

**MANAGER EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE: A
MODERATING ROLE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE OF DEPOSIT MONEY BANKS IN
RIVERS STATE**

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the influence of manager emotional intelligence on organizational climate: A moderating role of organizational culture of deposit money banks in Rivers State. The indicators of organizational culture are results oriented and people oriented cultures. The study adopted the cross-sectional survey research design. Population of the study was 191 managers of 18 deposit money banks in Rivers State. The study is a census and data collected through the questionnaire instrument structured on a five-point scale validated by the Supervisors and two other experts. The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient was used to measure the reliability of the instrument at the least value of 0.72. The results are presented using both charts and contingency tables which illustrate the distributions and outcomes for the analysis: the demographic analysis addressed the result and distributions for the sample characteristics; the univariate analysis addressed the result on the data distributions for each variable; the bivariate addressed the relationship between the dimensions of manager emotional intelligence and the measures of organisational climate; while the multivariate analysis addressed the result on the assessment of the moderating role of organisational culture on the relationship between manager emotional intelligence and organisational climate. The null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance using the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Coefficient, the Partial Correlation's technique was used to test for the moderating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between manager emotional intelligence and organisational climate. Results revealed that manager self-awareness, manager self-management, manager social awareness influence trust, employee recognition and perceived organisational support of the deposit money banks in Rivers State. Conclusively, the study affirmed that adoption and development of emotional intelligence by managers of banks will contribute substantially towards enhanced or positive organisational climate. It was recommended, among other things, that bank managers endeavor to improve in their self-awareness and self-management skills to facilitate a positive climate where employees feel valued, receive essential support and get emotionally and psychologically energised to contribute their best towards the attainment of desired organisational outcomes.

Keywords: Emotional Intelligent, Organisatipnal Climate, Organisational Culture

INTRODUCTION

Emotional Intelligence is so critical to organisational success, assert Bradberry & Greaves (2009), that it accounts for 58 percent of performance in all types of jobs. They argue that it is the single biggest predictor of performance in the workplace and the strongest driver of leadership and personal excellence. In line with that assertion, the IHHP Research (2019) indicates that 80% of the defining characteristics of what distinguish exceptional and unexceptional leadership

is emotional intelligence. According to Goleman (1998), 'when senior managers at one company had a critical mass of EI capabilities, their divisions outperformed yearly earnings goals by 20%.'

The issue of organisational climate is critical for any business or organisation to effectively operate and achieve its set goals. This, according to Brown and Leigh (Haritha and Subrahmanyam, 2013) is because 'organisations that are able to create environments that employees perceive as benign and in which they are able to achieve their full potential are seen as a key source of competitive advantage'. This shows that organisational climate affects engagement and productivity of the staff as well as the overall performance of the organisation.

In establishing positive organisational climate, Goleman, Boyatzis and Mckee (2015) found emotional intelligence of organisational leaders as a factor that influences the organisational climate. Also, Cherniss and Goleman (2010) observed that bosses whose employees stay are those who manage with emotional intelligence.

However, in spite the several studies conducted on this subject such as the relation between managers' emotional intelligence and the organisational climate they create (Momeni, 2009), self-awareness and organisational performance in the Nigerian banking sector (Okpara & Edwin, 2015), emotional intelligence, leadership style & organisational climate (Maamari, & Majdalani, 2017), impact of emotional intelligence on turnover intentions of front-line bank employees of Bangladesh: The role of leadership (Hosain, 2018), emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness (Kerr, *et al.*, 2005), a closer look at trust between managers and subordinates: understanding the effects of both trusting and being trusted on subordinate outcomes (Brower, *et al.*, 2009), relationship between managers' emotional intelligence and organisational effectiveness (Ahghar, *et al.*, 2013) and innumerable others, in various parts of the world, the influence of emotional intelligence on managers of money deposit banks and the organisational climate (the pervading emotional ecology) they create in Rivers State, has remained largely unexplored. It thus became imperative to investigate on Manager Emotional Intelligence and Organisational Climate of Deposit Money Banks in Rivers State.

Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were stated in the null (Ho) form thus:

HO₁: The result-oriented culture of the organisation does not significantly moderate the relationship between manager emotional intelligence and organisational climate of deposit money banks in Rivers State

HO₂: The people-oriented culture of the organisation does not significantly moderate the relationship between manager emotional intelligence and organisational climate of deposit money banks in Rivers State

Concept of Emotional Intelligence

Management scholars, for decades, have recommended that executives follow Weber's advice to keep emotions out of the work place and to practice what Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) referred to as "administrative rationality" (Humphrey *et al.*, 2008). That is because, even among philosophers, the pursuit of reason had an elevated status to that of emotion, which only lurks at the background, referring to it as a threat to reason (Solomon, 2008). The

consideration of the place of emotion was thus inconsequential and played an inferior role. Solomon (2008: 3) states that 'one of the most enduring metaphors of reason and emotion has been the metaphor of master and slave, with the wisdom of reason firmly in control and the dangerous impulses of emotion safely suppressed, channeled, or (ideally) in harmony with reason.' Stressing on the inferiority of emotions, he further states, 'there is the inferior role of emotion - the idea that emotion is as such more primitive, less intelligent, more bestial, less dependable, and more dangerous than reason, and thus needs to be controlled by reason. Consequently, Küpers and Weibler (2005) observed that emotional dimensions became neglected topics in organisational studies and in economic research in general (Küpers & Weibler, 2008).

In keeping emotions out of the work place at the time, Psychologists and organisational managers gave no considerations to feelings of individuals, even workers in the organisation. In this stance, they missed on the information emotions provide. Clore (1994) argues that the primary function of emotion is to provide information. That is in line with Goleman's (2005) assertion that emotions are impulses to act. Drawing from his argument, Clore (1994:104) posits that 'emotion supply information through distinctive facial and vocal expressions and to oneself through distinctive thoughts and feelings'. He, therefore, contends that whether 'the experience of emotion is functional and dysfunctional depends on what it does to the information value of the accompanying affective experience'. Therefore, whether psychologists and, or, organisational managers paid no attention to emotions did not stop emotional events from occurring, nor did it stop the accompanying 'private affective experience' (Clore, 1994) in the individual worker.

Fig. 2.1 Goleman's Quadrant of Emotional intelligence

Self-Awareness	Social Awareness
<p style="text-align: center;">Self-Management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Self-Control - Trustworthiness - Conscientiousness - Adaptability - Achievement drive - Initiative 	<p style="text-align: center;">Relationship Management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Developing others - Influence - Communication - Conflict Management - Visionary Leadership - Change catalyst - Building bonds - Teamwork and collaboration

The Goleman (2001) four domains or capabilities of emotional intelligence, with their accompanying twenty competencies, is adopted in this work as the predictor variable. This choice is based on the fact that Goleman's model of emotional intelligence is a theory of performance and has direct applicability to the domain of work and organisational effectiveness, particularly in predicting excellence in jobs of all kinds, from sales to leadership (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Team FME, 2004). Also, Nwokah & Ahiauzu (2009), MDT Training (2010) and Insights (2017) are of the conviction that Goleman's (2001) model of emotional intelligence

appears to be the most prominent of all the emotional intelligence models developed. For instance, Singh (2006) suggests that managers who acquire the following skills will be able to successfully manage emotions in his personal life as well as in the workplace: Learn to recognise your emotions; learn to empathise with others; develop high self-esteem; manage emotional upsets; be an emotional winner; learn the art of influencing people; manage your anger; and other related areas.

Concept of Organisational Climate

Schneider *et al.* (n.d.) and Ashkanasy & Jackson (2001) noted that the study of climate has its historical roots in Gestalt psychology, social anthropology and organisational theory. The Gestalt tradition emphasized that climate is a composite of many perceptions and experiences. According to this paradigm, organisational climate should be viewed as a gestalt, based on patterns of experiences and behaviours of people in an organisation as perceived by its members. Within the gestalt of organisational climate, individual elements of perception are integrated into a whole that represents more than the sum of its parts (Gerber, 2014). Ashkanasy & Jackson (2001) are in agreement with Schneider & Barbera (2014) and Shintri & Bharamanaikar (2017), that the concept and framework of organisational climate have evolved over a long period of time with the earliest available reference on the concept/framework of organisational climate being traced to Lewin (1939), who with his colleagues coined the term 'climate' to describe the attitudes, feelings, and social processes of organisations (Ashkanasy & Jackson, 2001).

While there have been differences in definitions of the construct, organisational climate research has implicitly or explicitly adhered to the notion that it is a summary perception derived from a body of inter-connected experiences with organisational policies, practices and procedures and observations of what is rewarded, supported and expected in the organisation, with these summary perceptions becoming meaningful and shared based on the natural interactions of people with each other (Schneider, González-Romá, Ostrof, Cheri & West, n.d.). The climate of an organisation can be analysed validly at three different levels (Field & Abelson in Gerber, 2014), viz: individual level (psychological climate), group level (group climate) and organisational level (organisational climate). These levels of analysis are supported by Schneider *et al.* (2013). However, some researchers like Yammarino and Dansereau (2011 in Gerber, 2014) lump climate and culture research together and add a fourth level of analysis, namely society or country level, which would technically only be used for the analysis of culture, for example, national culture. This work therefore is based on the gestalt of climate generated at the organisational level – organisational climate.

Organisational climates can work to facilitate or impair work relationships. Thus, the climate of an organisation is one of the key influencing forces which affect the individual employee's perceptions, feelings and actions, as well as their interpersonal relationships (Nolan & Küpers, 2009). While there is continued scholarly debate about the exact definition of organisational climate for the purposes of scientific study. DAS (2017), Schneider *et al.* (2013) see organisational climate as the shared perceptions of and the meaning attached to the policies, practices, and procedures employees experience and the behaviours they observe getting rewarded and that are supported and expected. As for Hellriegel & Slocum (2005), organisational climate refers to a set of attributes which can be perceived about a particular organisation and/or its subsystems, and that may be induced from the way that organisation and/or its subsystems deal with their members and environment. Armstrong (2001) posits that

climate refers to those aspects of the environment that are consciously perceived by organisational members. According to him, these perceptions are describable sensations or realisations experienced by an individual, and by extension, the global climate of the organisation. Organisational climate is a set of measurable properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by people who live and work in this environment and assumed to influence their motivation and behavior (Litwin & Stringer, 1968).

Self-management and Organisational Climate

Virtually in every case, self-management plays an important role in advancing self-coordination and a more cordial and trusting workplace. For instance, coping with massive change involves among other things, the ability to perceive and understand the emotional impact of change on ourselves and others. To be effective in helping their organisations manage change. Bunker (1997), suggests that managers first need to be aware of and to manage their feelings of anxiety and uncertainty. Then they need to be aware of the emotional reactions of other organisational members and act to help people cope with those reactions. At the same time in this process of coping effectively with massive change other members of the organisation need to be actively involved in monitoring and managing their emotional reactions and those of others. In view of this position, and the lack of evidence linking the variables within the context of Rivers State, Nigeria.

Social Awareness and Organisational Climate

Goleman (1998) asserts that leaders who possess a high degree of social awareness tend to be more effective than those who lack them. Their social awareness elicits the trust and confidence of subordinates. People respect leaders who, because they are socially aware recognize their own limitations and because they are self-regulating, consider decisions carefully. Socially aware individuals tend to be more self-confident and to cope with ambiguity and are more open, to change. McClelland (1998) argues that "stars" are talented in competencies across the board. In a study by Spencer (1997), of more than 300 top-level executives from fifteen global companies, finding suggests that self-confidence, an aspect of social-awareness was among the six emotional competencies that distinguished stars from the average. The Harvard Business Review recently reminded leaders that their excellence begins and ends with their inner resources. Executives who fail to develop social awareness risk falling into an emotional deadening routine that threatens their true selves. Indeed, a reluctance to explore your inner landscapes not only weakens your own motivation but can corrode your ability to inspire others, (Goleman 2001).

Linking Indicators of Organisational Culture with Emotional Intelligence and Organisational Climate

Results oriented Culture and Emotional Intelligence and Organisational Climate

Hofstede (1997) has pointed out that result oriented organisational culture is one that focuses on achieving the desired results and outcomes to meet corporate objectives (Zeqiri & Alija, 2016). With a clear sense of direction that aligns them to both short and long time goals, managers give employees the latitude to take risks without resort to blames, and that makes them low on uncertainty avoidance. Beshay & Sixsmith (2008) emphasise that such results-oriented organisational cultures appreciate flexibility and informality in the workplace, even as they are appreciate the daily challenges of organizational work life. This in turn creates a

culture of mutual trust, collaboration, creativity and innovation, effective communication and empowered employees. Since organisational climate develops from the deeper core of culture (Robbins & Judge, 2013), emotionally intelligent managers endeavour to put in place such strong culture that will inspire positive attitude on organisation members.

People Oriented Culture and Emotional Intelligence and Organisational Climate

Beshay & Sixsmith (2008) and Zeqiri & Alija (2016) are in agreement that a people-oriented culture represents the preference of the organisation's culture towards its employees. That gives the employees a sense of belonging, perceiving that they are not only recognized for their effort, but that their personal problems are taken into account and that the organisation takes an obligation to take care of their. In such a culture, managers allow employees to apply the skills that aid them in easier and faster completion of task, thus taking into account the individual abilities of their staff. Al Mehairi & Binning (2014) argue that such demonstrated care by emotionally intelligent managers seeks to develop long term commitment and motivation in the employees, leading to a positive reciprocal behaviour from the employees. That deliberate culture of orienting towards its people by the organisation eventually elicits a climate of positive reciprocal behaviour between the manager and the employees. The study advanced the following hypothesis in line with the discussion:

Social Exchange Theory

This baseline social theory is considered by Alexander (1990) as a social-psychological theory (Ahiauzu & Asawo, 2016). The social exchange theory, as theorized by Blau (1964), conceptualises social relationships in terms of exchange processes; that mutual bonds emerge in social interactions, as persons who incur obligations reciprocate. Blau (1964) defined social exchange as 'the voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others' (Paille', Grima & Bernardeau, 2013). According to him, it is characterised by unspecified personal obligations and trust as well as intrinsic – in conjunction with extrinsic- rewards and therefore, occupying the middle ground between pure calculation of advantage and pure love. From Blau's (1964) exposition, social exchange is neither an action from a party to gain calculated advantage nor is it an expression emanating from pure love by a party.

It is rather a conditional fairness, expressed in less formal and less legalistic social relations (Diekmann, 2014; Ahiauzu & Asawo, 2016). Gouldner (1960) indicates that once it has been established as a norm governing the relationship between two individuals, reciprocity requires the individuals to abide by two key principles. First, individuals must assist those who have previously given them assistance. Second, individuals should not do anything that might harm those who have previously given them assistance (Cropanzano *et al.*, 2017; Murdvee, 2009; Paille', 2013). It is this reciprocal behaviour, norm of reciprocity (Gouldner,1960), therefore evokes obligations toward others on the basis of their past behaviour and which can be applied to either kind or harmful actions. Lodewijkx (2008) explains that the norm of reciprocity regulates the exchanges of goods and services between people in ongoing group or individual relationships. It dictates that people should help those who have helped them, that people should not harm those who have helped them, and that legitimate penalties may be imposed on those who fail to reciprocate. According to him, reciprocity calls for positive reactions to favorable treatment and for negative reactions to unfavorable treatment.

Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) aver that social exchange theory (SET) is among the most influential conceptual paradigms for understanding workplace behaviour. It involves a series of mutually benefiting interactions of purposive actors that generate obligations (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Ahiauzu & Asawo, 2016). According to Blau (1964), these interactions are usually seen as interdependent and contingent on the actions of another person and, as Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) concur, the interactions have the potential to generate high-quality relationships (under certain circumstances) that evolve over time into trusting, loyal, and mutual commitments. Based on the social exchange theory, the manager and the employee or subordinate are in a social exchange relationship, at the heart of which is the norm of reciprocity.

Thus, if a manager initiates a positive action towards his subordinate, the subordinate will in turn respond with a positive behaviour. If that circle continues, a norm of reciprocity is established and trust engendered between manager and subordinate. In perceiving that the organisation, represented by the manager means well for him (by way of advice, support, positive attitudes, signs of recognition, cordial forms of behavior such as mutual aid and benevolent attitudes such as empathy) and values his effort, the subordinate will have trust in his manager and the ensuing virtuous spiral of exchanges (Paille ´ *et al.*, 2013) will benefit the organisation by way of positive engagement and eventual improved bottom line.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This study adopted the cross-sectional survey research design. The cross-sectional survey research design, according to Kothari (2004), is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure.

Population for the Study

The population of the study consists of 191 middle level managers of deposit money banks in Rivers State, given their positions and capacities with regards to the data required (Sources: Banks head offices in Port Harcourt, Rivers State as at 20/01/2020). Besides, these respondents were made up of managers such as Operations Managers, Human Resources Managers, Loan Managers, Credit Managers, Trust Managers, Financial Managers, Public Relations Managers, Records Managers, Marketing Managers and Real Estate. While the total number of banks with operational national license to operate within the geographical region of Rivers State is 19, the field work revealed an absence of any operational office of the Titan Trust Bank in Rivers State at the time – hence the 18 deposit money banks in Rivers State formed the unit of analysis.

Sample and Sampling Technique

A sample is the representative of the population of a study (Ahiauzu & Asawo, 2016), and helps a researcher to have access to a part of the target population that could help him draw conclusions about or make generalisations on the rest of the population. However, this study is a census, as the researcher collected and analysed data from every member of the population, and also because the population is accessible and convenient for the researcher to study. As a census study therefore, there was no need for sampling, hence the sample size of 191 remains the same as the population. This means, the researcher studied 191 managers.

Reliability of the Instrument

The reliability for the instruments of the study was tested using the Cronbach alpha reliability tool. According to Sekaran (2003) the Cronbach alpha as an intra-rater tool is effective in assessing instrument's clarity and replicability based on data consistency. Presented in table 3.2 are the results:

Cronbach Alpha of the Study Instrument

Variables	No. of Items	Alpha (α)
Self-Awareness	4	0.81
Self-Management	4	0.74
Social Awareness	4	0.89
Trust	4	0.91
Recognition	4	0.72
Perceived organisational support	4	0.83
Result-oriented culture	4	0.77
People-oriented culture	4	0.79

Source: SPSS Output based on 2020 field survey data

Methods of Data Analysis

The bivariate data analysis was carried out using the Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient. The test was conducted using a 0.05 level of significance as the basis for the assessment of significance or insignificance relationships between the dimensions of manager emotional intelligence and measures of organisational climate.

Results

Multivariate Data Analysis

In this sub-section of the chapter, the moderating influence of organisational culture (result-oriented and people-oriented) relationship between manager emotional intelligence and organisational climate is assessed. Each dimension of organisational culture is believed to advance a unique impact on the relationship between both predictor and criterion, hence two separate tests in line with the null hypothetical statements on moderation will be carried out. The Partial correlation technique is adopted in the test for these multivariate impacts as its function aligns with the 3-step assessment rule by Kenny and Baron (1989) and also by Field (2013). According to Field (2013), the assessment for moderation, much like mediation, should accomplish three major outcomes – (a) the significance of the relationship between predictor and criterion as a direct relationship (where $Y = fX_1$), (b) the significance of the predictor and moderating variable (where $X_2 = fX_1$), and (c) the significance of the indirect effect (where $Y = fX_1[X_2]$) over the direct effect (where $Y = fX_1$). The test in this section therefore addressed the two null hypothetical statements postulated as follows:

HO₁: The result-oriented culture of the organisation does not significantly moderate the relationship between manager emotional intelligence and organisational climate of deposit money banks in Rivers State

HO₂: The people-oriented culture of the organisation does not significantly moderate the relationship between manager emotional intelligence and organisational climate of deposit money banks in Rivers State

Table 1 Test for result-oriented moderating effect

Control Variables		Emotional	Climate	Result*
Emotional	Correlation	1.000	.696	.750
	Significance (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000
	Df	0	185	185
-none- ^a Climate	Correlation	.696	1.000	.607
	Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000
	Df	185	0	185
Result	Correlation	.750	.607	1.000
	Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.
	Df	185	185	0
Emotional	Correlation	1.000	.458	
	Significance (2-tailed)	.	.000	
	Df	0	184	
Result	Correlation	.458	1.000	
	Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.	
	Df	184	0	

Researcher, 2020 (*Result-oriented Culture)

The result on the analysis as revealed in table 4.8 which establishes the impact of result-oriented culture on the relationship between manager emotional intelligence as significant where (a) direct or controlled effect ($Y = fX_1$) = 0.458 and (b) indirect ($Y = fX_1[X_2]$) = 0.696 and (c) the relationship between manager emotional intelligence and result-oriented culture is also significant ($X_2 = fX_1$) = 0.750; thus, satisfying three benchmarks and revealing that result-oriented culture is a significant moderator of the relationship between manager emotional intelligence and organisational climate in the deposit money banks in Rivers State. On the basis of the evidence presented, the previous related null hypothetical statement is therefore rejected.

Table 2 Test for People-oriented moderating effect

Control Variables		Emotional	Climate	People*
Emotional	Correlation	1.000	.696	.785
	Significance (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000
	Df	0	185	185
-none- ^a Climate	Correlation	.696	1.000	.625
	Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000
	Df	185	0	185
People	Correlation	.785	.625	1.000
	Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.
	Df	185	185	0
Emotional	Correlation	1.000	.425	
	Significance (2-tailed)	.	.000	
	Df	0	184	
People	Correlation	.425	1.000	
	Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.	

Df	184	0
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Researcher, 2020 (*People-oriented Culture)

The evidence as presented on table 4.9 affirms to the impact of people-oriented culture on the relationship between manager emotional intelligence is revealed to be significant where (a) direct or controlled effect ($Y = fX_1$) = 0.425 and (b) indirect ($Y = fX_1[X_2]$) = 0.696 and (c) the relationship between manager emotional intelligence and people-oriented culture is also significant ($X_2 = fX_1$) = 0.785; thereby satisfying all three requirements for the affirmation of moderating effect. Given the result of the analysis, it is therefore confirmed that people-oriented culture significantly contributes in a moderating manner, towards improved outcomes of the relationship between manager emotional intelligence and organisational climate in the examined deposit money banks in Rivers State. On this basis, the related null hypothesis is therefore rejected.

The Moderating Role of Organisational Culture on the Relationship Between Manager Emotional Intelligence and Organisational Climate

The result from the analysis identifies organisation culture – especially that which is concerned with the result and people aspects of the organisation, as significantly moderating the relationship between manager emotional intelligence and organisational climate. The culture as observed, drives the practice and expression of emotional intelligence through its established values for subordinates and the need for improved relationships for the achievement of the organisation’s goals. Schein (2004) asserts the culture creates a frame of reference in which the organisation management’s considerations and reasoning circulate in the process of decision-making concerning the organisational structure model.

When managing perceptions and expectations in international business both national and organisational culture must be handled. Schein (2004) claims that organisational culture is both a dynamic phenomenon that surrounds us at all times, being constantly enacted and created by our interactions with others and shaped by management actions and behaviour. It is set of structures, routines, rules, and norms that guide and constrain behaviour. Ovidiu-Iliuta (2014) adds that the main element that helps to attain good reputation and increased positive climate for the organisation is to develop a strong organisational culture. Moreover, the culture can even represent a barrier when trying to implement new strategies.

It is critical for all organisational managers to understand the underlying values of their organisations because these factors directly influence the outcomes of the organisation and how much work will ultimately be required to ensure successful outcomes for the organisation (Prosci, 2010). It has been claimed that an organisational culture is so important to the organisation that, in the long run, it may be the one decisive influence for the survival or fall of the organisation (Schein, 2002), and that a culture matters because decisions made without awareness of the operative cultural forces may have unanticipated and undesirable consequences (Schein,2002). Further, Schein (2002) has cautioned that researchers have underestimated the extent to which culture contributes to the perceptions of an organisation, as either an asset or a liability and as the explanatory construct underlying numerous organisational phenomena.

Azhar (2003) asserts that the phenomenon which often distinguishes good organisations from bad ones could be summed up as “the culture.” He says that the well- managed organisations apparently have distinctive cultures that are, in some way, responsible for their ability to successfully implement strategies. He further observes that every organisation has a culture

(which often includes several sub-cultures) that exerts powerful influences on the behaviour of employees and managers. Organisational culture can be one of the most important means of improving organisational climate. Organisational culture has become very important in the last 25 years. Even though it is intangible in nature, it plays a role that is significant and affects employees' perceptions and organisational climate. It may not guarantee success but companies with strong cultures have almost always, done better than their competitors. The fact that organisations may have a strong or weak culture affects their ability to perform strategically.

Culture affects not only the way managers behave within organisations but also the decisions they make about the organisation's relationships with its environment and its strategy (McCarthy, Minichiello & Curran, 2000). Pearce and Robinson (2004), observes that culture is a strength but can also be a weakness. As a strength, culture can facilitate communication, decision making and control, and create cooperation and commitment. As a weakness, culture may obstruct the smooth implementation of strategy by creating resistance to change. An organisation's culture could be characterized as weak when many subcultures exist, few values and behavioural norms are shared, and traditions are rare. In such organisations, employees do not have a sense of commitment, loyalty, and a sense of identity. Rather than being members of an organisation, these are wage-earners.

Traits exhibited by organisations that have weak cultures include: politicized organisational environment, hostility to change, promoting bureaucracy in preference to creativity and entrepreneurship, and unwillingness to look outside the organisation for the best practices (Kotter and Heskett, 2005). Rousseau (2000) asserts that, it is essential to recognize that large-scale organisational improvement does not occur in a vacuum or sterile environment. It occurs in human systems, organisations, which already have beliefs, assumptions, expectations, norms, and values, both idiosyncratic to individual members of those organisations and shared.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study identify manager emotional intelligence as a significant predictor of positive organisational climate. The evidence from the analysis indicate that dimensions such as self-awareness, self-management and social awareness significantly impact and positively contribute towards outcomes of organisational climate such as trust, recognition and perceived organisational support. Furthermore, the findings also demonstrate that the culture of the organisation also significantly impacts on the relationship between manager emotional intelligence and organisational climate.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the study and conclusions drawn, the following recommendations are made:

- (i) Deposit money banks in Nigeria should train their managers to acquire the competencies associated with self-awareness. Bank managers should endeavor to improve in their self-awareness skills to enable them know how to handle issues of self and avoid actions that could make the organisational climate uncondusive for optimum performance..
- (ii) Organisational managers and leaders should endeavor to make extra effort and sacrifices in understanding and managing themselves in ways that create or generate an atmosphere devoid of fear, rancor and unhealthy competitions between and among members of staff, as well as customers as the case may be.

- (iii) Executive development programs should be designed to drive the social awareness and cognition of managers so as to improve the consciousness of individuals and an understanding of the implications of their actions within the workplace.
- (iv) The culture of the organisation should be patterned and elaborated in such a way that members of the organisation understand the underlying implications of their actions on others and the imperatives of behaviour considerations when dealing or working with other members within the network of the organisation.

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