitative approach to collecting data related to the variables of interest in this research study. Interviews can provide more in-depth information and can be more flexible.

The third limitation of this study was the lack of demographic data collection. In order to avoid compromising the privacy of participants, demographics for this study were not obtained. Collecting demographics might have made respondents uncomfortable, believing they could be potentially be identified. Further, it demographics were not collected because of the length of the questionnaire. It was determined that by adding additional demographic questions, the questionnaire would have been too lengthy for an online data collection method. If a survey consists of too many questions, response rates can be greatly impacted and potentially lower the reliability of the results.

The fourth limitation of this study was the skew in the distribution of the data sample of the total turnover intention scale. If data are too skewed in the distribution, a transformation is recommended. A transformation was done and resulted in little to no difference in skewness. It was determined the analyses performed were robust enough, and therefore the original data set (not transformed) was used.

Future Research

This study is one of the first to investigate the factors that influence turnover intention of employees, who do not manage others, at nonprofits. To further understand what causes employees to leave their nonprofit organizations, this research could be extended in a variety of ways. First, in addition to the variables included in the present study, future researchers should include demographic variables such as age and gender. There is some evidence that older workers have higher job satisfaction because they are

better at emotion regulation and utilization of emotion (El Badawy & Magdy, 2015). Similarly, females may be better at perceiving emotion and utilizing emotion above and beyond that of males (e.g., Byron, 2007). By including age and gender, researchers could explore whether for older or female employees, emotional intelligence might contribute to turnover intention over and above commitment.

Further, length of employment might also be incorporated into additional studies. A replicate study, measuring length of employment of non-managerial employees of nonprofits may provide a deeper understanding of how it effects employee decision making of whether to leave or stay. Prior experience, education in the field, and intended careers could also be influential in non-profit employee retention. A study of this kind could help leaders and managers further understand how important training in the early phases of employment, as well as continued employee development, in relation to variables such as emotional intelligence and commitment may impact turnover intention.

In summary of the above, it was not possible in this study to examine what potential role a employee's "personality type" or potential motivation for seeking a non-profit position might be. These factors could impact both the potential association between emotional intelligence (one's own inherent personality traits that align with non-profit work) and resultant commitment to the work. Experience and education (including intended career goals) should also be examined in relation to commitment and turnover.

Another area to explore is whether the results of the present study generalize to all types of nonprofit organizations. Nonprofit organizations can vary in size from a small, local arts group to a large university or hospital. In addition, nonprofits focus on a wide range of issues including public service, education, environmental issues, the arts and

culture, international affairs, and religion. Some questions to investigate would be whether the strength of the relationship between commitment and turnover intention varies by the size or type of nonprofit and whether emotional intelligence influences turnover intention in some types of organizations. Lastly, these findings suggest maybe future research explore the use of the SSRI scale as well as the subscales, as they correlate to certain populations.

Conclusion

This research study explored the relationship between non-managing employees with the nonprofit sector, turnover intention, emotional intelligence and commitment. Considerable research has been done on emotional intelligence and commitment as they relate to turnover intention, however, few empirical studies of non-managing employees in the nonprofit sector. The statistical hypotheses were based on emotional intelligence and relevant subscales, and the 3-component commitment scales. Emotion is considered an “active mental processes that can be managed, so long as individuals develop the knowledge and skills to do so” (Bracket, Delaney, & Salovey, 2016, p. 3). According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), individuals who possess the ability to understand and regulate ones emotions, can help with making sound, sensible, and effective decisions. Further, commitment implies the intent to carry out action. Research has demonstrated commitment is an important attribute related to reducing turnover, and should be cultivated (Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002).

Turnover can impose significant costs and employ negative consequences to the workplace (Greyling & Stanz, 2010). The decision to leave a job is influenced by several factors. To this end, this research study was conducted to further contribute to what can

have an impact on turnover retention of valuable and skilled employees. This has a meaningful impact for social change, given that disruptions to the organization by employee turnover would certainly lead to an impact on the service (at least the quantity if not the quality) that the organization provides to those who it serves. By using the information provided by the study, an organization could likely retain the employee and minimize such disruptions, leading to the potential of service sustainability and in time, overall improvement.

References

- Abbas, Q., & Khanam, S. J. (2013). Psychometric properties of Urdu translation and adaptation of organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) in Pakistan. *Asian Journal of Management Sciences & Education*, 2(4), 240-248. doi: 10.33824/PJPR.2019.34.2.14
- Abbasi, S. M., & Hollman, K. W. (2000). Turnover: The real bottom line. *Personnel Administration*, 29(3), 333-342. <https://doi.org/10.1177/009102600002900303>
- Abston, L. R. (2015). *Faculty Trust in the Principal and Organizational Commitment* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Alabama Libraries).
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 179-211. Retrieved from [https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978\(91\)90020-T](https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90020-T)
- Akingbola, K. (2015). *Managing human resources for nonprofits*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Alkozei, A., Schwab, Z. J., & Killgore, W. D. (2015). The role of emotional intelligence during an emotionally difficult decision-making task. *Journal of Nonverbal Behavior*, 40(1), 39-54. doi:10.1007/s10919-015-0218-4
- Allen, D. G., Bryant, P. C., & Vardaman, J. M. (2010). Retaining talent: Replacing misconceptions with evidence-based strategies. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 24(2), 48-64. Retrieved from <http://misweb.cbi.msstate.edu/~COBI/faculty/users/jvardaman/files/files/AllenAMP.pdf>

- Allen, D. G., Shore, L. M., & Griffeth, R. W. (2003). The role of perceived organizational support and supportive human resource practices in the turnover process. *Journal of Management*, 29(1), 99-118, Retrieved from <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.527.3780&rep=rep1&type=pdf>
- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance, and Normative Commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63, 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1990.tb00506.x>
- Amundson, N. E., Borgen, W. A., Jordan, S., & Erlebach, A. C. (2004). Survivors of downsizing: Helpful and hindering experiences. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 52(3), 256-271. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-0045.2004.tb00647.x>
- Anand, R., & Udaya Suriyan, G. (2010). Emotional intelligence and its relationship with leadership practices. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(2), 65-76. doi:10.5539/ijbm.v5n2p65
- Armitage, C. J., & Conner, M. (2001). Efficacy of the theory of planned behavior: A meta-analytic review. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 40(4), 471-499. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1348/014466601164939>
- Armstrong, A. R., Galligan, R. F., & Critchley, C. R. (2011). Emotional intelligence and psychological resilience to negative life events. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 51(3), 331-336. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2011.03.025
- Ashkanasy, N.M. (2002). Emotion in the workplace: The new challenge for managers. *Academy of Management Executive*, 16, 76-86. doi: 10.5465/AME.2002.6640191

- Ashkanasy, N. M., Ashton-James, C. E., & Jordan, P. J. (2003). Performance impacts of appraisal and coping with stress in workplace settings: The role of affect and emotional intelligence. In Perrewe, P. and Ganster, D.(Eds.), *Emotional and physiological processes and positive intervention strategies* (pp. 1-43). Bingley, United Kingdom: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1479-3555\(03\)03001-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1479-3555(03)03001-4)
- Akhtar, M. W., Shabir, A., Safdar, M. S., & Akhtar, M. S. (2017). Impact of emotional intelligence on turnover intentions: The role of organizational commitment and perceive organizational support. *Journal of Accounting and Marketing*, 6(4).
- doi:10.4172/2168-9601.10000259
- Bagraim, J. J. (2003). The nature and measurement of multiple commitment foci amongst South African knowledge workers. *Management Dynamics: Journal of the Southern African Institute for Management Scientists*, 12(2), 13-23. Retrieved from
- https://www.researchgate.net/publication/281282458_The_nature_and_measurement_of_multiple_commitment_foci_amongst_South_African_knowledge_workers
- Baker, M. (2013). *The relationship between career anchors, organizational commitment, and turnover intention* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of South Africa, South Africa.
- Bartock, A. L. (2013). *Fight or flight, stay or leave: The relationship between emotional intelligence and voluntary turnover* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Phoenix).

- Batt, R., & Colvin, A. (2011). An employment systems approach to turnover: Human resources practices quits, dismissals, and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54(4), 695-717. doi:10.5465/AMJ.2011.64869448
- Ben-Ner, A. T., Ren, T., & Paulson, D. F. (2011). A sectoral comparison of wage levels and wage inequality in human services industries. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector*, 40(4), 608-633. doi: 10.1177/0899764010365012
- Berinsky, A. J., Huber, G. A., & Lenz, G. S. (2012). Evaluating online labor markets for experimental research: Amazon. com's mechanical Turk. *Political Analysis*, 20(3), 351-368. doi: 10.1093/pan/mpr057
- Bernthal, P. R., & Wellins, R. S. (2001). Retaining talent: A benchmarking study. *HR Benchmark Group*, 2(3), 1-28. Retrieved from https://www.ddiworld.com/DDI/media/trend-research/retainingtalentabenchmarkingstudy_fullreport_ddi.pdf?ext=.pdf
- Bhochhibhoya, A., Branscum, P., Taylor, L., & Hafford, C. (2015). Exploring the relationships between physical activity, emotional intelligence, and mental health among college students. *American Journal of Health Studies*, 29(1), 17-57. Retrieved from <https://www.thefreelibrary.com/Exploring+the+relationships+of+physical+activity,+emotional...-a0381835943>
- Bigliardi, B., Petroni, A., & Dormio, A. I. (2005). Organizational socialization, career aspirations and ions among design engineers. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 26(6), 424-441. doi: 10.1108/01437730510617645

- Boyatzis, R. E. (2011). Managerial and leadership competencies: A behavioral approach to emotional, social, and cognitive intelligence. *The journal of business perspective*, 15(2). <https://doi.org/10.1177/097226291101500202>
- Boyatzis, R. E., Rochford, K., & Taylor, S. N. (2015). The role of the positive emotional attractor in vision and shared vision: toward effective leadership, relationships, and engagement. *Frontiers in psychology*, 6, 670. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2015.00670
- Boyatzis, R. E., Goleman, D., & Rhee, K. (2000). Clustering competence in emotional intelligence: Insights from the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI). *Handbook of Emotional Intelligence*, 99(6), 343-362. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. Retrieved from http://www.eiconsortium.org/reprints/clustering_competencies_insights_from_the_eci360.html
- Brackett, M., Rivers, S. E., & Salovey, P. (2011). Emotional Intelligence: Implications for personal, social, academic, and workplace success. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 5(1), 88-103. Retrieved from http://ei.yale.edu/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/pub184_Brackett_Rivers_Salovey_2011_Compass-1.pdf
- Brandon, D. M., Long, J. H., Loraas, T. M., Mueller-Phillips, J., & Vansant, B. (2014). Online instrument delivery and participant recruitment services. Emerging opportunities for behavioral accounting research. *Behavioral Health in Accounting*, 26(1), 1-23. doi: 10:10.2308/briq-50651
- Brickman Bhutta, C. (2012). Not by the book: Facebook as a sampling frame. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 41(1), 57-88. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0049124112440795>

- Brown, W. A., & Yoshioka, C. F. (2003). Mission attachment and satisfaction as factors in employee retention. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership, 14*(1), 5-18.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/nml.18>
- Brunetto, Y., Teo, S. T., Shacklock, K., & Farr-Wharton, R. (2012). Emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, well-being and engagement: explaining organizational commitment and turnover intentions in policing. *Human Resource Management Journal, 22*(4), 428-441. doi: 10.1111/j.1748-8583.2012.00198.x
- Buhrmester, M. D., Kwang, T., & Gosling, S. D. (2011). Amazon's Mechanical Turk: A new source of inexpensive, yet high-quality, data? *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 6*, 3-5. doi: 10.1177/174569161039398
- Buttigieg, S. C., & West, M. A. (2013). Senior management leadership, social support, job design and stressor-to-strain relationships in hospital practice. *Journal of Health Organization and Management, 27*(2), 171-192. doi: 10.1108/14777261311321761
- Byham, W. C. (1970). Assessment centers for spotting future managers. *Harvard Business Review, 48*(4), 150. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.5465/254776>
- Byron, K. (2007). Male and female managers' ability to read emotions: Relationships with supervisors' performance ratings and subordinates' satisfaction ratings. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 80*, 713-733.
<https://doi.org/10.1348/096317907X174349>
- Campbell, J. P., Dunnette, M. D., Lawler III, E. E., & Weich Jr, B. E. (1970). *Managerial behavior and human performance*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

- Campion, M. A. (1991). Meaning and measurement of turnover: Comparison of alternative measures and recommendations for research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*(2), 199. Retrieved from https://krannert.purdue.edu/faculty/campionm/Meaning_Measurement_Turnover.pdf
- Carmeli, A. (2002). A conceptual and practical framework of measuring performance of local authorities in financial terms: analyzing the case of Israel. *Local Government Studies, 28*(1), 21-36. doi: 10.1080/714004135
- Carmeli, A. (2003). The relationship between emotional intelligence and work attitudes, behavior and outcomes. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 18*(8), 788-813. doi: 10.1108/02683940310511881
- Cheng, Y., & Stockdale, M. S. (2003). The validity of the three-component model of organizational commitment in a Chinese context. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 62*(3), 465-489. doi: 10.1016/S0001-8791(02)00063-5
- Chen, G., Ployhart, R. E., Thomas, H. C., Anderson, N., & Bliese, P. D. (2011). The power of momentum: A new model of dynamic relationships between job satisfaction change and turnover intentions. *Academy of Management Journal, 54*(1), 159-181. doi: 10.5465/AMJ.2011.59215089
- Chen, X., Ren T., & Knoke, D. (2014). Do nonprofits treat their employees differently? Incentive pay and health benefits. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 24*(3). doi: 10.1002/nml.21093
- Chermiss, C. (2000). Social and emotional competence in the workplace. *The handbook of emotional intelligence theory, development, assessment, application in the*

home, school and in the workplace. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Chiboiwa, M. W., Samuel, M. O., & Chipunza, C. (2010). An examination of employee retention strategy in a private organization in Zimbabwe. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(10), 2103-2109. Retrieved from https://www.academia.edu/15070275/An_examination_of_employee_retention_strategy_in_a_private_organisation_in_Zimbabwe
- Chopra, P. K., & Kanji, G. K. (2010). Emotional intelligence: A catalyst for inspirational leadership and management excellence. *Total Quality Management*, 21(10), 971-1004. doi: 10.1080/14783363.2010.487704
- Ciarrochi, J., Chan, A. Y., & Bajgar, J. (2001). Measuring emotional intelligence in adolescents. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 31(7), 1105-1119. doi: 10.1016/S0191-8869(00)00207-5
- Clegg, C. W. (1983). Psychology of employee lateness, absence, and turnover: A methodological critique and an empirical study. *Journal of applied Psychology*, 68(1), 88. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.68.1.88>
- Cline, D., Reilly, C., & Moore, J. F. (2004). What's behind RN turnover?: Uncover the “real reason” nurses leave. *Holistic Nursing Practice*, 18(1), 45-48. Retrieved from https://journals.lww.com/hnpjjournal/Abstract/2004/01000/What_s_Behind_RN_Turnover___Uncover_the_Real.9.aspx
- Coffman, C., & Gonzalez-Molina, G. (2002). *Follow this path: How the world's greatest organizations drive growth by unleashing human potential*. New York, NY: Warner.

- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates.
- Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2013). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences* (3rd ed.). Danvers, MA: Routledge.
- Conklin, M. H., & Desselle, S. P. (2007). Job turnover intentions among pharmacy faculty. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, 71(4).
<https://doi.org/10.5688/aj710462>
- Cooper, R. K. & Sawaf, A. (1997). *Executive EQ: Emotional Intelligence in Leadership and Organizations*. New York, NY: Perigee Book.
- Crawford, E. R., LePine, J. A., & Rich, B. L. (2010). Linking job demands and resources to employee engagement and burnout: a theoretical extension and meta-analytic test. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(5), 834-848. Retrieved from <https://asu.pure.elsevier.com/en/publications/linking-job-demands-and-resources-to-employee-engagement-and-burn>
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Cunningham, J., Godinho, A., & Kushnir, V. (2017). Using Mechanical Turk to recruit participants for internet intervention research: experience from recruitment for four trials targeting hazardous alcohol consumption. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, 17(156). doi 10.1186/s12874-017-0440-3,

- Dalton, D. R., Todor, W. D., & Krackhardt, D. M. (1982). Turnover overstated: The Function Taxonomy. *The Academy of Management Review*, 7(1), 117-123.
<https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1982.4285499>
- Datta, D. K., Guthrie, J. P., Basuil, D., & Pandey, A. (2010). Causes and effects of employee downsizing: A review and synthesis. *Journal of Management*, 36(1), 281-348. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206309346735>
- Davies, M., Stankov, L., & Roberts, R. (1998). Emotional intelligence: in search of an elusive construct. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75, 989-1015.
doi:10.1037//0022-3514.75.4.989
- Day, A. L., & Carroll, S. A. (2004). Using an ability-based measure of emotional intelligence to predict individual performance, group performance, and group citizenship behaviors. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36(6), 1443-1458. doi: 10.1016/S0191-8869(03)00240-X.
- Debebe, Y. (2007). Staff turnover in international non-governmental organizations (NGOs): A case study of international rescue committee (IRC), (Master's Thesis). Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia.
- Demir, M. (2011). The analysis of the relationship among emotional intelligence, organizational deviance, quality of work life and turnover intentions in hospitality business. *European Journal of Tourism Research*, 4(2), 214. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/292407584_The_Analysis_of_the_Relationship_among_Emotional_Intelligence_Organizational_Deviance_Quality_of_Work_Life_and_Turnover_Intentions_in_Hospitality_Business

- Deutschendorf, H. (2009). *The other kind of smart: Simple ways to boost your emotional intelligence for greater personal effectiveness and success*. New York: NY: American Management Association.
- Digman, J. M. (1990). Personality structure: Emergence of the five-factor model. *Annual Review of Psychology, 41*(1), 417-440. Retrieved from <https://www.annualreviews.org/doi/abs/10.1146/annurev.ps.41.020190.002221>
- Dimitriadis, Z. S. (2007). Managing emotionally intelligent service workers: Personal and positional effects in the Greek context. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 31*(3), 223-240. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/03090590710739296>
- Dong, Y., Seo, M. G., & Bartol, K. M. (2014). No pain, no gain: An affect-based model of developmental job experience and the buffering effects of emotional intelligence. *Academy of Management Journal, 57*(4), 1056-1077. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.0687>
- Dunham, R. B., Grube, J. A., & Castaneda, M. B. (1994). Organizational commitment: The utility of an integrative definition. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79*(3), 370. Retrieved from, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.79.3.370>
- Dychtwald, K., Erickson, T. J., & Morison, R. (2006). *Workforce crisis: How to beat the coming shortage of skills and talent*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Business Press.
- Edgington, R., & Grady, B. (2008). Organizational culture: Preferences and realities. *Global Journal of Educational Administration, 44*(1), 36-42. Retrieved from <https://ideas.repec.org/a/ibf/gjbres/v2y2008i2p31-47.html>
- El Badawy, T. A., & Magdy, M. M. (2015). Assessing the impact of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction: An empirical study on faculty members with

respect to gender and age. *International Business Research*, 8, 67-78. doi:

10.5539/ibr.v8n3p67

Extremera, N., & Fernández-Berrocal, P. (2006). Emotional intelligence as predictor of mental, social, and physical health in university students. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, 9(1), 45-51. Retrieved from https://www.academia.edu/1345275/Extremera_N._y_Fernández-Berrocal_P._2006_.Emotional_Intelligence_as_predictor_of_the_mental_social_and_physical_health_in_university_students._Spanish_Journal_of_Psychology_9_45-51

F&A Poverty. (2015). With sector growth, nonprofits likely to face staffing challenges. *Nonprofit Business Advisor*, 2015(308), 1-3. doi: 10.1002/nba.30065

Felps, W., Mitchell, T. R., Hekman, D. R., Lee, T. W., Holtom, B. C., & Harman, W. S. (2009). Turnover contagion: How coworkers' job embeddedness and job search behaviors influence quitting. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(3), 545-561.

Field, A. (2002). *Discovering statistics using SPSS for Windows*. London: Sage.

Firth, L., Mellor, D. J., Moore, K. A., & Loquet, C. (2004). How can managers reduce employee intention to quit?. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 19(2), 170-187. Retrieved from, https://www.academia.edu/11691465/How_can_managers_reduce_employee_intention_to_quit

Fitzgerald, S. M., Rumrill Jr, P. D., & Schenker, J. D. (2004). Correlational designs in rehabilitation research. *Journal of Vocational Rehabilitation*, 20(2), 143-150.

Retrieved from <https://www.deepdive.com/lp/ios-press/correlational-designs-in-rehabilitation-research-9QhR1JXJU>

Frank, F. D., Finnegan, R. P., & Taylor, C. R. (2004). The race for talent: Retaining and engaging workers in the 21st century. *People and Strategy*, 27(3), 12. Retrieved from, <http://connection.ebscohost.com/c/articles/14659775/race-talent-retaining-engaging-workers-21st-century>

Fu, F. Q., Bolander, W., & Jones, E. (2009). Managing the drivers of organizational commitment and salesperson effort: An application of Meyer and Allen's three-component model. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 17(4), 335-350. doi: 10.2653/MTP1069-6679170403

Gardner, T. M., Stansbury, J., & Hart, D. (2010). The ethics of lateral hiring. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 20(3), 341-369. : <https://doi.org/10.5840/beq201020326>

Gardenswartz, L., Cherbosque, J., & Rowe, A. (2010). *Emotional intelligence for managing results in a diverse world: The hard truth about soft skills in the workplace*. Hachette UK.

Gilboa, S., Shirom, A., Fried, Y., & Cooper, C. (2008). A meta-analysis of work demand stressors and job performance: examining main and moderating effects. *Personnel Psychology*, 61(2), 227-271. doi: 10.1111/j.1744-6570.2008.00113.x

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York, NY: Bantam Books.

Goleman, D. (2000). An EI-based theory of performance, in D. Goleman, & C. Cherniss (eds.). *The emotionally intelligent workplace: How to select for, measure, and improve emotional intelligence in individuals, groups, and organizations*. San

Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. E., & McKee, A. (2004). *Primal leadership: Realizing the Power of Emotional intelligence*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Publishing.
- Goulet, L. R., & Frank, M. L. (2002). Organizational commitment across three sectors: Public, non-profit, and for-profit. *Public Personnel Management, 31*(2), 201-210. <https://doi.org/10.1177/009102600203100206>
- Grandey, A. A. (2003). When “the show must go on”: Surface acting and deep acting as determinants of emotional exhaustion and peer-rated service delivery. *Academy of Management Journal, 46*(1), 86-96. Retrieved from <http://php.scripts.psu.edu/users/a/a/aag6/alicia%20amj.pdf>
- Grant, A. M., & Cavanagh, M. J. (2007). The goal-focused coaching skills questionnaire: Preliminary findings. *Social behavior and personality: an international journal, 35*(6), 751-760. doi: 10.2224/sbp.2007.35.6.751
- Greenidge, D., Dwayne, D., & Alleyne, P. (2014). The relationship between ability-based emotional intelligence and contextual performance and counterproductive work behaviors: A test of the mediating effects of job satisfaction. *Human Performance, 27*(3). doi: 10.1080/08959285.2014.913591
- Greguras, G. J., & Diefendorff, J. M. (2009). Different fits satisfy different needs: linking person-environment fit to employee commitment and performance using self-determination theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(2), 465. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0014068>
- Griffeth, R., Hom, P., & Gaertner, K. (2000). A meta-analysis of antecedents and

- correlates of employee turnover: update, moderator tests, and research implications for the next millennium. *Journal of Management*, 26(3), 463-488. doi: 10.1177/014920630002600305
- Hall, R. E. (2005). Employment efficiency and sticky wages: Evidence from flows in the labor market. *The review of Economics and Statistics*, 87(3), 397-407. doi: 10.3386/w11183
- Hamann, D. J., & Foster, N. T. (2014). An exploration of job demands, job control, stress, and attitudes in public, nonprofit, and for-profit employees. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 34(4), 332-355. doi: 10.1177/0734371X13491119
- Hancock, J., Allen, D., Bosco, F., McDaniel, K., & Pierce, C. (2011). A meta-analytic review of employee turnover as a predictor of firm performance. *Journal of Management*, 39(3), 573-603. doi: 10.1177/0149206311424943
- Hausknecht, J. P., & Trevor, C. O. (2011). Collective turnover at the group, unit, and organizational levels: Evidence, issues, and implications. *Journal of Management*, 37(1), 352-388. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310383910>
- Heavey, A. L., Holwerda, J. A., & Hausknecht, J. P. (2013). Causes and consequences of collective turnover: a meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98, 412-453. Retrieved from <http://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=2185&context=articles>
- Heckert, T., & Farabee, A. (2006). Turnover intention of the faculty at a teaching focused university. *Psychological Reports*, 99(1), 39-45. doi: 10.2466/pr0.99.1.39-45

- Heppner, P. P., & Heppner, M. J. (2004). *Writing and publishing your thesis, dissertation, and research: A guide for students in the helping professions*. Pacific Grove, CA: Thomson/Brooks/Cole.
- Herman, J., Deal, J., Lopez, J., Gentry, W., Shively, S., & Ruderman, M. (2011). Motivated by the organizations mission or their career: Implications for leaders during turbulent times. *Center for Creative Leadership*. Retrieved from www.ccl.org.
- Herrbach, O., Mignimac, K., & Gatignon, A. L. (2004). 'Exploring the role of perceived external prestige in managers' turnover intentions.' *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15, 1390-1407. doi: 10.1080/0958519042000257995
- Herscovitch, L., & Meyer, J.P., & Stanley, D.J., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance, and Normative Commitment to the organization. A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 62, 20-52. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2001.1842>
- Hess, J. D., & Bacigalupo, A. C. (2011). Enhancing decisions and decision-making processes through the application of emotional intelligence skills. *Management Decision*, 49(5), 710-721. doi: 10.1108/00251741111130805
- Hess, J. D., & Bacigalupo, A. C. (2013). Applying emotional intelligence skills to leadership and decision making in nonprofit organizations. *Admin Science*, 3(4), 202-220. doi: 10.3390/admsci3040202
- Holt, S., & Jones, S. (2005). Emotional intelligence and organizational performance: Implications for performance consultants and educators. *Performance*

Improvement, 44(10), 15-21. doi: 10.1002/pfi.4140441005

- Holtom, B., Mitchell, T., Lee, T., & Eberly, M. B. (2008). Turnover and retention research: A glance at the past, a closer review of the present, and a venture into the future. *The Academy of Management Awards*, 2(1). doi: 10.1080/19416520802211552
- Holtom, B., Mitchell, T., Lee, T., & Inderrieden, E. (2005). Shocks as causes of turnover: what they are and how organizations can manage them. *Human Resource Management*, 44, 337-352. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20074>
- Hom, P., Caranikas-Walker, F., Prussia, G., & Griffeth, R. (1992). A meta-analytical structural equations analysis of a model of employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77(6), 890. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.77.6.890
- Hosseinian, S., Yazdi, S. M., Zahraie, S., & Fathi-Ashtiani, A. (2008). Emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Sciences*, 8, 903-906. doi: 10.3923/jas.2008.903.906
- Huang, H., & Karthikeyan, U. (2015). A Preliminary Study of Information Technologies Usage in Non-Profit Organizations. Retrieved from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/8d60/a2b6b690705edf046d716f6ad79741bde0d6.pdf>
- Jamrog, J. (2004). The perfect storm: The future of retention and engagement. *People*
- Jang, J., & George, R. T. (2012). Understanding the influence of polychronicity on job satisfaction and turnover intention: A study of non-supervisory hotel employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(2), 588-595. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2011.08.004>

- Jaros, S. (2007). Meyer and Allen model of organizational commitment: Measurement issues. *The Icfai Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 6(4), 7-25. Retrieved from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/7546/2d9094b420466ad68c404527c7b6cb38d040.pdf>
- Jeswani, S., & Dave, S. (2012). Impact of Individual Personality on Turnover Intention A Study on Faculty Members. *Management and Labour Studies*, 37(3), 253-265. doi: 10.1177/0258042X13484837
- Jha, S. (2014). Determinants of employee turnover intentions: A review. *Management Today*, 9(2), 26-33. Retrieved from, <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2442689>
- Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2008). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Joo, B., & Park, S. (2010). Career satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention: The effects of goal orientation, organizational learning culture and development feedback. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 31(6), 482-500. doi: 10.1108/01437731011069999
- Jordan, P., Ashkenazi, N., Jurtle, C., & Hooper, G. (2002). Workgroup emotional intelligence scale development and relationship to team process productivity and goal focus. *Human Resource Management*, 12(2), 195-214. doi: 10.5465/AMR.2002.7389905
- Jordan, P. J., & Troth, A. (2011). Emotional intelligence and leader member exchange: The relationship with employee turnover intentions and job satisfaction. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 32(3), 260-280. doi: 10.1108/01437731111123915

- Kalleberg, A. L., Marsden, P. V., Reynolds, J., & Knoke, D. (2006). Beyond profit? Sectoral differences in high-performance work practices. *Work and Occupations, 33*(3), 271-302. doi: 10.1177/0730888406290049
- Kaplan, R. (2003). Strategic performance measurement and management in nonprofit organizations. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership, 11*(3), 353-370.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/nml.11308>
- Khalili, A. (2012). The role of emotional intelligence in the workplace: a literature review. *International Journal of Management, 29*(3), 355-370. Retrieved from www.researchbank.rmit.edu.au
- Kim, H., & Lee, S. Y. (2009). Supervisory communication, burnout, and turnover intention among social workers in health care settings. *Social work in health care, 48*(4), 364-385. doi:10.1080/00981380802598499
- Konrath, S., Corneille, O., Bushman, B. J., & Luminet, O. (2014). The relationship between narcissistic exploitativeness, dispositional empathy, and emotion recognition abilities. *Journal of Nonverbal Behavior, 38*(1), 129-143. doi: 10.1007/s10919-013-0164-y, 2014
- Kooker, B. M., Shoultz, J., & Codier, E. E. (2007). Identifying emotional intelligence in professional nursing practice. *Journal of Professional Nursing, 23*(1), 30-36.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.profnurs.2006.12.004>
- Krishnaveni, R., & Deepa, R. (2011). Diagnosing employees' emotional intelligence in the IT/ITES sector of South India. *Great Lakes Herald, 5*(2). Retrieved from https://www.greatlakes.edu.in/pdf/Herald/Vol5/Chapter_1.pdf

- Lambert, E., & Hogan, N. (2009). The importance of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in shaping turnover intent: A test of a causal model. *Criminal Justice Review*, 34(1), 96-118. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734016808324230>
- Lambert, E. G., Hogan, N. L., & Barton, S. M. (2001). The impact of job satisfaction on turnover intent: a test of a structural measurement model using a national sample of workers. *The Social Science Journal*, 38(2), 233-250.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0362-3319\(01\)00110-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0362-3319(01)00110-0)
- Landers, R. N., & Behrend, T. S. (2015). An inconvenient truth: Arbitrary distinctions between organizational, Mechanical Turk, and other convenience samples. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 8(2), 142-164. doi:
<https://doi.org/10.1017/iop.2015.13>
- Lane, A., Meyer, B., Devonport, T., Davies, K., Thelwell, R., Gill, G., ... & Weston, N. (2009). Validity of the Emotional Intelligence Scale for use in sports. *Journal of Sports Science and Medicine*, 8(2), 289-295. Retrieved from
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3761491/>
- Larson, S., & Hewitt, A. (2005). Staff recruitment, retention, and training strategies for community human services organizations. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes Publishing, Co.
- 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*, 89(3), 483-496. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.89.3.483
- Ledford, H. (2014). Keeping the lights on. Retrieved from <http://sra-catalyst.srainternational.org/uploads/File/Nature%20-%20IDC.pdf>

- Lee, T., & Mitchell, T. (1994). An alternative approach: The unfolding model of employee turnover. *Academy of Management Review*, *19*, 51-89. doi: 10.5465/AMR.1994.9410122008
- Lee, T., Mitchell, T., Sablinski, C., Burton, J., & Holtom, B. (2004). The effects of job embeddedness on organizational citizenship, job performance, volitional absences, and voluntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, *47*, 711-722. doi: 10.2307/20159613
- Lee, T., Mitchell, T., Wise, L., & Fireman, S. (1996). An unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, *39*(1), 5-36. doi: 10.2307/256629
- Lee, T. W., & Mowday, R. T. (1987). Voluntarily leaving an organization: An empirical investigation of Steers and Mowday's model of turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, *30*(4), 72. <https://doi.org/10.5465/256157>
- Leedy, P. D., & Ormrod, J. E. (2010). *Practical research: Planning and design*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Lewinski, P. (2012). Gathering data online: Cutting cost & time. Paper presented at the meeting of 2011-2012 Junior Researcher Programme. Selwyn College, Cambridge. Retrieved from <https://blog.efpsa.org/2013/08/30/crowdsourcing-gathering-data-online-cutting-cost-time/>
- Light, P.C. (2003). *The health of the human services workforce*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.

- Lin, K. M., Chen, N. S., & Fang, K. (2011). Understanding e-learning continuance intention: a negative critical incidents perspective. *Behavior & Information Technology, 30*(1), 77-89. doi: 10.1080/01449291003752948
- Limpanitgul, T., Boonchoo, P., & Photiyarach, S. (2014). Coworker support and organizational commitment: A comparative study of Thai employees working in Thai and American airlines. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 21*, 100-107. doi: 10.1016/j.jhtm.2014.08.002
- Lomax, R., & Li, J. (2013). Correlational research. Retrieved from <http://www.education.com/reference/article/correlational-research/#D>
- Long, C. S., & Thean, L. Y. (2011). Relationship between leadership style, job satisfaction and employees' turnover intention: A literature review. *Research Journal of Business Management, 5*(3), 91-100. doi: 10.3923/rjbm.2011.91.100
- Long, C. S., Thean, L. Y., Ismail, W. K. W., & Jusoh, A. (2012). Leadership styles and employees' turnover intention: Exploratory study of academic staff in a Malaysian College. *World Applied Sciences Journal, 19*(4), 575-581. doi: 10.5829/idosi.wasj.2012.19.04.155
- Lopes, P. N., Grewal, D., Kadis, J., Gall, M., & Salovey, P. (2006). Evidence that emotional intelligence is related to job performance and affect and attitudes at work. *Psicothema, 18*, 132-138. Retrieved from, http://ei.yale.edu/wp-content/uploads/2013/12/pub274_lopes-cote-grewal-kadis-gall-salovey.pdf
- Lovett, S., & Otero, R. (2012). On the importance of confidence in management in uncertain times. *Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship, 17*(2), 80-96. Retrieved from

<https://search.proquest.com/openview/ad3300692f723ca1a7fdf180f0d6980a/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=25565>

Lowrey, A. (2017). The great recession is still with us. Retrieved from, www.theatlantic.com.

Luchak, A., & Gellatly, I. (2007). A comparison of linear and nonlinear relations between organizational commitment and work outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(3), 786-793. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.92.3.786

Luu, L., & Hattruo, K. (2010). An investigation of country differences in the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. *Applied HRM Research*, 12(1), 17-39. doi: 10.1177/1470595813501477

MacCann, C. (2010). Further examination of emotional intelligence as a standard intelligence: A latent variable analysis of fluid intelligence, crystallized intelligence, and emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 49(5), 490-496. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2010.05.010

Maertz, C. P., & Campion, M. A. (2004). Profiles in quitting: Integrating process and content turnover theory. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(4), 566-582.

Retrieved from

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/211390557_Profiles_in_quitting_Integrating_process_and_content_turnover_theory

Martins, A., Ramalho, N., & Morin, E. (2010). A comprehensive meta-analysis of the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and health. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 49(6), 555-564. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2010.05.029

- May, D., Gilson, R., & Harter, L. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 77, 11-37.
<https://doi.org/10.1348/096317904322915892>
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (1997). Emotional IQ test (CD ROM).
Needham, MA: Virtual Knowledge.
- Mayer, J.D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (2000). Selecting a measure of emotional intelligence: The case for ability testing. In R. Bar-On & J. D. A. Parker (Eds.). *Handbook of emotional intelligence* (pp. 320-342). New York: Jossey-Bass.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2004). Target articles: Emotional Intelligence: theory, findings, and implications. *Psychological Inquiry*, 15(3), 197-215. Retrieved from http://ei.yale.edu/wp-content/uploads/2013/12/pub56_MayerSalovey2004_EITheoryFindingsImplications.pdf
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D. R., & Sitarenios, G. (2001). Emotional intelligence as a standard intelligence. *American Psychological Association*, 1(3), 232-242.
doi: 10.1037//1528-3542.1.3232
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1984). Testing the “side-bet theory” of organizational commitment: Some methodological considerations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69(3), 372-378. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/John_Meyer16/publication/211391116_Testing_the_side-

bet_theory_of_organizational_commitment_Some_methodological_consideration
s/links/544189b50cf2a76a3cc7fd44.pdf

- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review, 1*(1), 61-89. [https://doi.org/10.1016/1053-4822\(91\)90011-Z](https://doi.org/10.1016/1053-4822(91)90011-Z)
- 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. (2004). TCM employee commitment survey academic users guide 2004. *London, Ontario, Canada: The University of Western Ontario, Department of Psychology*.
- 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, 75*, 710-720. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2001.1842>
- Meyer, J. P., Allen, J. P., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: *Psychology, 78*(4), 538-551. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.78.4.538
- Meyer, J. P., & Herscovitch, L. (2001). Commitment in the workplace: Toward a general model. *General Resource Management, 11*(3), 299-326. doi: 10.1016/S1053-4822(00)00053-X
- 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, 61*(1), 20-52. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2001.1842>

- Miao, C., Humphrey, R. H., & Qian, S. (2017). A meta-analysis of emotional intelligence and work attitudes. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 90*, 177-202. doi: 10.1111/joop.12167
- Michaels, C. E., & Spector, P. E. (1982). Causes of employee turnover: A test of the Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, and Meglino model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 67*(1), 53. Retrieved from https://www.academia.edu/28357419/Causes_of_Employee_Turnover_A_Test_of_the_Mobley_Griffeth_Hand_and_Meglino_Model
- Mitchell, O., Mackenzie, D. L., Styve, G. J., & Gover, A. R. (2000). The impact of individual, organizational, and environmental attributes on voluntary turnover among juvenile correctional staff members. *Justice Quarterly, 17*(2), 333-357. doi: 10.1080/07418820000096351
- Mitchell, T. R., & Lee, T. W. (2001). The unfolding model of voluntary turnover and job embeddedness: Foundations for a comprehensive theory of attachment. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 23*, 189-246. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-3085\(01\)23006-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-3085(01)23006-8)
- Mobley, W. H. (1977). Intermediate linkages in the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 62*(2), 237. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.62.2.237>
- Mobley, W. H., Griffeth, R. W., Hand, H. H., & Meglino, B. M. (1979). Review and conceptual analysis of the employee turnover process. *Psychological Bulletin, 86*, 493-522. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.86.3.493

- Mobley, W. H., Horner, S. O., & Hollingsworth, A. T. (1978). An evaluation of precursors of hospital employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 63*(4), 408-412. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.63.4.408>
- Moeller, C., & Kwantes, C. T. (2015). Too Much of a Good Thing? Emotional intelligence and interpersonal conflict behaviors. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 155*(4), 314-324. doi: 10.1080/00224545.2015.1007029
- Mohammad, F. N., Chai, L. T., Aun, L. K., & Migin, M. W. (2014). Emotional intelligence and turnover intention. *International Journal of Academic Research, 6*(4), 211-220. (Accession No. 97579315)
- Moon, T. W., & Hur, W. M. (2011). Emotional intelligence, emotional exhaustion, and job performance. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal, 39*(8), 1087-1096. <https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2011.39.8.1087>
- Morrell, K., Loan-Clarke, J., & Wilkinson, A. (2001). Unweaving leaving: the use of models in the management of employee turnover. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 3*(3), 219-244. Retrieved from <https://ssrn.com/abstract=1976596>
- Morrison, R. (2004). Informal relationships in the workplace: Associations with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology, 33*(3), 114-128. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/279768743_Informal_relationships_in_the_workplace_Associations_with_job_satisfaction_organisational_commitment_and_turnover_intentions/citation/download

- Mousavi, S. H., Yarmohammadi, S., Nosrat, A. B., & Tarasi, Z. (2012). The relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction of physical education teachers. *Annals of Biological Research*, 3(2), 780-788. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/322976907>
- Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14(2), 224-247. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791\(79\)90072-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791(79)90072-1)
- Murphy, A. (2006). *A comparison of the emotional intelligence and thinking styles of students in different university study fields*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of South Africa, South Africa.
- Myers, L., & Tucker, M. (2004). Increasing awareness of emotional intelligence in business curriculum. *Business Communications Quarterly*, 68(1), 44-52
- Naghma, N., & Muijtjens, A. (2015). Validity and reliability of bilingual English-Arabic version of Schutte self-report emotional intelligence scale in an undergraduate Arab medical student sample. *Medical Teacher*, 37(1). doi: 10.3109/0142159X.2015.1006605
- National Center for Charitable Statistics. (2014). General nonprofit information. *Urban Institute*. Retrieved from <http://nccs.urban.org/faq/>
- Nikolaou, I., & Tsaousis, I. (2002). Emotional intelligence in the workplace: Exploring its effects on occupational stress and organizational commitment. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 10(4), 327-342. doi: 10.1108/eb028956
- Ngirande, H., & Timothy, H. T. (2014). The relationship between leader emotional

intelligence and employee job satisfaction. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(6), 35-40. doi: 10.5901/mjss.2014.v5n6p35

Nonprofit HR Solutions. (2013). Nonprofit employment trends survey. Retrieved from <http://www.nonprofithr.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/03/2013-Employment-Trends-Survey-Report.pdf>

Nonprofit HR Solutions. (2014). Nonprofit employment trends survey. Retrieved from <http://www.nonprofithr.com/nonprofit-employment-practices-survey/>

Northouse, P. G. (2015). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

O'Brien, D., & Scott, S. (2012). *Correlation and regression*, in approaches to quantitative research. A guide for dissertation students. ED, Chen, H, Oak Tree Press.

O'Connell, M., & Kung, M. C. (2007). The cost of employee turnover. *Industrial Management*, 49(1), 14-19. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/211392097_The_Cost_of_Employee_Turnover

Oluwafemi, O. (2013). Predictors of turnover intention among employers in Nigeria's oil industry. *Organizations and Markets in Emerging Economies*, 4(2), 42-63. Retrieved from http://www.om.evaf.vu.lt/cms/cache/RePEc_files/article_48.pdf

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*, 71(3), 492. Retrieved from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/1eef/c51ff886acd6f2c317f8f25a3f42fe984ddb.pdf>

- Oster, S. M. (1998). Executive compensation in the nonprofit sector. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 8(3), 207-221. doi: 10.1002/nml.8301
- Palmer, B. R. (2003). *An analysis of the relationships between various models and measures of emotional intelligence* (Doctoral Dissertation), Swinburne University of Technology, School of Biophysical Sciences and Electrical Engineering, Centre for Neuropsychology).
- Park, T., & Shaw, J. (2013). Turnover rates and organizational performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(2), 268. doi: 10.1037/a0030723
- Parker, N. (2012). Emotional intelligence in the workplace. 1-32. Retrieved from <http://snl.depaul.edu/writing/parkerappaper2012.pdf>
- Pegram, N. (2015). Emotional Intelligence and the Prevention of Ministry Burnout. *Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Tabor College, Adelaide.*
- Peters, J., Fernandopulle, A., Masaoka, J., Chan, C., & Wolfred, T. (2002). Help Wanted: Turnover and Vacancy in Nonprofits: A San Francisco Bay Area. *Silicon Valley Study.*
- Peterson, J. (2013). *Compassion, fatigue, and emotional intelligence in physicians.* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest. (Accession No. 3565245)
- Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2000). On the dimensional structure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 29(2), 313-320. doi: 10.1016/S0191-8869(99)00195-6
- Pitt, M., Leyland, F., Foreman, S. K., & Bromfield, D. (1995). Organisational commitment and service delivery: evidence from an industrial setting in the UK.

International Journal of Human Resource Management, 6(1), 369-389.

doi.10.1080/09585199500000024

Powell, D. M., & Meyer, J. P. (2004). Side-bet theory and the three-component model of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65(1), 157-177.

doi.10.1016/S0001-8791(03)00050-2

Privitera, G. J. (2013). *Student Study Guide with IBM SPSS Workbook for Research Methods for the Behavioral Sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Purdy, E., Macintosh, N., Miguel, M., & Mitchell, T. (2014). What management qualities affect nurse turnover on an inpatient unit?. Retrieved from [http://digitalcommons](http://digitalcommons.northgeorgia.edu/ngresearchconf/2014/Nursing/8/)

.northgeorgia.edu/ngresearchconf/2014/Nursing/8/

Ravichandran, K., Arasu, R., & Kumar, A. (2011). The impact of emotional intelligence on employee work engagement behavior: An empirical study. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 6(11), 157-169. doi: 10.5539

/ijbm.v6n11p157

Rigas, P. P. (2009). A model of turnover intention among technically-oriented information systems professionals. *Information Resources Management Journal (IRMJ)*, 22(1), 1-23. doi: 10.4018/irmj.2009010101

Roback, P. J., & Askins, R. A. (2005). Judicious use of multiple hypothesis tests.

Surviving your dissertation: Conservation Biology, 19(1), 261-267.

doi:10.1111/j.523-1739.2005.00269.x

Rudestam, K. E., & Newton, R. R. (2007). The method chapter: Describing your research plan. *Surviving your dissertation: A comprehensive guide to content and process*,

87-117. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications

- Ruhm, C.J., & Borkowski, C. (2003). Compensation in the nonprofit sector. *Journal of Human Resources*, 38(4), 992-1021. doi:10.3368/jhr.XXXVIII.4.992
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1), 54-67. doi:10.1006/ceps.1999.1020,
- Salamon, L. M. (2002). *The state of nonprofit America*. Washington DC: Brookings.
- Salkind, N. (2010). Restriction of range. *Encyclopedia of Research Design*. <https://dx.doi.org/104135/9781412961288.n388>
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, cognition and personality*, 9(3), 185-211. doi:10.2190/DUGG-P24E-52WK-6CDG
- Salovey, P., Mayer, J., Goldman, S., Turvey, C., & Palfai, T. (1995). Emotional attention, clarity, and repair: Exploring emotional intelligence using the trait meta-mood scale. *Emotional Disclosure and Health*, 125-154. Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.
- Samanvitha, S., & Jawahar, P. D. (2012). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of job satisfaction: A study amongst faculty in India. *IUP Journal of Management Research*, 11(1), 7. doi: 10.13140/2.1.5153.5044
- Schmidt, W. C. (1997). World-Wide Web survey research: Benefits, potential problems, and solutions. *Behavioral Research Methods: Instruments and Computers*, 29, 274-279. doi: 10.3758/BF03204826
- Schutte, N. S., & Loi, N. M. (2014). Connections between emotional intelligence and workplace flourishing. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 66, 134-139. doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2014.03.031

- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, J. T., Golden, C. J., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 25(2), 167-177. doi: 10.1016/S0191-8869(98)00001-4
- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Simunek, M., Hollander, S., & McKenley, J. (2002). Characteristic emotional intelligence and emotional well-being. *Cognition and Emotion*, 16(6), 769-786. doi: 10.1080/02699930143000482
- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Thorsteinsson, E. B., Bhullar, N., & Rooke, S. E. (2007). A meta-analytic investigation of the relationship between emotional intelligence and health. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 42(6), 921-933. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2006.09.003
- Shadish, W. R., Cook, T. D., & Campbell, D. T. (2002). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for generalized causal inference*. Houghton, Mifflin and Company. Retrieved from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/9453/f229a8f51f6a95232e42acfae9b3ae5345df.pdf>
- Singh, K. (2010). Developing human capital by linking emotional intelligence with personal competencies in Indian business organizations. *International Journal of Business Science & Applied Management*, 5(2), 29-42. Retrieved from <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2136095>
- Soper, D. S. (2015). A-priori Sample Size Calculator for Student t-Tests [Software]. Retrieved from <http://www.danielsoper.com/statcalc>

- Speckbacher, G. (2003). The economics of performance management in nonprofit organizations. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership, 13*(3), 267-281.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/nml.15>
- Steel, R., & Ovalle, N. (1984). A review and meta-analysis of research on the relationship between behavioral intentions and employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 69*(4), 673-686. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.69.4.673
- Steers, R. M., & Mowday, R. T. (1981). Employee turnover and post-decision accommodation processes. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior (Vol. 3)*. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Stevens, J.P. (2002). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences* (4th ed). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Stewart, R., Volpone, S., Avery, D., & McKay, P. (2011). You support diversity, but are you ethical? Examining the interactive effects of diversity and ethical climate perceptions on turnover intentions. *Journal of Business Ethics, 100*(4), 581-593. doi: 10.237/41475862
- Strohm, C. Q., Seltzer, J. A., Cochran, S. D., & Mays, V. M. (2009). "Living apart together" relationships in the United States. *Demographic research, 21*, 177.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/fare.12203>
- Sturman, M. C., Trevor, C. O., Boudreau, J. W., & Gerhart, B. (2003). Is it worth it to win the talent war? Evaluating the utility of performance-based pay. *Personnel Psychology, 56*(4), 997-1035. Retrieved from Cornell University, School of Hospitality Administration site: <http://scholarship.sha.cornell.edu/articles/352>

- Stys, Y., & Brown, S. L. (2004). A review of the emotional intelligence literature and implications for corrections. *Research branch correctional service of Canada, 10*.
- Survey Monkey. (2014). Everything you wanted to know, but were afraid to ask. Retrieved from <http://www.surveymonkey.com/mpaboutus>
- Sy, T., Tram, S., & O'Hara, L. A. (2006). Relation of employee and manager emotional intelligence to job satisfaction and performance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 68*(3), 461-473. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2005.10.003>
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (1996). *Using multivariate statistics*. New York: Harper Collins College Publishers.
- Tabachnick, B. B., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics*. (5th ed.). New York: Allyn and Bacon.
- Tekingündüz, S., Top, M., Tengilimoğlu, D., and Karabulut, E. (2017). Effect of organisational trust, job satisfaction, individual variables on the organisational commitment in healthcare service. *Tot. Qual. Manag. Bus. Excell. 28*, 522–541. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14783363.2015.1099428>
- Thorndike, R. L., & Stein, S. (1937). An evaluation of the attempts to measure social intelligence. *Psychological Bulletin, 34*(5), 265. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0053850>
- Tippet, J., & Kluvers, R. (2009). Employee rewards and motivation in nonprofit organizations: Case study from Australia. *International Journal of Business and Management, 4*(3), 7. doi:10.5539/ijbm.v4n3p7
- Trivellas, P., Gerogiannis, V., & Svarna, S. (2013). Exploring workplace implications of emotional intelligence (WLEIS) in hospitals: Job satisfaction and turnover

- intentions. Selection and/or peer-review under responsibility of The 2nd International Conference on Integrated Information. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 73, 701-709. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.02.108
- Van Breukelen, W., Van der Vlist, R., & Steensma, H. (2004). Voluntary employee turnover: Combining variables from the 'traditional' turnover literature with the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(7), 893-914. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.281>
- Webb, S. (2004). *Exploring the relationship of emotional intelligence to transformational leadership within mentoring relationships*. Unpublished master's thesis, University of South Florida, Tampa, Florida. Retrieved from <http://scholarcommons.usf.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=2294&context=etd>
- Wells, J. E., & Welty Peachey, J. (2011). Turnover intentions: do leadership behaviors and satisfaction with the leader matter?. *Team Performance Management: An International Journal*, 17(1/2), 23-40. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13527591111114693>
- Wright, B. E. (2007). Public service and motivation: does mission matter? *Public Administration Review*, 67(1), 54-64. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2006.00696.x>
- Yin-Fah, B. C., Foon, Y. S., Chee-Long, L., & Osman, S. (2010). An exploratory study of turnover intentions among private sector employees. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(8), 57-64. doi:10.5539/ijbm.v5n8p57

Young, B. S., Worchel, S., & Woehr, D. J. (1998). Organizational commitment among public service employees. *Public Personnel Management*, 27(3), 339-348.

doi.10.1177/009102609802700304

Yucel, I. (2012). Examining relationships among job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention: An empirical study. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 7, 44-58. doi: 10.5539/ijbm.v7n20p44

doi: 10.5539/ijbm.v7n20p44

Zeidner, M., Roberts, R. D., & Matthews, G. (2002). Can emotional intelligence be schooled? A critical review. *Educational Psychologist*, 37(4), 215-231. doi:

10.1207/S15326985EP3704_2

Appendix A: Invitation to Participate in Research

I am a doctoral student at Walden University, studying Industrial and Organizational Psychology. I am interested in obtaining your feedback about what employment industry you work in, if you intend to stay or leave, and questions about your emotional intelligence by answering questions in a survey. There are two eligibility questions to answer. If you are eligible to participate based on your responses to the eligibility questions the survey will continue. You will be asked to electronically sign an informed consent. Then you will be asked to answer 54 short questions in all. The survey will take you approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. Your participation in this survey is anonymous and voluntary. You may stop the survey at any point in time.

The purpose of this study is to understand more about employees' emotional intelligence and intent to leave his/her current job. The potential benefit associated with this research is to help organizational leaders understand the potential importance of developing employee emotional intelligence in order to decrease the intent to leave. There is no harm anticipated with participating in this study.

I hope you will consider participating in this survey to help better the nonprofit workplace. If you have any questions, please don't hesitate to email me.

Thank you for your consideration.

Appendix B: Informed Consent

The purpose of this research project is to investigate the relationship between employee emotional intelligence and intent to leave in nonprofit organizations. This is a research project being conducted by a doctoral student of Walden University. You are invited to participate in this research project because you are an employee of a nonprofit organization.

Your participation in this research study is voluntary. You may choose not to participate. If you decide to participate in this research survey, you may withdraw at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you withdraw from participating at any time, you will not be penalized in any way.

The procedure involves filling an online survey that will take approximately 10-15 minutes. Your responses will be confidential, and we do not collect identifying information such as your name, email address or IP address. The survey questions will be about your intention of leaving your current position and your emotional intelligence level.

All your answers are kept confidential. All data is stored in a password protected electronic format. To help protect your confidentiality, the surveys will not contain information that will personally identify you. The results of this study will be used for scholarly purposes only and may be shared with Walden University.

If you have any questions about the research study, please contact the student. This research has been reviewed according to the Walden University IRB procedures for research involving human subjects.

ELECTRONIC CONSENT: Please select your choice below.

Clicking on the "agree" button below indicates that:

- you have read the above information
- you voluntarily agree to participate
- you are at least 18 years of age

If you do not wish to participate in the research study, please decline participation by clicking on the "disagree" button.

Figures

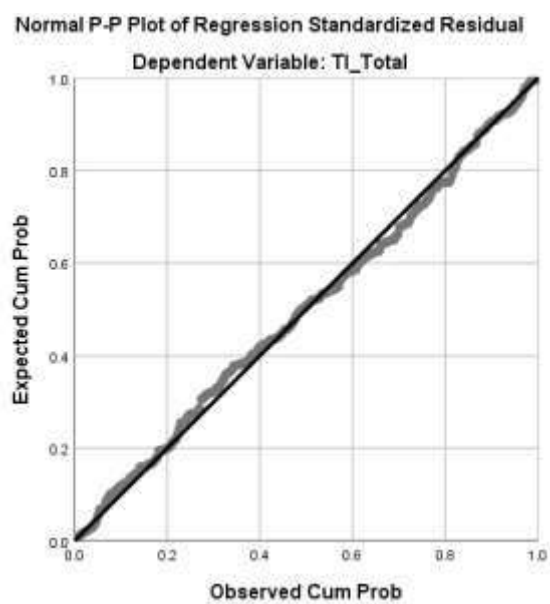


Figure 1. Q-Q plot of standardized residuals.

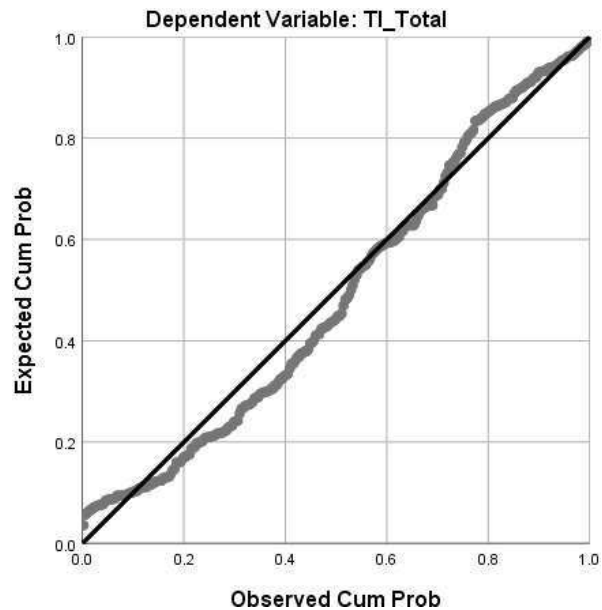


Figure 2. Q-Q plot of hierarchical linearity.