

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

Edum, Christian Clifford (PhD)

**Department Of Business Administration/Tourism And Hospitality Management
Faculty Of Management Sciences Otuoke**

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the influence of manager emotional intelligence on organisational climate of deposit money banks in Rivers State. The paper revealed that manager emotional intelligence influences organisational climate 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 people-oriented culture to facilitate a positive climate where employees feel valued, receive essential support and get emotionally and psychologically energized to contribute their best towards the attainment of desired organisational outcomes.

Keywords: Manager Emotional Intelligence, Organisational Climate, People Oriented Culture

INTRODUCTION

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.

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).

Concept of Emotional Intelligence

The private affective consequences of an emotional event in the workplace or from the personal life of a worker may be feelings of resignation, conflict, anxiety, sadness, fear and the like. When these feelings become part of his everyday experience, performance will be affected based on his decisions and judgments. As Wagner (1989) expressed, psychologists or organisational managers' explicit refusal to give cognisance to emotion does not keep representations of emotional events from being actuated in the memory and having had affective consequences (Clore, 1994) to organisations. Ashkanasy (2003) nailed this point when he asserted that recognising the existing emotions within organisations is essential. Organisations that are interested in maintaining a "healthy emotional environment" will cause less suffering and will obtain more efficiency and a more productive behaviour (Grama & Boitone, 2009).

However, the subject of emotions became matured, emerging as an explicit and increasingly polished research area during the 1980s, which Barsade & Gibson (2007) referred to as "affective revolution", with earlier findings vivifying the field (Stearns, 2008). Humphrey *et al.* (2008), Goleman (2005), Fisher & Ashkanasy (2000), and Lord & Kanfer (2004) acknowledged the substantial advances that have been made in the last two decades in understanding the structure and role of affect (commonly known as emotion) in human behaviour, with Industrial/Organisational psychologists and other applied researchers recognizing the relevance of such advances for understanding workplace behaviour. More specifically, Barsade *et al.* (2003) affirmed that in the ensuing affective revolution academics and managers alike have begun to appreciate how an organisational lens that integrates employee affect provides a perspective missing from earlier views (Barsade & Gibson, 2007).

Today, emotional studies have become one of the most popular - and popularized - areas within organisational scholarship (Elfenbein, 2007). This scientific harvest has been enabled by 'glimpses of the brain at work made possible by innovative methods such as new brain-imaging technologies' (Goleman, 2005: xxi). He further claimed that this new knowledge 'made possible for the first time in human history what has always been a source of deep mystery: exactly how this intricate mass of cells (the brain) operates while we think, and feel, imagine and dream.' (Goleman, 2005: xxi) maintained that 'this flood of neurobiological data lets us understand more clearly than ever how the brain's centres for emotion move us to rage or to tears, and how more ancient parts of the brain, which stir us to make war as well as love, are channeled for better or worse'. With this insight, Elfenbein (2007) pointed out that this is an exciting time to be a researcher interested in emotion in organisations. According to him, this popularization of the subject of emotions, especially its infusion into organisational life, has tended to elevate the status and legitimacy of emotion as a topic of scholarly inquiry.

Küpers & Weibler (2008) argue that growing challenges faced by organisations (increasing competition, technological developments, exponential innovations and the acceleration of various discontinuous change processes), organisational transformation endeavours (involving downsizing, delayering and layoffs) create new emotional exigencies and require more effective actions and flexibility on the part of all members of the organisation; that the increasing set of organisational and managerial tasks requires the expression and regulation or management of particular feelings across multiple circumstances. Based on these, Küpers & Weibler (2008) maintain that it becomes very important for organisations to promote those emotions that will help create and maintain effective, efficient and productive organisational functioning in a sustainable way, as well as regulating and managing problematic emotions. They contend that given this reality and significance, organisational practice and corresponding studies need to understand the actual influence and potential of emotions, both in the organisation, intrapersonal and interpersonal life. Again, this is especially important because, as Grama & Boțone (2009) observed, the benefits obtained from this process are enormous for both personal and organisational efficiency.

In a discussion of emotional intelligence of managers and how it influences the work environment (climate) they create, it was imperative that we first considered the subject of emotions in the work environment. People in organisations experience both positive and negative feelings. It is therefore the accumulation of such positive or negative feelings or events in the workplace that determine how people in the organization think and feel at work (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2001) and advise that managers pay attention to the emotional climate in their organisation.

Leaders need to manage the mood of their organisations. The leaders that are most gifted accomplish that by using a 'blend of psychological abilities known as emotional intelligence' (EI), and managers apply it with varying skills (Mckee, 2017). He contends that if wisely and compassionately used, emotional intelligence will spur leaders, their people, and their organisations to superior performance; however, if naively or maliciously applied (he warns), it can make them to manipulate followers for personal gain.

Bradberry & Greaves (2009) describe emotional intelligence as one's ability to recognise and understand emotions in oneself and others, and the ability to use this awareness to manage one's behaviour and relationships. Emotional intelligence is the "something" (*emphasis theirs*) in each of us that is a bit intangible. This, according to them, affects how we manage behaviour, navigate social complexities, and make personal decisions that

achieve positive results. As for James (2018), emotional intelligence enables a person to create stronger personal and professional relationships.

Historically, the roots of Emotional Intelligence can be traced back to the nineteenth century with the work of Edward Thorndike in 1920. He was one of the first to identify the aspect of EI he called social intelligence, which according to him is the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls to act wisely in human relations (Bar-On, 2006; Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Bar-On (2006) noted that the work of Thorndike focused on describing, defining and assessing socially competent behaviour. Wechsler (1958) was another reference to the construct of Emotional Intelligence in its historical development. In his work, he recognised that the non-cognitive aspects of intelligence, what Cherniss & Goleman (2001) referred to as 'affective capacities', are important and part of the human repertoire of capabilities (Cherniss, 2000), ultimately for an effective workplace.

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.

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(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).

According to Forehand and Gilmer (1964), climate consists of a set of characteristics that describe an organisation, distinguishes it from other organisations, are relatively enduring over time and influence the behaviour of people in it. Stated plainly, an employee answering the question "What is it like to work here?" will offer a description of organisational climate (Baker, 1992 cited in Ayers, 2005). From these definitions, organisational climate could be said of as the perception and interpretation, what Wikipedia describes as 'collective appraisal', of the characteristics of an organisation, by its members, which shape or influence their attitude and motivate their actions in the organisation. These characteristics are relatively stable and distinguish one organisation from another.

For the purpose of this study, however, we adopt the definition of organizational climate by Moran and Volkwein (1992). According to them, 'organisational climate is a relatively enduring characteristic of an organisation which distinguishes it from other organisations: (a) and embodies members collective perceptions about their organisation with respect to such dimensions as autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovation, and fairness: (b) is produced by member interaction; (c) serves as a basis for interpreting the situation; (d) reflects the prevalent norms, values and attitudes of the organisations culture; and (e) acts as a source of influence for shaping behaviour.'

Momeni (Maamari, & Majdalani, 2017) argue that it is mostly the leader's emotional behaviour and style that affects the organisational climate. Knowing that climate comes from top management, emotionally intelligent managers create positive climate that will motivate and engage the employees towards positive organisational outcomes. Since climate is a perception, managers do well to find out factors that motivate or unmotivated their employees. This becomes imperative because organisational climate serves as the guidelines for dealing with people, and has a major influence on motivation and productivity of individuals as well as total work group (Lavanya, 2011). As Veyrat (2016) posits, 'sometimes simple actions have reactions far beyond what you think and can be an organisational climate degradation factor as much as a factor of improvement.

According to Veyrat (2016), little time spent chatting between one task and another encourages integration and stress relief, but when lost produces an adverse effect on the climate of the organisation. This indicates that the time taken by managers to find out what makes the employees tick, or otherwise, is worthwhile. Another thing managers could do, Veyrat (2016) suggests, to have a positive climate in the organisation is to publicise the mission, vision, and values of the company. He argues that it will be better appreciated if employees knew the strategic objectives of the organisation, and stressed that it could be

demotivating to employees if they do not know what their work and daily efforts are for and if they contribute to the achievement of the objectives of the company as a whole.' He further reasons that keeping employees informed of the reason for being of the company, where it wants to go and what personal and corporate values it cherishes and encourages would provide better motivation leading to engagement behaviour. Though not directly mentioning organisational climate, he may be alluding to it when Drucker (1974: 233) said, 'the job is not everything, but it comes first. If other aspects of working are unsatisfactory, they can spoil even the most achieving job – just as a poor sauce can spoil the taste even of the best meat. In this context, the 'meat' is the job, while the 'sauce' is the enabling environment'. If managers do not put in place the right and positive environment for productive work, employees will experience emotional distress, role stress, with possibilities of absenteeism, turnover intentions, and actual turnover.

The dimensions of climate and its measurement have varied considerably between the individual theorists. Denison (1996, in Michael, 2000) argues that developing a universal set of dimensions was often the central issue of the climate researchers so that comparative studies could be made possible in different organisational settings. According to Michael (2000), whilst there is no definitive agreement on climate dimensions there does appear to be some commonality of organisational dimensions that can be measured by a number of theorists and the debate continues over the narrowness of range used to describe different work environments. This work has therefore chosen trust, recognition and perceived organisational support as dimensions of organisational climate to be measured. This is based on the definition of organisational climate by Moran and Volkwein (1992): organisational climate is a relatively enduring characteristic of an organisation which distinguishes it from other organisations: (a) and embodies members collective perceptions about their organisation with respect to such dimensions as autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovation, and fairness; (b) is produced by member interaction; (c) serves as a basis for interpreting the situation; (d) reflects the prevalent norms, values and attitudes of the organisations culture; and, (e) acts as a source of influence for shaping behaviour.

People Oriented Culture

According to Hofstede (1997), this dimension represents the preference of the culture towards employees or the job (Beshay & Sixsmith, 2008 and Zeqiri & Alija, 2016). He points out that employees in culture that are people-oriented feel that their personal problems are taken into account and that the organisation takes an obligation to take care of employees' well-being. Al Mehairi & Binning (2014) posits that in an organisation guided by the employee oriented culture, the management style is to care for the employees, taking responsibility for their welfare, even allowing them apply the skills that aid them in easier and faster completion of task, thus taking into account the individual abilities of their staff. Such demonstrated care to the employee gives them the confidence that their personal differences are taken into account. By such care, management is seeking to develop long term commitment and motivation in the employees (Al Mehairi & Binning, 2014).

Essentially, such organisations are interested in the personal and work life balance of their employees. Perceiving that the organisation has their interest and welfare at heart, employee will apply the norm of reciprocity by returning a favourable treatment to the organisation for the favourable treatment they received. Ultimately, the favourable reciprocal treatment to the organisation will yield positive attitudes and behaviours at work

such as employees' affective commitment, organisational identification, work engagement, and job performance and eventually, improved and positive organisation bottom line.

On the other side, people in job-oriented cultures experience a strong pressure to complete the job and perceive the organisation as only interested in the work. From Al Mehairi & Binning (2014) point of view, an organisation guided by a work-oriented culture pressures the employees toward ensuring that they perform the work assigned to them, regardless of their welfare. Because work-oriented organisations care less about the welfare of their employees, the capacity development of their employees will also be less consequential. In the situation where organisations show no regards to employees overall welfare, Al Mehairi & Binning (2014) argue that 'although the employees may receive pay checks for completing the work they are assigned, a great deal of organisational research suggests that people's job satisfaction and willingness to engage in organisational goals is often more dependent on how they are treated than on their tangible outcomes (such as pay checks and promotions).

Empirical Review

Great organisational climates have been reported to improve the efficiency of organisations (Momeni, 2009). Emotional intelligence, which involves competencies that can help leaders deal more effectively with organisational members and foster a healthy organisational climate, has become increasingly more popular and debated in recent years. This has led researcher, in several studies, to address the impact of emotional intelligence in creating the environment (climate) that makes possible efficient organisations. Among such researchers are Goleman, 2000; Goleman *et al.*, 2001; Momeni (2009), Abdulkarim (2013), Okpara and Edwin (2015), Hosain (2019). However, no empirical investigation has

Momeni (2009) studied the relation between managers' emotional intelligence and the organisational climate they create. The research aimed at investigating the relationship between the emotional intelligence of managers and the organisational climate they create. The sample for study was thirty managers randomly selected, with the emotional intelligence of each manager and their organisational climates measured by questionnaires using a 360-degree feedback approach. The results for the managers were compared with those from another 140 supervisors, peers. The regression analyses showed that there is a positive correlation between the emotional intelligence of managers and organisational climate they create. The analyses further indicated that among emotional intelligence's factors, social awareness and self awareness have more influence on organisational climate, while among organisational climate factors, credibility, which is an indicator of trust, is most influenced by managers' emotional intelligence. While the variables of Momeni (2009) with the current study are the same, Momeni was interested on Managers and Supervisors, while the focus of the current study is on middle level managers.

Okpara and Edwin (2015) conducted a research on the relationship between self-awareness and organisational performance in the Nigerian banking sector. The study was a survey and the sample for the study consisted of two hundred and ten bank managers in South-South area of Nigeria. Data were collected mainly in the cities with high concentration of the banks through interview and questionnaire instrument found to be reliable with cronbach Alpha values of 0.7 and above. The results of their analysis at .05 level of significance showed that self awareness is positively related to net profit and return on investment, but found no strong relationship between self awareness and market share.

Their interview results also supported their findings. Based on the results, they concluded that self awareness positively influenced net profit and return on investment, and therefore recommended that organisations should train their managers/employees to acquire the competencies associated with self awareness. The result of this study strongly support the influence of self awareness on positive organisational bottom line.

In an exploratory study on Leader Self-Reported Emotional Intelligence and Perceived Employee Creativity, Rego *et al.* (2007) suggest that emotionally intelligent leaders promote creativity in their employees. They found leader's self-control as EI dimension with greater predictive value against criticism and empathy. This means that employees feel more motivated to identify and propose creative solutions and strategies *when they feel* (emphasis mine) that their leaders are receptive to ideas different from their own and/or that depart from the status quo.

Hackston (2019) noted that research has shown that when people have more accurate self-perception, they tend to perform better in the workplace, and cited the study HRD Connect carried out in the Royal Navy. According to him, they found that more self-aware leaders were better able to tailor their [leadership](#) style to the situation at hand. Again, according to Hackston (2019), in another survey HRD Connect carried out in 2017, they asked respondents about the advantages and disadvantages of being self-aware. The participants mentioned advantages than disadvantages; the top five included a greater understanding of your reactions and motivation, better management of oneself and others, the ability to adapt one's behaviour, improved relationships and personal growth. The respondents felt that increased self-awareness was particularly useful when working with others in a team.

Klem and Schlechter (2008) conducted a study in a clothing manufacturing plant, on the relationship between leader emotional intelligence and psychological. They drew a random cluster sample of 600 participants from a total employee population of 1725 and 297 completed responses were returned for analyses (49,5% response rate). An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted on both the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT) and the Organisational Climate Questionnaire of Koys and DeCotiis (1991). Both scales were found to be valid and reliable. Stepwise Discriminant analysis provided evidence that a single psychological climate existed in the organisation. The results of a Pearson correlation analysis and Hierarchical Multiple Regression further indicated that leader emotional intelligence is significantly positively related to the psychological climate. The variables for this study are similar, though different from the present study. While the criterion variable for this work is psychological climate, with the unit of analysis as the individual, the criterion variable for the current study is organisational climate, with the unit of analysis being the organisation.

Oyewunmi, *et al.* (2015) carried out a study that explored the impact of leaders' emotional intelligence on employees' performance within Nigeria's public healthcare sector and also provides perspective on the contextual underpinnings. The study adopted the survey method and randomly sampled leaders and employees within the sector. Data analyses using the t-test and hierarchical regression analytical tool, revealed a significant correlation between the emotional intelligence of leaders and the performance of employees. The study found that the task of leadership, coupled with the multiple challenges within Nigeria's public healthcare sector, requires a reasonable measure of emotional intelligence in order to facilitate employees' performance. This study, though has emotional intelligence as its

predictor variable, seeks to find its impact on employee performance, different from the current study which seeks to find out the impact of emotional intelligence of managers on organisational climate they create.

In a paper on the relationship between leader's Emotional Intelligence and organizational commitment of their subordinates, Long and Kowang (2015) choose two types of organisations: a multi-national company and a locally owned company - to conduct a comparative study. The correlational analysis was conducted on these 2 companies and indicated a statistically significant and a positive relationship between the 4 dimensions of Emotional Intelligence and Organisational Commitment.

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.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study identify manager emotional intelligence as a significant predictor of positive organisational climate. Furthermore, the findings also demonstrate that the culture of the organisation also significantly impacts on the relationship between manager emotional intelligence and organisational climate. The emphasis on cultural values that focus on relationships and the imperatives of consciousness and responsibility for others, such as advances emotional intelligence within the workplace – offers significant benefits in terms of climate outcomes such as trust, recognition and perceived organisational support.

RECOMMENDATIONS

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

- (i) 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.
- (ii) 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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