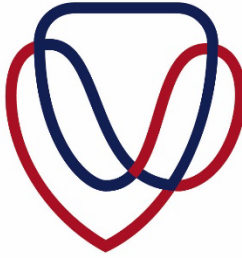


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**UFS**  
ECONOMIC AND  
MANAGEMENT SCIENCES  
INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

**The effect of Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital on Job  
Embeddedness among employees in a Higher Education Institution**

**By**

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**Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of requirements for the  
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**Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences**

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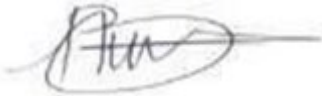
## PLAGIARISM DECLARATION

I, Burneline Kaars, declare that all the work within this research proposal, unless otherwise specified, is my original work and that I have not previously submitted it for obtaining any prior qualification at another institution.

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Signed: Burneline Kaars

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Burneline Kaars', with a long horizontal stroke extending to the right.

Date: 22 October 2023

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## **ABSTRACT**

This study examines how Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital impact Job Embeddedness among employees in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). The primary aim was to identify potential links between Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital, understanding their critical roles in fostering Job Embeddedness.

A quantitative survey was conducted involving 229 employees, encompassing various genders and age groups currently working in a Higher Education institution. The sample included academic and support staff and was selected using a non-probability convenience sampling method. The study revealed a strong and positive correlation between Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital, in line with initial hypotheses. However, the expected direct connection between Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness was not evident. Further analysis revealed an indirect relationship, indicating that Psychological Capital mediates the connection between Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness. Additionally, the research highlighted notable differences in Job Embeddedness among different age groups, with older employees demonstrating significantly higher embeddedness levels compared to their younger counterparts.

In conclusion, this research emphasises the interplay between Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital in driving Job Embeddedness among Higher Education employees. It also underscores the age-related variations, emphasising the heightened levels of embeddedness observed among older employees.

*Keywords:*

Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Capital, Job Embeddedness, Higher Education Institution, Age Differences

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## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Introduction and problem statement

Employees are essential to the optimal functioning and survival of any organisation. According to Roberts (2013), an organisation's effectiveness is dependent upon its capacity to hire, grow, cultivate, and retain professional employees. Hence, employers are increasingly recognising the importance of investing in the recruiting, developing, and retaining of skilled employees to gain a competitive advantage (Bibi et al., 2018). Regardless of the time and resources invested by employers in recruiting competent employees, retention is emerging as one of the most critical global challenges confronting organisations today (Bhavani et al., 2023). In the South African context, the expense of a poor recruit is calculated to be five times the employee's annual salary. Additionally, 36% of organisations report a negative effect on staff morale and community as a result of poor hiring (Jääskeläinen, 2015).

Many of these obstacles result from economic uncertainty, a competitive global environment, and emerging technologies that are daunting to implement (Barkhuizen et al., 2013). Employers, however, continue to struggle to stay afloat and aligned in the VUCA (volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous) world of work (Biggane et al., 2017; Kinsinger & Walch, 2012). The impact of losing high-performing employees increases exponentially and retaining skilled employees has never been more critical than in today's business world, where the competition for talent is fierce and experienced and skilled employees have a broader range of employment opportunities (Iqbal et al., 2017). Given the labour market's diversity of employment opportunities, more talented employees find it challenging to remain committed to a single organisation when they have ample opportunities to seek better employment (Akgunduz & Cin, 2015).

Robyn (2012) and Brunello and Wruuck (2019) state that global skills shortages have resulted in an increase in career mobility opportunities for qualified knowledge workers, posing severe challenges. These challenges encompass the risk of losing valuable institutional knowledge and expertise, potentially decreasing intellectual capital. Moreover, finding suitable replacements for specialised academic or support

staff can be difficult, affecting programme continuity and quality (Boudreau et al., 2015). According to a Deloitte report, the global economy will be short of 40 million tertiary-educated workers, 45 million secondary-educated workers, and 95 million low-skilled workers by 2020 (Dobbs et al., 2012). China is expected to have a labour shortage of 24.5 million jobs, while Sub-Saharan Africa's population is expected to rise to 20% of the global workforce (Burnett et al., 2016). The unequal distribution of population-driven talent and job prospects indicates the possibility of a global supply-demand mismatch (Strack et al., 2014). The fourth industrial revolution increases the need for essential human skills commonly referred to as soft skills that include creativity, complex problem solving, relationship building, communication, emotional intelligence, empathy and critical thinking. In addition, there is also a growing need for courage, resiliency, adaptability, and resourcefulness (Marr, 2019).

Attracting skilled employees is a more significant challenge for businesses today. Employers highlighted their struggle with sustaining and convincing qualified employees to remain in the organisation and the high costs involved in hiring new employees (Biggane et al., 2016). This appears to be the reality in South Africa for various organisations, including Higher Education Institutions, hereafter referred to as HEIs. Research done indicates that talent retention and turnover are major concerns within the Higher Education context (Erasmus et al., 2015). Employees working within HEIs are burdened by increasing workloads, bureaucratic conditions, unfavourable working conditions, low and unappealing remuneration, and better opportunities elsewhere (Bushe, 2012; Selesho & Naile, 2014). Additionally, the Higher Education sector is faced with the challenge of losing highly qualified and young talented staff members, not only to the private sector but also to other institutions (Belete, 2018).

Barkhuizen et al. (2020) mention that employee turnover and talent retention are significant concerns for HEIs because they lose highly qualified employees to the private sector and other HEIs that can offer more attractive financial packages and benefits. Academics in HEIs are constantly under pressure to perform daily tasks, manage workloads, and deal with role ambiguity and workplace conflict (Yusoff & Khan, 2013). Additionally, the internationalisation of the industry, budgetary constraints, rising student enrolment, and their detrimental effect on teaching and workload place additional strain on academics (Rose & Sika, 2019). South Africa's

higher education system has changed dramatically over the last few decades, with many changes owing to globalisation, technological advancements, and socio-economic shifts (Barkhuizen et al., 2013). Additionally, the recent impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on HEIs acted as a catalyst for blended learning. This swift transition required both teachers and students to quickly adapt to new digital tools and teaching approaches, further complicating operations in higher education globally (Sanz et al., 2020). As a result, the majority of academics globally were forced to provide online learning without adequate training, funding, or planning time; despite being loaded with a variety of new tools; they were forced to digitize their course materials and/or produce new materials (Sobaih et al., 2020). Other concerns raised by academic staff include the unexpected demand to shift to online teaching, blurred lines between work and home, social disconnection from students, increased administrative responsibilities, and insufficient organisational support (Twenge & Joiner, 2020). Both students and lecturers grappled with the demands of operating within a volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous environment. As we move beyond the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, it is essential to recognise that the shift to blended learning, which it accelerated, continues to necessitate the skillsets and adaptability responses outlined above. While the context may evolve, the importance of equipping educators and students with the tools to thrive in a digitally enhanced educational landscape remains pertinent. Moreover, considering that a majority of the workforce confronts socio-economic uncertainty in an ever-changing professional landscape, it becomes evident that retaining critical talent is an imperative challenge that cannot be overlooked.

Furthermore, this shift towards blended learning aligns with the broader challenges facing South African HEIs. These institutions struggle to fill critical positions requiring specific skill sets and to manage employee development expectations and talent demographics in general (Pila et al., 2016). According to Erasmus et al. (2015), approximately 51% of academics do not intend to stay with their current employers until retirement. However, employee turnover can be beneficial to organisations, as a low turnover rate may indicate organisational stagnation. As employees depart, space is created not only for new talent, but also for the organisation to diversify its workforce and offer promotion opportunities to those who remain (Curran, 2012). Therefore,

employers must replace undesirable employees with new hires who can add value to the organisation.

In light of this, HEIs are currently on the lookout for individuals with unique skill sets to match the rapidly changing nature of work in the sector. However, according to a recent study by Khalid and Nawab (2018), 42% of HE employees actively seek new opportunities, with 19% of these employees having worked at universities for less than two years. This means that HEIs are at risk of losing newly hired critical talent due to better career opportunities elsewhere, increased compensation, a broadening of current responsibilities, or boredom with the current position (Samuel & Chipunza, 2013). Despite the new developments in higher education, the sector requires motivated and talented employees to ensure sustainability and high-quality education, even as most institutions move online. As a result, HEIs must realign their retention practices to accommodate the growing use of new technology and blended learning systems in order to avoid losing highly skilled and valuable talent (Salman et al., 2014).

Today's organisations face new challenges due to external forces such as changing demographics, globalisation, technological advancement, and an increasingly diverse workforce, necessitating management to implement successful effective talent management strategies to remain competitive (Koyuncu et al., 2006; Whitfield & Landeros, 2006). Retention of talent in South Africa and globally is becoming increasingly critical in a world where the intellectual capabilities of organisations are rapidly becoming critical to maintaining a competitive edge (Baral, 2014). Additionally, an increasing number of businesses recognise the importance of unleashing their employees' untapped potential in order to compete successfully in an increasingly competitive global economy (Strydom, Schultz & Bezuidenhout, 2014). In this regard, it is critical to understand the forces that keep employees in their current jobs to attract and retain talented employees (Claus, 2019; Kurdi et al., 2020).

However, HEIs are particularly vulnerable to losing highly qualified employees because of lucrative private-sector job offers and headhunting by other HEIs (Aldhaen & Mahmood, 2020). Therefore, it is critical for these institutions to retain the intellectual capital necessary to provide services to all stakeholders, including students, government, and the broader community (Takawira et al., 2014). Although numerous

studies on employee turnover have been conducted, evidence indicates that the turnover problem can be addressed effectively by exploring the concept of job embeddedness (Yavas et al., 2008; Zhao & Liu, 2010). Job Embeddedness enables researchers to examine on-the-job and off-the-job factors that determine why employees stay with their current organisations (Moses & Knutsen, 2012). Biggane et al. (2016) believe that Job Embeddedness is beneficial for organisations because embedded employees are more loyal than less embedded individuals; they perform more effectively and engage in higher organisational citizenship behaviour. Therefore, it is critical to explore the different methods that can be used to foster high levels of Job Embeddedness among employees.

In the context of this study, Job Embeddedness refers to the “collection of forces that can influence employees' decisions to remain with their organisation or job” (Yao et al., 2004, p. 159). Job Embeddedness is a relatively new concept that identifies three factors that influence an individual's sense of connection to their organisation (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). These three components refer to an individual's (a) relationships with other people, teams, and groups; (b) perceptions of their fit with the job, organisation, and community; and (c) beliefs about the sacrifices they would have to make if they left their jobs (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). A higher level of Job Embeddedness implies that employees or individuals would be more positive about their jobs and that they felt a strong fit with their organisation. This would make them less likely to contemplate leaving their current organisation for another organisation (Nafei, 2015). According to Nafei (2015), Job Embeddedness will allow the company to implement succession planning and grooming employees for future roles, enhancing human capital development and retention inside the organisation. The more employees or individuals are embedded in the organisation and their jobs, the better the fit they will have in terms of their knowledge, skills and talents required by their jobs (Nafei, 2015). However, in order to enhance the fit, there is need to restructure the job over time to align with individual skills and preferences. In this study, Job Embeddedness refers to the positive aspects of on-the-job experiences that keep individuals in the organisation.

Given the critical role of Job Embeddedness in employee retention and effective job performance, it is worthwhile to increase awareness of the importance of Job

Embeddedness in HEIs. Examining theories of Job Embeddedness reveals numerous opportunities for developing strategies that may motivate employees to stay with an organisation, thereby broadening the scope and depth of the existing literature (Sekiguchi et al., 2008; Zhao & Liu, 2010). Being proactive and cultivating positive organisational behaviours (POBs) may assist contemporary organisations in retaining top performing employees (Bonner, 2016).

Hom et al. (2012) recognise that increasing employees' psychological and personal resources can impact significantly on whether an employee stays with or leaves the organisation. Psychological Capital encompasses personal traits that significantly impact individual productivity (Gohel, 2012). A compelling correlation exists between Psychological Capital and Job Embeddedness, underpinned by the strategic utilisation of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities to enhance workplace performance (Luthans, Avolio et al., 2007). Psychological Capital, encompassing positive psychological resources like hope, optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy, plays a pivotal role in shaping an individual's positive psychological state, fostering attributes such as confidence, optimism, and perseverance in achieving work-related goals (Luthans & Youssef, 2007). This cultivation of a positive psychological state is instrumental not only in enhancing job performance but also in building a strong connection with one's job roles and organisational affiliations.

While Psychological Capital emphasises individual strengths, Emotional Intelligence encompasses a broader spectrum of mental and personal resources, including self-awareness, self-regulation, empathy, and social skills. These facets of Emotional Intelligence complement and amplify an individual's Psychological Capital, enhancing their ability to effectively navigate the complexity of the workplace and develop strong interpersonal connections. Hence, the interplay between Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence emerges as an important subject matter highlighting that individuals with higher levels of both Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence are more capable of assessing their commitment to the organisation, thereby promoting employee retention through a holistic approach based on positive psychological states. The complex interaction between Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence plays a crucial role in the overall concept of Job Embeddedness, which refers to the extent to which employees are connected to their

jobs and organisations. This connection is particularly important for employee retention within organisations (Kotze, 2018; Macky & Boxall, 2008).

Emotional Intelligence is widely recognised as a necessary characteristic and resource for employees, positively affecting employee well-being and service quality (Meintjes & Hofmeyr, 2018; Ramalisa et al., 2018). Emotional Intelligence is an important determinant in an individual's life success and affects a person's mental health and social status. The stronger the individual's ability to regulate emotion is, the more helpful it is for the individual to relieve stress and stabilise his/her emotional state (Gross & Thompson, 2007). Individuals possessing a higher level of Emotional Intelligence exhibit an increased ability to accurately perceive and assess their surroundings, demonstrate empathy toward others, effectively prioritise issues, and systematically structure their thoughts. Consequently, this aptitude for Emotional Intelligence contributes to fostering stability and happiness within the workplace, underlining its indispensable importance in both personal and professional spheres (Magnano et al., 2016). As a result, emotionally intelligent individuals are much more emotionally aware of their own emotions as well as those of other people. This awareness extends to both their own emotions and those of others, allowing them to be attuned to emotional cues and nuances in a particularly astute manner. They can manage their emotions effectively, possess motivation, and experience positive emotions, all of which enable them to expand their networks and strengthen organisational ties (Prins et al., 2018). Individuals with high Emotional Intelligence excel in managing their emotions, maintaining motivation, and fostering positive emotional experiences. This emotional competence enhances their ability to build professional networks and strong organisational bonds. Moreover, they navigate workplace interactions effectively, handle conflicts constructively, and adapt to changing dynamics. This emotional proficiency not only cultivates positive relationships within the organisation but also bolsters Job Embeddedness. When individuals experience positive emotions at work, connect well with colleagues, and feel capable of addressing challenges, they develop a strong attachment to their roles and the organisation, reducing the likelihood of turnover and contributing to employee retention. When individuals have good interpersonal relationships, they are more likely to feel that they belong to the team which strengthens teamwork, links and person-organisational fit. Positive emotions encourage increased energy investment, which is

critical for developing positive job attitudes, which influence organisational fit, a crucial element of Job Embeddedness. Sarrionandia et al. (2018) observe that individuals with a high level of Emotional Intelligence exhibit greater resilience because they can manage their emotions and strengthen their commitment to their organisations.

Scholars noted that individuals with a high level of Psychological Capital (hope, optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy) are more likely to remain connected to their respective organisations (Luthans et al., 2005; Luthans et al., 2015; Yao et al., 2004, as cited in Zhang et al., 2012). This phenomenon occurs because individuals with harmonious relationships with their coworkers are more inclined to engage in mutually beneficial cooperation, ultimately resulting in a better organisational fit and the development of deeper connections within the workplace (Sun et al., 2012). The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory of Hobfoll (2011) starts with the principle that individuals strive to retain and protect the things they consider important in their lives, and leaving the organisation entails a loss of resources for such individuals. According to this theory, employees do not want to experience loss of resources. Nafei (2015) notes that the Job Embeddedness components, like organisational links and fit, can be expanded through Psychological Capital.

Therefore, it may be worthwhile to examine the combined effect of Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence on Job Embeddedness in an HEI. The purpose of this study was to determine whether personal resource development can influence Job Embeddedness and result in increased staff retention. While numerous studies have attempted to identify the factors that influence employee retention (Biggane et al., 2016; Zhao & Liu, 2010), examining the influence of Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence on Job Embeddedness may provide additional insight and strategies for enhancing employee retention in HEIs. This made the planned study a worthwhile undertaking.

## **1.2 Delimitations of the study**

The study focused only on permanent employees working at the University of the Free State, South Africa. A sample of 229 individuals was selected from academic and support staff. Only those employees who are employed full time and willing to

participate in the study were selected. Additionally, the study only focused on investigating the possible associations between Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital as critical resources that promote Job Embeddedness among employees in an HEI. The study did not consider other factors that might have an impact on Job Embeddedness. The study also had time delimitations to help to narrow down the scope of the study and ensure that the research was feasible within the given time constraints.

### **1.3 Aim and purpose of the study**

The purpose of this study was to investigate possible associations between Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital as critical resources that promote Job Embeddedness among employees in an HEI. This comes about in relation to a recent study by Harunavamwe et al. (2020) which called for non-traditional indicators of employee turnover in an attempt to fill the current research gap.

### **1.4 Research questions**

From the preceding introduction and problem formulation the following research questions were identified:

#### ***1.4.1 Primary research question***

- Do Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital have an effect on Job Embeddedness among employees in an HEI?

#### ***1.4.2 Secondary research questions***

- Do age differences contribute to differences in Job Embeddedness among employees in an HEI?

### **1.5 Research objectives**

Based on the research questions outlined above, the following research objectives were formulated:

### **1.5.1 Primary research objective**

- To determine, by means of structural equation modelling, whether Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital have an effect on Job Embeddedness among employees in an HEI.

### **1.5.2 Secondary research objective**

- To determine, by means of a non-experimental research design, whether age differences contribute to differences in Job Embeddedness among employees in an HEI with regard to age?

## **1.6 Outline of the study**

The mini dissertation is presented as follows:

Chapter 1 provides a concise overview of what was investigated, background information about, and a rationale for carrying out the research. It introduces the study and describes the research variables, outlines the problem statement, research questions, research objectives, and research hypotheses that the study attempted to address.

Chapter 2 discusses Job Embeddedness as the dependent variable. This chapter includes the definition, theories describing job embeddedness, dimensions of Job Embeddedness, and the outcomes of Job Embeddedness.

Chapters 3 and 4 deal with Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital, the two independent variables, following the same approach as in the dependent variable.

Chapter 5 outlines the research methodology in terms of the selection of participants, the gathering of data, the measuring instruments used, and the statistical analysis carried out.

Chapter 6 presents the analysed data, their interpretation and discussion in the context of the problem statement, research questions, objectives, and hypotheses set at the

beginning as a guiding framework for the study. The concluding remarks include the limitations of this study and recommendations for future research on this topic.

## **1.7 Summary**

This chapter has reviewed and contextualised the research topic, which deals with Job Embeddedness, Emotional Intelligence, and Psychological Capital. It was emphasised that Job Embeddedness is important for competitive advantage of organisations. In a search for non-traditional indicator of Job Embeddedness and guided by the positive psychology paradigm, two psychological resources were identified. These are Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence. The main objective is the testing of a structural model depicting the relationship between these three variables. The following chapter provides an in-depth discussion on the variable Job Embeddedness.

## **CHAPTER 2: JOB EMBEDDEDNESS**

### **2.1 Introduction**

Job Embeddedness is a relatively new construct within industrial psychology that describes how individuals remain connected and secured to their organisation, even when experiencing dissatisfaction (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006; Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012). Many people remain with an organisation due to connections they have to people or community engagement activities in which they are involved (Sinclair et al., 2015). A study by Dysvik and Kuvaas (2013) suggests that the more connected people are professionally and socially, the more likely they are to stay in their organisation. Therefore, leaving a job often requires individuals to sacrifice job-related perks, routines, or social networks of worthwhile projects with which they have grown familiar (Denier, 2017).

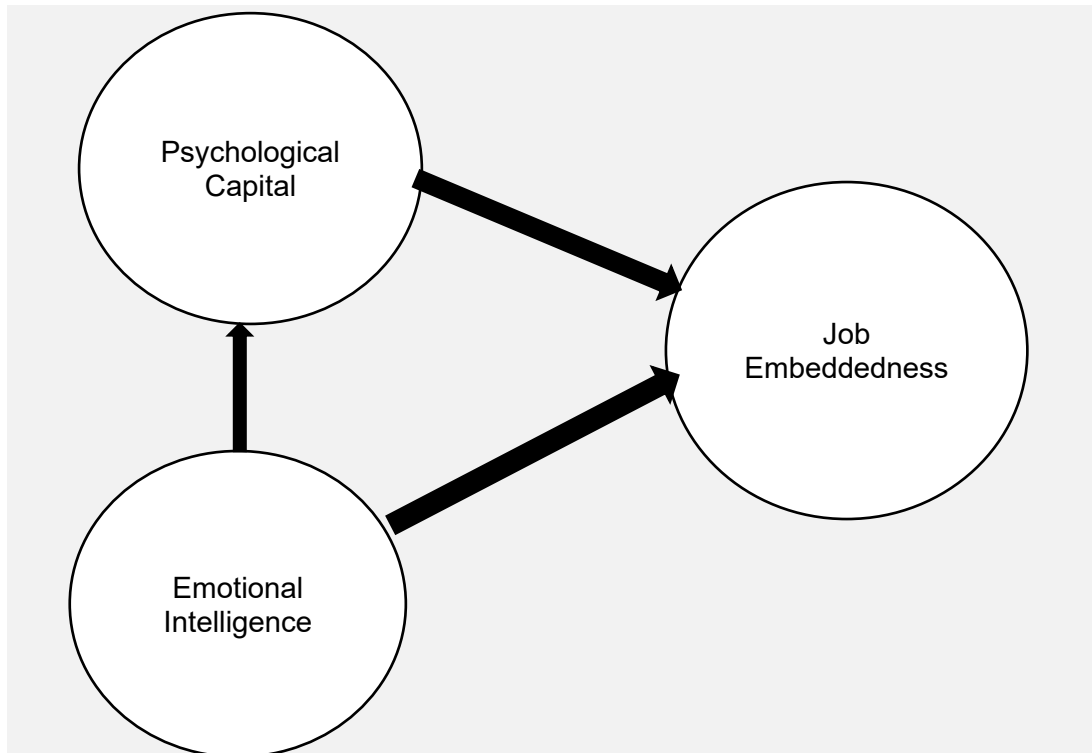
Critical talent within organisations is scarce, and workplaces face a considerable challenge in retaining such talent (Ganco et al., 2015). The costs associated with losing critical skills can severely impact on an organisation's sustainability and longevity (Baruah & Das, 2013). Rather than focussing on why employees leave the organisation, scholars shifted their attention to the new outlook, namely, to understand what motivates employees to stay (Moses & Knutsen, 2012). In this section, the conceptual model on the effect of Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital on Job Embeddedness is presented, this is followed by the conceptualisation of Job Embeddedness, its dimensions, theory and outcomes of Job Embeddedness.

### **2.2 Conceptual model of the effects of Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital on Job Embeddedness**

Figure 2.1 below illustrates the conceptual model that was used to empirically measure the effect of Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital on Job Embeddedness among employees in an HEI.

**Figure 2.1:**

*Conceptual model of the effect of Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital on Job Embeddedness*



### **2.2.1. Links between Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Capital, and Job Embeddedness**

The following section discusses the relevant links between the variables of this study. First, the effect of Emotional Intelligence on Job Embeddedness is discussed. This is followed by a discussion of the effect of Psychological Capital on Job Embeddedness. Thereafter, the indirect link is discussed, and it consists of the effect that Psychological Capital has on Emotional Intelligence, and consequently, on Job Embeddedness.

#### **2.2.1.1 Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Job Embeddedness**

According to Mohammad et al. (2014), individuals who display higher Emotional Intelligence levels can recognise emotions and thoughts accurately as they arise and control their reactions correspondingly, thus lessening the chances of making irrational decisions. The link is expounded on in the subsequent chapters.

### **2.2.1.2 Effect of Psychological Capital on Job Embeddedness**

Both Job Embeddedness and Psychological Capital are constructs within the domain of Positive Organisational Behaviour (POB), a field of study that focuses on understanding and promoting positive aspects within individuals and organisations (Harunavamwe et al., 2020). They influence each other and contribute to better performance (Crossley et al., 2007). Although very few studies have been published on the relationship between Psychological Capital and Job Embeddedness, it has been proven that employees with higher Psychological Capital experience a higher level of organisational commitment, and they also exhibit fewer turnover intentions (Avey et al., 2009; Luthans & Jensen, 2005). Individuals who possess a positive psychological state exhibit greater level of Job Embeddedness, indicating a stronger connection and commitment to their organisation and job roles. Additionally, their positive psychological state enhances their adaptability and competence within their positions. Consequently, there exists a reciprocal relationship between these two constructs, whereby they directly and indirectly influence one another. Therefore, positive psychology elements such as optimism, self-efficacy, hope, and resilience are all positively related to Job Embeddedness (Sun et al., 2012). The link with Psychological Capital is further discussed in the subsequent chapter.

### **2.3 The nature and definition of Job Embeddedness**

Job Embeddedness is relatively new and still somewhat vague in its definition. The concept was introduced by Mitchell and Lee (2001) as a new conceptual framework to explain why individuals stay in organisations. The construct was derived from Lewin's (1951) field theory, and it represents a broad constellation of influences on an employee's intent to stay on the job, such as bonds with co-workers, a high degree of fit between one's skills and the demands of the job, and organisation-community service activities (Holtom et al., 2006). Individuals involved in a broader range of work-related roles, responsibilities, and relationships are more likely to be embedded in their jobs and organisations (Burton et al., 2010). Furthermore, highly embedded individuals are more involved in their organisations and have high expectations to connect with colleagues and teams (Sekiguchi et al., 2008).

Job Embeddedness is defined as on-the-job and off-the-job factors associated with individual links, fit, and sacrifice (Fuchs, 2022). It refers to the collection of forces that influence employee retention and emphasises all factors that keep an employee in the job, rather than the psychological process one goes through when quitting (Zhang, 2013). This definition assumes that the more the organisational links, the better the organisational fit, the more the organisational sacrifices that need to be made, the more likely that an employee will stay in a job. According to the Job Embeddedness theory, for an employee to stay, their values, career goals, and future must fit well with the broader corporate culture and the demands of their immediate job, such as job knowledge, skills, and abilities (Swider et al., 2011).

The Job Embeddedness theory asserts that employees remain with an organisation because they have several formal or informal connections with their co-workers and friends, and they want to take advantage of the various opportunities available within the organisation or in the surrounding community.

## **2.4 The Underlying Theory of Job Embeddedness**

According to Zhao and Liu (2010), two previous ideas help to explain the core of Job Embeddedness, which are embedded figures and field theory (Lewin, 1951). Five decades later, in 2001, Mitchell and Lee (2001) developed the Job Embeddedness theory based on Lewin's (1951) field theory. Below is a description of the two theories and an explanation of the composite construct of Job Embeddedness.

### ***2.4.1 Lewin's field theory and the embedded figures***

Two well-known research bodies, namely Lewin's (1951) field theory and the research on the embedded figures test (Sekiguchi et al., 2008), inspired the development of theories that explain Job Embeddedness. Lewin (1951) proposed that embedded figures, which refer to a picture used in psychological tests, are images that are enveloped in their backgrounds. Thus, Lewin (1951) suggests that employees see themselves tangled in a network of forces and connections. The self may be loosely or firmly attached to various factors in the environment. Therefore, according to this theory, job embeddedness can be described as a web of constraining forces that

causes an individual to become stuck in different aspects of their life, such as a job or family, or even community.

#### **2.4.2 Theory of Job Embeddedness**

Mitchell and Lee (2001) further built on the Job Embeddedness theory, to explain why employees stay in their organisations, as well as to improve the traditional employee turnover models that had failed to predict turnover. According to this theory, for an employee to stay, their personal values, career goals, and future plans must fit well with the larger corporate culture and the demands of their immediate job, such as job knowledge, skills, and abilities (Swider et al., 2011). The better the fit, the higher the likelihood that an individual will feel professionally and personally tied to the organisation. Many threads that link an employee and their family to the social, psychological, and financial web sustain this, which include work and community (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). The aspect of sacrifice implies that leaving an organisation result in the perceived cost of physical or psychological benefits that are forfeited by departure, including losing contact with colleagues, non-portable benefits, valuable projects, and perks. The more one has to give up when leaving, the more difficult it is to sever employment with the organisation (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). This theory has been supported by several researchers, indicating that Job Embeddedness explains what is described by job satisfaction and organisational commitment when predicting variance in individual turnover across diverse populations (Swider et al., 2011).

In this theory, Mitchell and Lee (2001) describe Job Embeddedness as a net or web in which an individual can become entangled. It implies that employees stay in the organisation because they have many formal or informal connections with their co-workers and friends and want to benefit from various opportunities in the organisation or the community at large. The Job Embeddedness theory also contends that employees fit with the job, and the organisation encourages them to stay on the job if they can use their skills well (Swider et al., 2011). Likewise, Holtom et al. (2006) state that a highly embedded person could experience more disruption if they were to sever ties with the organisation. The authors crystallised theory around Job Embeddedness, focusing on staying through their premise on links, fit, and sacrifices. Therefore, the

theory postulates that Job Embeddedness refers to a relatively new construct that examines an individual's

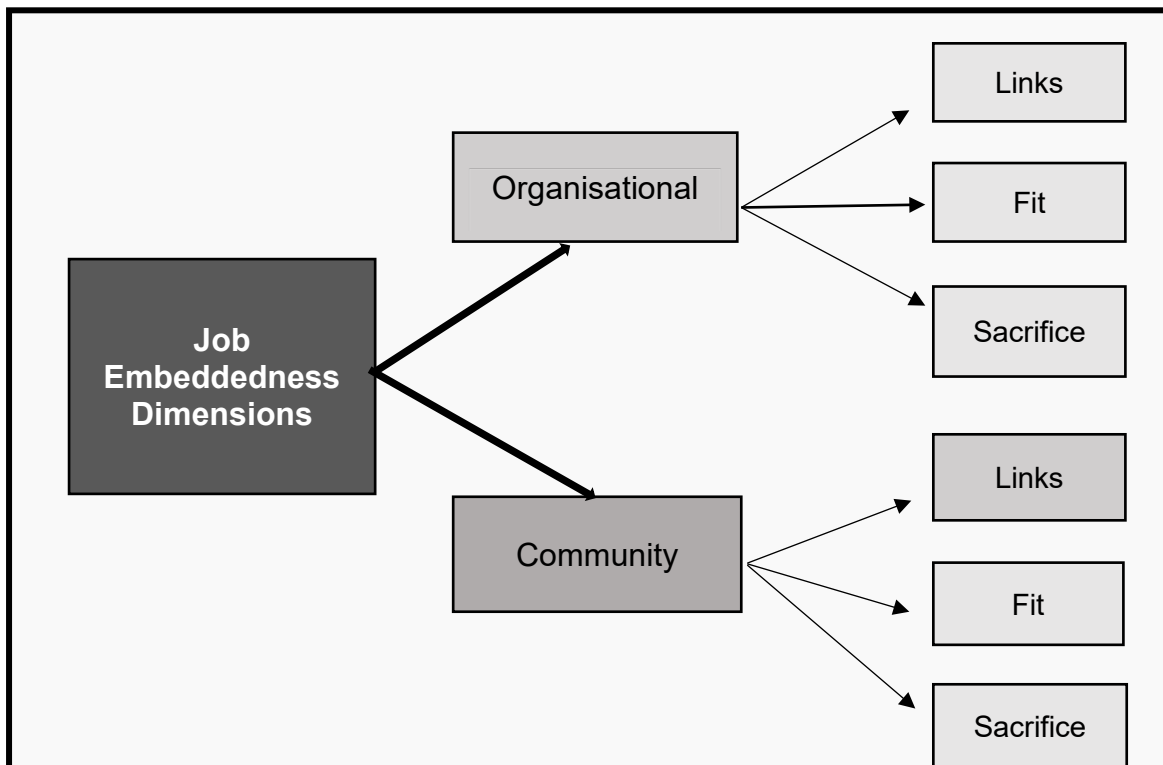
- links to other people, teams, and groups;
- perceptions of individuals fit with the job, organisation, and community; and
- belief about what they will have to sacrifice if they leave their job.

## **2.5 Dimensions of Job Embeddedness**

According to Holtom et al. (2006), the construct of Job Embeddedness signifies various influences that impact on the retention of employees. In other words, the extent to which the applicable job and community factors relate or fit the individual's life, the number or extent of links that the individual has to applicable activities and other individuals, and what would be sacrificed if the person left the organisation (Holtom et al., 2006). These three components form a three-by-two matrix associated with an individual's organisation and community, which further suggests six sub-dimensions, including fit-organisation, fit-community, links-organisation, links-community, sacrifice-organisation, and sacrifice-community (Kiazad et al., 2015). However, while Job Embeddedness comprises three-by-two dimensions, organisational and community embeddedness (Mitchell & Lee, 2001), researchers discovered that organisational dimension better predicts most organisational outcomes than does the community dimension (Lee et al., 2004). In addition, in the event where job relocation is not a factor, this organisational dimension better predicts employee retention than the community dimension (Coetzee, 2015; Jiang et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2004). Therefore, for this study, examination of Job Embeddedness components was limited to the organisational dimension. Hence, the focus was on only three organisational aspects (links, fit, sacrifice in the organisation).

**Figure 2.2:**

*Dimensions of Job Embeddedness*



Source: Mitchell and Lee (2001)

Figure 2.2 explains how employees perceive their organisations and community through links, fit, and sacrifice. Organisational links refer to several threads that link an employee and their family to the social, psychological, and financial web. Links suggest that employees who have more established relationships with others and who engage in job-related activities would have increased embeddedness (Nafei, 2015). This web may include the relationships an individual has with co-workers (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Consistent with this, the social exchange theory indicates that relationships evolve into trusting, loyal and mutual commitments if the parties abide by specific “rules” of exchange (Swider et al., 2011). When such relationships are healthy, they become tough to break; hence, individuals stay longer.

On the other hand, a person who has a relatively isolated job, with few friends or connections to a project or people, will experience less disruption in their web should they decide to leave (Hom et al., 2012). Based on the above definition, Job Embeddedness can be viewed as a state of abundant resources (Halbesleben &

Wheeler, 2008), and therefore aligns with Hobfoll's (2002) notion of a resource caravan. Based on that school of thought, the links component of Job Embeddedness represents person-to-person relationship resources (Mitchell & Lee, 2001).

Sacrifice refers to what one may lose if one leaves the organisation and may include perceived costs of material or psychological benefits, losing contact with colleagues, non-portable benefits, valuable projects, and perks. The more one has to give up when leaving, the more difficult it is to discontinue employment with the organisation (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). The higher the level of sacrifice, the more embedded the employee will be to their organisation (Holtom et al., 2006; Nafei, 2015). Therefore, the theory suggests that Job Embeddedness refers to (1) individuals' links to other people, teams and groups in the organisation; (2) individual perceptions of fit with the job, organisation and community; and (3) the belief about what they would have to sacrifice if they were to leave their job.

Organisational links refer to the formal and informal networks that employees establish and maintain with other employees, more significant teams, or departments that would keep an employee attached to a particular position due to the fulfilment experienced (Holtom et al., 2006). Organisational fit refers to the perceived compatibility between an individual and an organisation, which includes the individual's values, short and long-term goals, and the organisation's immediate demands and culture (Holtom et al., 2013). Organisational sacrifice focuses on the employee's material and psychological perceived losses when leaving an organisation or a job. These can be various factors, including losing certain financial advantages, friendships, or good connections with other employees and a sense of pride in specific organisations. When an employee feels that they would sacrifice too much by leaving a particular job, the chances are less for the employee to quit their job (Holtom et al., 2006; Mitchell & Lee, 2001).

Community links refer to the bonds that individuals form within their community with other people or groups, including family, friends, church, and other recreational activities that would make them less likely to leave an organisation (Holtom et al., 2006; Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Community fit refers to the degree to which an individual is embedded within the community where they live and cultural norms within the

community, the demographics, and perceived safety of living arrangements (Holtom et al., 2006; Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Community sacrifice refers to the extent to which an individual will sacrifice leaving a specific community when relocating for a different job. It also refers to the bond that the individual perceives in terms of the environment, safety, basic needs provided, and the respect they receive from the community. The perceived sacrifice will be less when an individual only leaves a job but does not necessarily have to relocate and live in a different area or environment (Holtom et al., 2006; Mitchell & Lee, 2001).

## **2.6 Outcomes of Job Embeddedness**

The fit component describes the sense of belonging that an employee feels in the workplace or company. The sacrifice component relates directly to the primacy-of-loss tenet of the COR theory. Employees faced with the threat or actual loss of resources without replenishment are more likely to be motivated to protect and discretionally invest the remaining resources (Hobfoll, 2002). However, Job Embeddedness resources are restricted to the organisation and the position that one occupies. Therefore, when an individual moves to another organisation, they cannot move the links with other people (Khandelwal & Khanum, 2017). The perceived fit also necessarily changes because of the new work environment (Hobfoll, 2002).

Job Embeddedness is a strong predictor of several positive job outcomes, including employee attendance (Lev & Koslowsky, 2012) and retention (Mallol et al., 2007) as compared to the well-known and accepted psychological explanations, such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Jiang et al., 2012). Several studies show a positive relationship between Job Embeddedness and performance (Karatepe, 2016; Karatepe & Karadaş, 2012; Nafei, 2015). Given the importance of Job Embeddedness in organisations, improving personal resources can expand both links and fit.

## **2.7 Antecedents of Job Embeddedness**

Some variables have been identified as precursors to Job Embeddedness and these are discussed in the next section.

Some demographic variables have been identified as precursors to Job Embeddedness, and these include age, gender, race, and educational level. In terms of age, which is part of this study, Tanova and Holtom (2008) suggest that older employees are less likely to change jobs than their young counterparts. Reitz et al. (2010) state that more senior employees are more likely to remain employed in their current organisation than younger employees. In a recent survey by Takawira (2012), young employees emerged to be more likely to take risks at the beginning of their careers and not willing to stay with one organisation for long. They are also more likely to accept positions below their abilities and expectations at the beginning of their careers and move on to better jobs when those jobs become available.

A study by Mallol et al. (2007) identified Job Embeddedness as a predictor of employee retention across culturally diverse populations. In a cultural diversity and job embeddedness study, Gong et al. (2011) report that speaking the employee's mother tongue may be associated with recognition from other colleagues. It may also lead to a higher sense of fit, more informal links between employees, and better relations with supervisors, leading to higher Job Embeddedness. In a study conducted by Tanova and Holtom (2008), they found that male participants are more likely to leave their jobs than female participants. Lev and Koslowsky (2012) support this finding and argue that females are more attached to their jobs. However, Shafique et al. (2011) did not find differences in Job Embeddedness and intentions to leave between male and female employees.

A study carried out by Griffin and Moorhead (2014) concluded that there is a relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit across four career stages. Similarly, Schen et al. (2014) posit that there was a relationship between organisational identification, perceived organisational support, and work outcomes. Kang et al. (2015) highlight a positive correlation between organisational commitment, career satisfaction and intention to quit, whereas Rainayee (2013) postulates that job stress and perceived alternative employment opportunities were the significant predictors of intention to quit.

## **2.8 Job Embeddedness in the Higher Education Setting**

In the past two decades, HEIs in South Africa have grappled with a series of transformative changes, intensifying the challenges faced by an already strained HE system (Teece et al., 2016). Tettey (2010) sheds light on the difficulties confronted by academic staff in universities, which encompass a doubling of student-staff ratios, currently standing at 39:1. Furthermore, the recruitment and retention of academic staff pose persistent challenges in South Africa, mirroring global trends (Pienaar & Bester, 2006). Muller (2013) and Kanfer and Ackerman (2004) further note that a significant proportion of lecturing staff in South African universities are aging, with a shortage of younger individuals entering academia. Additionally, Martin and Roodt (2008) contend that there is a pressing need for additional research within HEIs to comprehensively examine the turnover behaviour of academic staff.

## **2.9 Summary**

This chapter provided an in-depth exploration of the concept of Job Embeddedness, with a specific focus on its nature, various definitions, models, and key components. It also delved into the outcomes associated with Job Embeddedness and strategies for its improvement. Throughout this discussion, Job Embeddedness was examined through the lens of relevant theoretical frameworks, encompassing multiple dimensions. The significance of Job Embeddedness in contributing to the success of organisations was underscored. These insights lay the foundation for future research endeavours, particularly in uncovering the complex connections between Job Embeddedness, Emotional Intelligence, and Psychological Capital. This forthcoming exploration holds great promise, equipping organisations with invaluable insights to thrive in an ever-evolving world.

## CHAPTER 3: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

### 3.1 Introduction

The concept of Emotional Intelligence is a relatively new construct in the field of behavioural science (Matthews et al., 2012). It has garnered considerable interest among researchers over the last few decades due to its relevance in explaining its effect on workplace attitudes (Bal & Firat, 2017). According to James et al. (2012), current widespread interest in Emotional Intelligence is attributed to the growing importance of positive psychological states and flourishing in the workplace. Emotional Intelligence is widely recognised as one of the human strengths and abilities that contribute to positive organisational behaviour, optimal employee functioning, work engagement, and ultimately, workplace flourishing (Prins et al., 2018; Schutte & Loi, 2014).

The study of Emotional Intelligence has grown in popularity in recent years as evidence has emerged linking the concept to numerous benefits for both the individual and the organisation (Marembo & Chinyamurindi, 2018; Mwangi, 2014; Prins et al., 2018; Schutte & Loi, 2014). Emotional Intelligence has been found to be connected with a number of positive intrapersonal outcomes (Nel, 2019; Prins et al., 2018; Schutte & Malouff, 2011). These include an increase in subjective well-being as measured by positive affect and life satisfaction, and better mental health (Martins et al., 2010; Schutte et al., 2007). Emotional Intelligence is also associated with a variety of interpersonal outcomes, including better interpersonal relationships and more relationship satisfaction (Lopes et al., 2003). Woods (2014) discovered that individuals who are highly emotionally intelligent perceive themselves to have more social support and are satisfied with the support. Additionally, favourable workplace outcomes for individuals with high Emotional Intelligence levels have been reported in a study conducted by Palmer et al. (2005). They found that highly emotional intelligent individuals are more likely to perform better quality of service, report a lower rate of absenteeism, demonstrate a higher level of organisational commitment, and are less likely to be affected by highly stressful situations in the workplace (Elfenbein, 2006; Palmer et al., 2005).

### 3.2 The nature and definitions of Emotional Intelligence

The term Emotional Intelligence was coined by Peter Salovey of Yale in 1990 (Weisinger, 1998). Interest in the topic was further stimulated by the publication of Goleman's book, *Emotional Intelligence* in 1995, and has received increasing attention in recent years (Emmerling et al., 2008). According to James et al. (2012), the current widespread interest in Emotional Intelligence is a result of the increasing importance placed on positive psychological states and flourishing in the workplace. The positive states originate from positive psychology and positive psychology is concerned with the human strengths and abilities that contribute to adapting, well-being and flourishing (Antonioni & Cooper, 2016). Emotional Intelligence is widely recognised as one of the human strengths and abilities that contribute to positive organisational behaviour, promote optimal employee functioning, work engagement, and consequently workplace flourishing (Prins et al., 2018; Schutte & Loi, 2014).

Prins et al. (2011) assert that Emotional Intelligence is a multidimensional construct that encompasses both emotions and intellect. As a result, emotions and intelligence are combined to perform more sophisticated information processing than either could do alone (Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Wall, 2007). According to Prins et al. (2018) as well as Shipley et al. (2010), the definition and boundaries of Emotional Intelligence are still evolving and even disputed. Furthermore, the concept is ambiguous, and arriving at a universal definition is difficult because different researchers focus on different skills and aspects when conceptualising the concept. Some focus on self-control, while others may focus on empathy (Wall, 2007). There are competing definitions of Emotional Intelligence, which fall into two dominant models in the Emotional Intelligence landscape: ability models and mixed models (Herman, 2012). The definitions provided by Salovey and Mayer (1990), Goleman (1995), and Bar-On (1997) are the most prominent and are discussed further below.

Bar-On (1997) defines Emotional Intelligence as a collection of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that contribute to an individual's ability to cope successfully with environmental demands and pressures (Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Prins et al., 2011). According to Bar-On and Parker (2000), Emotional Intelligence is a predictor of life success and has a direct effect on an individual's general

psychological well-being and health. Bar-On views Emotional Intelligence in conjunction with other essential determinants as a prerequisite for life success. These important determinants include an individual's biomedical predispositions and conditions, cognitive and intellectual capacity, as well as the limitations and realities of the changing environment in which they live (Prins et al., 2011).

Mayer and Salovey (1997, as cited in Shipley et al., 2010) define Emotional Intelligence as the capacity to perceive and express emotion accurately, assimilate emotion into thought, comprehend emotion, and regulate emotions in oneself and others in order to foster emotional and intellectual development. The capacity to recognise emotion in oneself and others is referred to as perceiving emotion. Facilitating emotion is the ability to use information that explains felt emotions to prioritise and direct thinking (Ackley, 2016). The capacity to comprehend emotion is the ability to comprehend the relationships between emotions and the processes by which emotions transition from one state to another. Regulating, or managing, emotion is the capacity to control one's own and others' emotions (Shipley et al., 2010).

Goleman (1995) defines Emotional Intelligence as the ability to recognise and regulate emotions in oneself and others to perform successfully at work. Goleman identifies five components under the definition: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills (Toyama & Mauno, 2017). Self-regulation, motivation, and self-awareness relate to personal competence and social skills and empathy fit into social competence (Ackley, 2016). According to Al Mazrouei et al. (2015), personal competencies refer to an individual's ability to manage oneself, whereas social competencies refer to an individual's ability to manage emotions in others. In summary, Emotional Intelligence manifests when an individual demonstrates capabilities such as self-awareness, self-regulation, empathy, motivation, and social skills that are appropriate for the situation at hand (Boyatzis et al., 2000; Prins et al., 2011).

For the purpose of the study, Goleman's (1995) definition was used which describes Emotional Intelligence as "the capacity to recognise and regulate emotions in oneself and others in order to perform successfully at work" (Prins et al., 2011, p. 48). As indicated in the preceding paragraph, Goleman (1995) identifies five components that

correspond to the five components of Emotional Intelligence that can be assessed within HEIs.

### **3.3 Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence**

Goleman (1998, as cited in Nel et al., 2015) defines Emotional Intelligence as consisting of five dimensions: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. Prins et al. (2011) emphasise the importance of measuring, developing, and managing these components for effective work performance. The following section discusses the dimensions of Emotional Intelligence mentioned previously.

#### **3.3.1 Self-awareness**

According to Mayer et al. (2016), self-awareness is a critical component of Emotional Intelligence. It refers to the ability to recognise and comprehend individual emotions, as well as the awareness of the impact of one's actions, moods, and motivations on other people (Ackley, 2016). Individuals with a high level of self-awareness understand the impact of their emotions on their actions and words and are unambiguous about their values and goals (Codier et al., 2013). Bhootrani and Junejo (2016) argue that maturity in self-awareness is demonstrated by confidence and humour, making one aware of the impact of their impression on others.

#### **3.3.2 Self-regulation**

Self-regulation is defined as the ability to manage disruptive emotions and impulses, remain calm and composed in unstable situations, and respond appropriately (Lam et al., 2018). Ackley (2016) emphasises the importance of self-regulation in coping with stressful situations. According to Prins et al. (2011), self-regulation enables individuals to respond appropriately to any situation. According to Bhootrani and Junejo (2016), individuals who are mature in self-regulation demonstrate conscientiousness and accept personal responsibility for their work. Self-regulation is made up of five competencies: self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, and innovation (Ackley, 2016).

### **3.3.3 Motivation**

Motivation is a term that refers to emotional predispositions that facilitate goal attainment (Bhoostrani & Junejo, 2016). Goleman (1998, as cited in Cherniss & Goleman, 2001) views it as the inner drive to work with a tendency to achieve goals with energy and persistence. Individuals with a high level of this competency act with faith in their ability to succeed rather than the fear of failure (Putra et al., 2017). According to Bhoostrani and Junejo (2016), mature individuals demonstrate initiative, are committed to completing a task and persevere in the face of adversity. Motivation comprises four competencies, namely achievement drive, commitment, initiative, and optimism.

### **3.3.4 Empathy**

Empathy is the capacity to comprehend and share the emotional experiences of others (Mayer et al., 2016). Cherniss and Goleman (2001) define it as an awareness of the needs, feelings, and concerns of another person. It enables an individual to comprehend verbal and non-verbal expressions of emotion and the relationship between others' emotions and behaviours (Prins et al., 2018). The dimension of empathy consists of five competencies: understanding others, developing others, service organisations, leveraging diversity, and political awareness (Ackley, 2016). Bhoostrani and Junejo (2016) point out that maturity in empathy is shown through the ability to perceive other people's emotions and taking an active interest in their concerns.

### **3.3.5 Social skills**

The term social skills refer to the abilities required to manage and influence the emotions of others effectively (Mayer et al., 2016). It encompasses the ability to address problems without degrading others, to channel one's negative emotions in such a way that they do not obstruct collaboration. Bhoostrani and Junejo (2016) indicate that maturity in this trait is shown through the following eight competencies: communication (listening and responding appropriately), influence (ability to manage own and others' emotions and build support), leadership (the ability to guide and inspire others), conflict management (ability to use persuasion and negotiation to deal

with difficult situations). The three dimensions (self-awareness, self-regulation, and motivation) are classified as personal competence, which refers to self-management, while the other two (social competence and social skills) are classified as social competence, which refers to relationship management (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). The five dimensions of emotional intelligence are self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, social competence, and social skills, and serve as emotional quotient indicators.

### **3.4 Approaches to Emotional Intelligence**

According to Nel et al. (2015), two models dominate the field of Emotional Intelligence, and these are the ability model and the mixed model. The ability model emphasises mental ability, which is a product of emotion and intelligence (Nel et al., 2015; Prins et al., 2011). The mixed model takes into account an individual's cognitive ability, personality factors, and social circumstances that may affect an individual's emotional intelligence (Nel et al., 2015). Thus, the mixed model is a synthesis of traits, social behaviours, and competencies (Prins et al., 2011). The most prominent hybrid models of Emotional Intelligence are Goleman's competency-based Emotional Intelligence model and Bar-On's emotional-social intelligence (Prins et al., 2011). On the other hand, the most widely used ability model is the one developed by Salovey, Mayer, and Caruso Ability (Nel et al., 2015). These models are discussed in greater detail below.

#### **3.4.1 *The Goleman Model (The Emotional Competencies Model)***

The Emotional Competency model introduced by Daniel Goleman focuses on Emotional Intelligence as competencies that enable individuals to recognise, manage their own emotions and those of others, and motivate themselves successfully (Ackley, 2016). In working with emotional intelligence, Goleman (1995) examines the role of Emotional Intelligence on the job and asserts that it is the strongest predictor of workplace success. Goleman (1995) categorises 18 competencies into four clusters that enable individuals to demonstrate Emotional Intelligence and interpersonal relationships (Ackley, 2016). Self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management are the four broad categories. As previously stated, these four competencies are classified as social and personal competencies (Prins et al., 2011). According to Goleman, Emotional Intelligence is demonstrated when an

individual demonstrates effective self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills at appropriate times (Ackley, 2016; Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

### **3.4.2 The Bar-On model**

Bar-On's (1997) theoretical approach to Emotional Intelligence is broader and more comprehensive. From Bar-On's point of view, emotional-social intelligence is a blend of personal and social competencies – skills that determine how individuals understand and express themselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands (Bar-On, 2005; Bar-On & Parker, 2000). Similarly, Prins et al. (2018) argue that the model considers Emotional Intelligence as a component of overall personality development. Furthermore, the model encompasses emotional abilities, personality, motivation, and dispositional affect, which Bar-On coined as non-cognitive emotional competencies (Ackley, 2016). Bar-On identifies 16 emotional skills grouped into five categories scales, which are self-perception, self-expression, interpersonal, decision-making, and stress management (Ackley, 2016).

Self-perception is concerned with an individual's innermost feelings and with how that individual assesses their inner strength and self-confidence. It also includes how one understands and can discriminate between different emotions being experienced (Lawal & Idemudia, 2017). Self-expression is a natural extension of self-perception and is concerned with the manner in which individuals express their thoughts and feelings and also with the expression of emotions in a constructive and socially desirable manner (Prins et al., 2018). The interpersonal dimension consists of empathy, feelings for others, communal obligations, and interpersonal interactions (James et al., 2012). Decision-making refers to the process by which individuals utilise emotional information to make sound judgments. Additionally, it encompasses the degree to which an individual comprehends how their emotions influence decision-making (Ackley, 2016). The stress management component refers to an individual's capacity to manage and cope effectively with stress and it involves the effective management of emotions in order to facilitate rather than hinder performance (Prins et al., 2011). According to Ashraf et al. (2014), the skill enables individuals to cope with or mitigate the physiological and emotional consequences of home and work life.

It is argued that individuals with a high level of stress tolerance are hopeful and resilient in the face of adversity (Prins et al., 2011).

### **3.4.3 Mayer-Salovey model**

The model defines Emotional Intelligence as the ability to perceive, understand, manage, and use emotions to facilitate thinking (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The Mayer-Salovey model of Emotional Intelligence is commonly referred to as the “Ability Model of EI”. The model assumes that emotions and thoughts interact adaptively. The model proposes four significant dimensions that contribute to the explanation of emotional intelligence. These aspects are as follows: perceiving and expressing emotion, assimilating emotion into thought, understanding emotion, and reflecting emotion regulation, which will be defined below.

To begin, perceiving and expressing emotion requires the ability to recognise and discriminate between emotions in self and others. This encompasses bodily expressions, emotions, and thoughts, as well as the behavioural manifestations of others, such as facial expressions, body movements, and tone of voice (Prins et al., 2011). Second, assimilation of emotions into thought refers to the process of utilising and directing emotions to aid in thought processes (Prins et al., 2018). Ackley (2016) refers to this as thought facilitation, and it includes the ability to redirect and prioritise feelings, as well as the ability to produce emotions to aid in judgement. Third is understanding of emotions, which refers to the capacity to comprehend the causes and effects of emotions accurately, as well as how emotions transition from one to the other (Grewal & Salovey, 2005; Nel, 2019). Additionally, it requires the ability to label emotions/feelings. Reflective regulation of emotions refers to the process of managing emotions in self and interaction with others by taming negative emotions and promoting pleasant ones without suppressing any information they may convey (Salovey et al., 2007). The self-knowledge and social awareness possessed by the individual shape how emotions are managed. The objective is to manage emotions in self and others in order to accomplish desired goals and interactions with others (Bhootrani & Junejo, 2016).

The Emotional Competencies model by Goleman (1995) was used as the basis for the study. The model emphasises emotional intelligence as a wide range of competencies and skills that drive employee performance (Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Goleman et al., 2013). The model is consistent with the proposed definition for the study. Additionally, it corresponds to the dimensions of the assessment tool for emotional intelligence. Moreover, the model was created with workplace applications in mind (Mwangi, 2014).

### **3.5 The relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness**

A study conducted by Lee and Chelladurai (2017) indicates that Emotional Intelligence influences workplace attitudes such as job satisfaction, turnover intention, and leadership style. In addition, Polychroniu's 2009 study highlights a significant link between Emotional Intelligence and leadership styles, demonstrating that the way leaders lead can profoundly affect how well their teams perform. Leaders with higher Emotional Intelligence often exhibit more effective leadership styles, displaying empathy and strong communication skills that foster positive team relationships. This indirectly influences Job Embeddedness by contributing to a positive work environment, job satisfaction, and improved coworker relations. Employees who perceive their leaders as emotionally intelligent and supportive tend to feel a stronger sense of belonging and alignment with the organisation's values, ultimately influencing their Job Embeddedness. Additionally, leadership style's role in shaping coworker relations, a component of Job Embeddedness, underscores its relevance in enhancing employees' attachment to their jobs and organisations. Ultimately, a profound sense of organisational fit is a central component of Job Embeddedness, as it solidifies employees' commitment to their roles and organisation, reducing the likelihood of turnover and enhancing their embeddedness in their jobs. Leadership style is part of co-worker relations which might impact organisational fit. According to Mohammad et al. (2014), there is a correlation between a high level of Emotional Intelligence among employees and a lower turnover intention to leave. They argue that employees who exhibit a high level of Emotional Intelligence are less likely to consider quitting their jobs, because their emotional competencies equip them to effectively manage stress, engage in constructive problem-solving, derive satisfaction from their work, contribute positively to the organisation, and endure challenges with resilience. These factors collectively reduce their inclination toward turnover intention. Employees with higher

Emotional Intelligence possess enhanced emotional understanding and management skills, enabling them to effectively handle workplace challenges and interpersonal dynamics. This enhanced emotional awareness equips individuals to effectively manage stress, resolve conflicts, and maintain a positive mindset, thereby decreasing the likelihood of job dissatisfaction and turnover intentions. Additionally, individuals with higher Emotional Intelligence can better regulate their emotional responses to work-related situations, resulting in reduced negative emotional states and increased positive emotions, ultimately contributing to higher job satisfaction. In essence, Emotional Intelligence furnishes individuals with the emotional competencies required to navigate workplace complexities, foster positive relationships, and bolster job satisfaction, consequently diminishing the inclination to leave their jobs. Hence, high Emotional Intelligence can positively impact better organisational fit. Moreover, Sy et al. (2006) fully support the thesis that emotional intelligence and job satisfaction are related.

Moreover, Yip et al. (2019) argue that a deficiency in Emotional Intelligence can lead to suboptimal decision-making, characterised by an inaccurate assessment of one's physiological responses. In the context of the workplace, this maladaptive decision-making can result in unfavourable outcomes, such as contemplating job resignation, reacting disproportionately to challenges, and ultimately increasing the likelihood of employee turnover. Additionally, individuals with limited Emotional Intelligence may face difficulties in cultivating strong interpersonal relationships with their colleagues, which heightens the risk of making decisions that weaken their attachment to the job and the organisation. This maladaptive decision-making behaviour can manifest as resigning from one's job or reacting excessively to adverse circumstances, impeding the development of robust professional connections. Based on the conservation of resource theory, it is argued that Job Embeddedness is most likely to occur in situations where inner resources are abundantly received, and since Emotional Intelligence can aid in the accumulation of resources, one would expect such individuals to build stronger ties with their organisations (Mohammad et al., 2014). Since motivation is a sub dimension of Emotional Intelligence, one would argue that these individuals possess a high level of Emotional Intelligence, and such individuals can relate well with others and build strong bonds. Additionally, individuals with a high level of Emotional Intelligence may generate more excitement at work by fostering an

understanding and acceptance of their surroundings and those of others. According to these analyses, a high level of Emotional Intelligence promotes positive employee work behaviour, which is expected to result in stronger ties with the organisation and work colleagues.

### **3.6 The relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital**

To date there seems to be only a few studies focusing on the Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence relationship. A study by Tugade and Fredrickson (2004) found that resilient individuals use positive emotions to bounce back from negative emotional experiences. Individuals who are resilient are usually optimistic as they find positive meaning in negative circumstances. Similarly, Ignat (2010) found positive and significant relationships between Emotional Intelligence and self-efficacy, high life satisfaction, a healthy way of coping with stress. In addition, findings from a study by Mellão and Mónico (2013) highlighted a direct relationship between Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence. The study pointed to a significant and high correlation between two variables. Malik and Masood's (2015) study also found significant correlations between Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence.

### **3.6 Summary**

In this chapter, the first independent variable, Emotional Intelligence, was explored. A brief introduction was given to introduce the construct, followed by discussions of the nature, definitions, components, and models of Emotional Intelligence. To conclude the chapter, the relationship between Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Capital and Job Embeddedness was briefly discussed. Emotional Intelligence was defined according to the conceptual model of Goldman. The study follows the view of the mixed models and broader individual characteristics. Emotional Intelligence is an important concept for individuals and organisations and is expected to correlate with the other two variables in the model. The subsequent chapter reviews the literature on Psychological Capital, the study's second independent variable. The subsequent chapter reviews the literature on Psychological Capital, the study's second independent variable.

## CHAPTER 4: PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

### 4.1 Introduction

For many decades, psychology has mostly dealt with treating psychiatric illnesses, even though other fields of study and practice have occurred since its inception (Luthans & Youssef, 2007). In 1998, Martin Seligman developed Positive Organisational Behaviour (POB) to change the focus from mental illness to mental health to improve human capacity (Seligman, 1998). In 1999, Fred Luthans introduced positive psychology into the organisation and started the POB research work. Based on positive psychology constructs and empirical research, Luthans et al. (2004) identified the four psychological resources that best fit the POB scientific requirements: hope, efficacy, resilience, and optimism, described as Psychological Capital (Psycap). As a result, Luthans et al. (2004) introduced Psychological Capital as one of the fundamental constructs of POB that works well with employee well-being. Psychological Capital is entrenched in the positive psychology movement, emphasising the concepts of strengths, excellence, thriving, happiness, flourishing, resilience, and optimal functioning (Donaldson & Ko, 2010).

The study of Psychological Capital in the workplace has received significant research interest over the years and has been considered as a strategic resource for competitive advantage (Harris, 2012). The psychological dimensions of Psychological Capital have been associated with overall workplace behaviour and performance (Luthans, Youssef et al., 2007), such as higher job satisfaction, work happiness, and organisational citizenship (Avey, Luthans & Youssef, 2010; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Psychological Capital management can channel and develop employees' talents, strengths, and potential, thereby assisting them in achieving a sustainable competitive advantage for the organisation (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Consequently, Psychological Capital has been found to affect variables such as job satisfaction and employee well-being (Avey, Luthans, Smith et al., 2010; Luthans et al., 2008). Additionally, several dependent variables of Psychological Capital, such as stress and turnover intentions, have been confirmed (Luthans & Jensen, 2005). However, according to Luthans, Avey et al. (2007), despite Psychological Capital receiving considerable attention over the past few years, the concept still requires further

investigation. This is to ascertain its value to broaden employee behaviour and incorporate a constructive schema for management practices.

#### **4.2 Nature and definition of Psychological Capital**

Luthans and Youssef (2007) proposed Psychological Capital as a higher-order, multidimensional construct characterised by four psychological resource capacities: self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience. Psychological Capital emphasises an employee's positive characteristics and strengths and their contribution to their psychological development and job performance (Luthans et al., 2008). Psychological Capital was initially defined as the study and application of positive human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be quantified, developed, and managed effectively for performance improvement in the modern workplace (Luthans, et al. 2007). Luthans et al. (2005) define Psychological Capital explicitly as the fundamental psychological components of individuals' general positive nature, expressly characterised as the state of mind necessary to perform at a level consistent with positive organisational standards. This definition outlines explicitly that psychological capital is beyond human and social capital and has the potential to provide individuals with competitive advantages through targeted input and development.

After two years of extensive research and practice in the field of Psychological Capital, Luthans, Avolio et al. (2007) developed a detailed definition of Psychological Capital as the individual's positive psychological state of development, which comprises four underlying constructs, namely hope, optimism, resiliency, and self-efficacy. They further explained the dimensions, defining (1) self-efficacy as the belief in one's ability to achieve a goal and make the necessary effort to succeed; (2) optimism as making a positive attribution about succeeding; (3) hope as persevering towards goals, and when necessary, redirecting paths to goals to succeed; and (4) resiliency as when confronted with adversity, still bouncing back to attain success (Mortazavi et al., 2012). This study utilises the definition provided by Luthans, et al. (2007), because it is consistent with the work of other scholars (Mortazavi et al., 2012), and explains the four individual components of Psychological Capital used to measure the construct comprehensively.

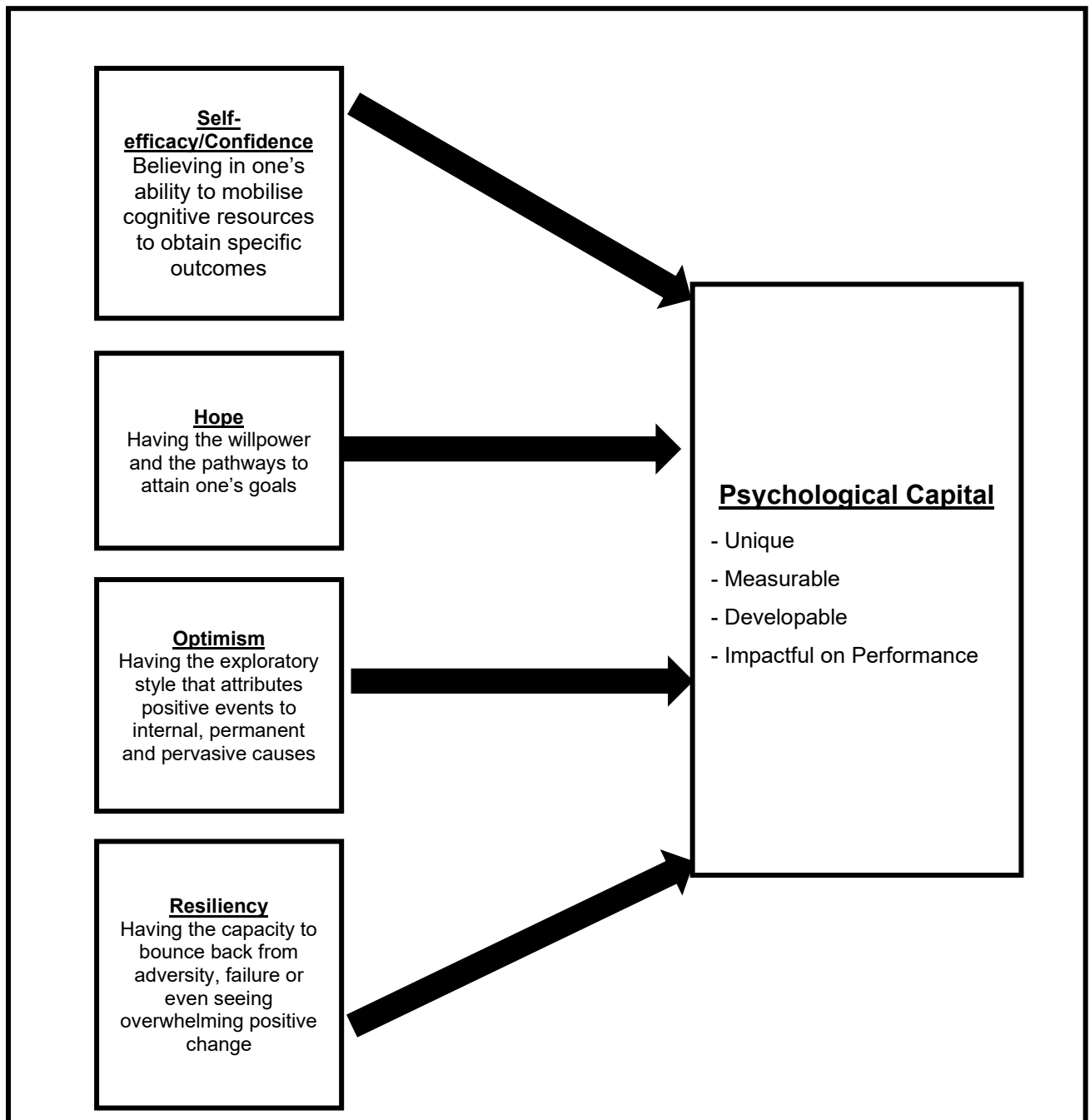
According to Gohel (2012), psychologists identify Psychological Capital as personal characteristics that contribute to an individual's productivity. Psychological Capital can be referred to as the study and application of positively oriented individuals' strengths and psychological capacities that can be quantified, developed, and managed effectively for performance improvement in today's workplace (Luthans, et al., 2007). It can also be defined as an individual's positive psychological state of development, which is characterised by (1) "having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks, (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future, (3) persevering towards goals, and when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) to succeed, and (4) when affected by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resiliency) to attain success" (Luthans & Youssef, 2007). Several essential characteristics define Psychological Capital, which include the following: (1) it is dependent on positive psychology paradigm; (2) it involves psychological situations based on positive organisational behaviour or positive organisational behaviour criteria; (3) it goes beyond human capital ("what we know") and social capital (for example "who we know") while expressing "who we are"; and (4) comprises investments and improvements that lead to performance development and competitive advantage (Luthans et al., 2005).

### **4.3 Dimensions of Psychological Capital**

Psychological capital has received considerable research attention in the workplace in recent years and has been linked to overall workplace attitudes and performance (Nelson & Cooper, 2007; Wright & Cropanzano, 2007). Luthans and Youssef (2004) illustrate this in the Figure 4.1.

**Figure 4.1**

*Dimensions of Positive Psychological Capital*



Source: Luthans and Youssef (2004, p. 152)

### **4.3.1 Self-efficacy**

The first dimension of Psychological Capital is self-efficacy, which focuses on Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory. Bandura (1997) first described self-efficacy as beliefs in one's capacity to organise and carry out the courses of action necessary to achieve specified outcomes, however, when applied in the workplace context. Self-efficacy was identified as a critical component of Psychological Capital in several meta-analyses reports since it was shown to be closely and positively linked to work-related performance (Malinowski & Lim, 2015). Self-efficacy has also been linked to the socialisation and retention of new employees and the organisational commitment and turnover intentions of existing staff (Bauer & Erdogan, 2014). Boudrias et al. (2020) also found that positive psychological constructs such as self-efficacy could affect occupational stress, burnout, and work engagement positively.

### **4.3.2 Hope**

The dimension of hope is characterised as the positive motivational energy produced as a result of an interactively derived sense of effective agency and pathways and consists of two dimensions, namely pathways and willpower (Snyder, 2002). As Simons and Buitendach (2013) indicate, willpower is an individual's determination to achieve goals, while "way power" refers to one's ability to develop alternative pathways and contingency plans to achieve a goal in the face of obstacles. Hope encourages individuals to be inspired to succeed in their current endeavours by developing innovative solutions to problems (Atik & Erkan Atik, 2017; Çam et al., 2020). Researchers discovered that hope predicted job performance beyond cognitive ability and self-efficacy (Peterson et al., 2009). Hopeful individuals persevere in achieving their objectives, defending their feelings of vulnerability, uncontrollability, and unpredictability, and maintaining employee well-being (Thakre & Mayekar, 2016).

### **4.3.3 Optimism**

Optimism refers to an employee who has a positive outlook and a tendency to see positive events as manageable (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). It is characterised as an attributional style in which positive events are explained in terms of personal, permanent, and pervasive causes, while adverse events are described in terms of

external, temporary, and situation-specific causes (Peterson et al., 2011; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). As noted by Luthans and Youssef (2007), optimism is both realistic and flexible. It is associated with a positive outlook but is not an unchecked process without realistic evaluation (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007). Individuals with an optimistic outlook view setbacks as challenges and opportunities that can eventually lead to success (Luthans et al., 2005). Optimism is associated with a variety of positive workplace outcomes, including job satisfaction, job performance, organisational commitment, and work happiness (Luthans et al., 2005; Youssef & Luthans, 2007) which correlate with work engagement and employee performance (Arakawa & Greenberg, 2007).

#### **4.3.4 Resilience**

Resilience is defined as the ability to recover or rebound from adversity, conflict, failure, or even positive events, progress, and increased responsibility (Luthans, 2002). According to Luthans, Avolio et al. (2007), resilience is the ability to recover from adversity and progress and increase work. Resilient people use adversity as a springboard to higher ground and gracefully deal with setbacks (Masten, 2001; Tugade et al., 2004). According to Luthans, Avolio et al. (2007), there may be links between resilience, commitment, and work engagement, and Youssef and Luthans (2007) discovered a positive relationship between resilience and work happiness. Furthermore, research has linked resilience to improved coping mechanisms and behaviours that promote growth and development (Luthans, Avolio et al., 2007).

#### **4.4 Theories Underlying Psychological Capital**

Psychological Capital is a multidimensional construct comprising four components: self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resiliency, and can be defined as who a person is and what they can become (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007; Luthans et al., 2006). According to Luthans et al. (2005), Psychological Capital is a psychological resource that can contribute to growth and performance at the individual level, while at the organisational level, it can provide a return on investment and competitive advantage through improved employee performance.

#### **4.4.1 Broaden-and-build theory**

According to Fredrickson's (2004) broaden-and-build theory, positive emotions function in the short term to broaden one's thought-action repertoire and, as a result, build a person's cognitive, social, psychological, and physical resources in the long term (Fredrickson, 2001). The tendency to experience positive affect is proposed to be central to one's ability to flourish, prosper mentally, and grow psychologically (Rothmann & Cilliers, 2007). The broaden-and-build theory postulates an upward spiral in which positive emotions and broadened thinking also influence each other reciprocally, leading to improved personal resources and emotional well-being (Fredrickson, 2004).

According to Fredrickson (2004), positive emotions have the ability to transform people, making them happier, more socially integrated, more informed, increasing efficacy, broadening focus and thought, fuelling psychological resilience, building wealth, and seeding human flourishing. As a result, investing in Psychological Capital could yield significant returns in addition to more conventional forms of capital investment (Luthans et al., 2006). The broaden-and-build theory suggests that, whereas negative emotions narrow focus and attention and prepare the body to respond to or avoid a specific challenge, positive emotions broaden attention, focus, cognitive processing and lead to flexible, approach-based response tendencies (Fredrickson, 2001). This is a fundamental theory that is relevant to this study, considering that the research hypothesises that Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence are two critical psychological resources that promote Job Embeddedness.

#### **4.4.2 Holistic model of positivity**

The holistic model of positivity explains the mechanisms that define the manifestation of intentional behaviours (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). These behaviours deviate honourably from the norm of a reference group in order to achieve spectacular results, surprising outcomes, extraordinary achievement, and exceptional performance, all of which contribute to organisational success (Cameron, 2008). Beyond ordinary success or effectiveness, positive deviance encompasses all facets of life, including work, relationships, and health, all of which contribute to well-being. As a result, it is known as the H-R-W model. According to this model, effective positive intentions result

in increased work performance, improved physical and mental health, and the development of positive relationships both within and outside the organisation (Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

#### **4.5. Origins Model of Psychological Capital**

The model of Psychological Capital and its components emphasise that, in hypercompetitive business environments, Psychological Capital is a critical construct that contributes significantly to organisational performance (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). The model clearly defines the components and provides information on the outcomes based on the findings of previous researchers. Experts in the field emphasise the importance of further research into the concept to generalise its effects on a variety of work-related variables across various work contexts (Avey et al. 2008; Avey et al., 2011; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Notable researchers supported the positive research trend, arguing that psychologists have a limited understanding of the valued subjective experiences that contribute to desired organisational outcomes and psychological health (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Consistent with this, Wright (2003) further suggests that the emphasis on negative aspects of human nature is one of the reasons why much applied psychological research is seen as having little relevance to organisational scholarship and that it is time to shift the focus to more positive approaches.

Fortunately, Luthans (2002) work has contributed significantly to the integration of positive psychology into the organisational context and to the initiation of POB research. Building on the foundation laid by Seligman (1998), Luthans (2002) argues that the time is ripe for a study of POB that goes beyond the popular style of self-help publications for practising managers and instead focuses on research-backed, theoretically sound solutions to real-world problems (Luthans, 2002).

#### **4.6 The link between Psychological Capital and Job Embeddedness**

The construct Psychological Capital has been shown to predict a wide range of work-related behavioural and attitudinal outcomes in a large body of literature (Avey et al., 2008). Several research findings note that Psychological Capital is related to positive organisational outcomes and negatively related to adverse organisational outcomes

(Chen & Lim, 2012; Kappagoda et al., 2014). Psychological Capital has been related to increased job performance across various measures of performance and sources of performance ratings. It has also been related to job satisfaction, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviours (Avey et al., 2011; Youssef & Luthans, 2013). Moreover, on several occasions, Psychological Capital is negatively related to undesirable phenomena, such as cynicism, turnover intentions, stress, anxiety, and deviance (Avey et al., 2011; Kappagoda et al., 2014). Furthermore, Psychological Capital was also found to be negatively related to alternative job search behaviours (Avey et al., 2009).

#### **4.7 Summary**

This chapter examined various definitions, theories underlying Psychological Capital, dimensions of Psychological Capital, as well as the determinants, outcomes, and measurement thereof. The study follows the view of the mixed models which include the Broaden-and Build Theory. Psychological Capital is expected to correlate with Job Embeddedness and Emotional Intelligence. The following chapter discusses the research methodology used in this study.

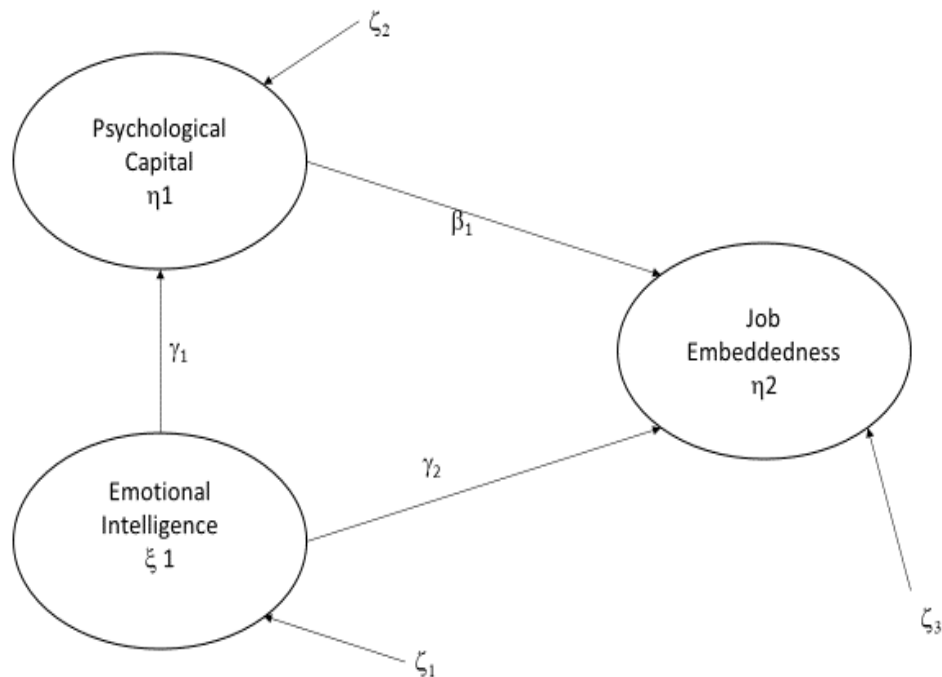
## **CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter describes the methods used to study the effects of Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital on Job Embeddedness among employees working in an HEI. It provides an overview of the research design, including an overview of the measures taken to ensure that the study was conducted ethically, as well as a description of the participants and sampling method. Furthermore, this chapter outlines the data collection and analysis procedures adopted for the purposes of this study. In consideration of the aim of the study, an explanatory, non-experimental, ex-post facto research design was used. Using questionnaires as the main tool for data collection, this study was quantitative in nature. The ethical considerations of the study are also described.

**Figure 5.1**

*Structural Model of Psychological Capital, Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness*



Overall Model fit is the first hypothesis to be tested. To measure close fit, a Chi-square is used and if the RMSEA is smaller or equal to .05 then this reflects a significant indication of close fit.

**The following research hypotheses were identified.**

### **Hypothesis 1**

#### **Null hypothesis $H_{01}$**

- The proposed structural model of Job Embeddedness, Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital does not demonstrate close fit.

#### **Alternative hypothesis $H_{a1}$**

- The proposed structural model of Job Embeddedness, Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital demonstrates close fit.

The research hypothesis would be expressed in terms of the following close fit statistical hypothesis:

H01: RMSEA > 0.05

Ha1: RMSEA ≤ 0.05

## **Hypothesis 2**

### **Null hypothesis H<sub>02</sub>**

- Emotional Intelligence does not have a statistical significant positive effect on Psychological Capital.

### **Alternative hypothesis H<sub>a2</sub>**

- Emotional Intelligence has a statistical significant positive effect on Psychological Capital

## **Hypothesis 3**

### **Null hypothesis H<sub>03</sub>**

- Emotional Intelligence does not have a statistically significant positive effect on Job Embeddedness.

### **Alternative hypothesis H<sub>a3</sub>**

- Emotional Intelligence has a statistically significant positive effect on Job Embeddedness.

## **Hypothesis 4**

### **Null hypothesis H<sub>04</sub>**

- Psychological Capital does not have a statistically significant positive effect on Job Embeddedness.

### **Alternative hypothesis H<sub>a4</sub>**

- Psychological Capital has a statistically significant positive effect on Job Embeddedness.

## **Hypothesis 5**

### **Null hypothesis H<sub>05</sub>**

- There is no statistically significant differences in scores achieved on Job Embeddedness among employees in an HEI with regard to age.

### **Alternative hypothesis H<sub>a5</sub>**

- There is statistically significant differences in scores achieved on Job Embeddedness among employees in an HEI with regard to age.

### **Statistical hypotheses for the various pathways in the proposed model**

$$H_{02}: \gamma_1 = 0$$

$$H_{a2}: \gamma_1 > 0$$

$$H_{03}: \gamma_2 = 0$$

$$H_{a3}: \gamma_2 > 0$$

$$H_{04}: \beta_1 = 0$$

$$H_{a4}: \beta_1 > 0$$

### **Secondary research question hypotheses in statistical terms**

$$H_{05}: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4 = \mu_5$$

$$H_{a5}: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \neq \mu_3 \neq \mu_4 \neq \mu_5$$

## **5.2 Treatment of missing values**

Missing values were imputed via matching. Following the removal of cases containing strings of missing values and those failing to meet the cutoff criteria mentioned above, the dataset was examined for the number and characteristics of any remaining missing values in each item. The missing data in the dataset appeared to be entirely at random (MCAR) based on the limited number of missing values and their distribution. This means that the absence of data did not correlate with any variable in the dataset, as per the MCAR assumptions described by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Therefore, the probability of missing values for any specific variable was consistent across all cases (Van Buuren, 2012). Jöreskog et al. (2016) recommend using imputation by matching for handling missing data that is completely at random. According to this procedure, missing values are substituted with real values obtained from other cases with similar values on a set of matching variables.

## **5.3 Research strategy and design**

A research design is a framework that sets out a plan to collect and analyse data to address the problem under investigation (Leedy, 1997). Babbie and Mouton (2009)

note that to ensure that one obtains reliable and valid information in any study, one should adopt an appropriate research design. Suitable tools for data collection and analyses should also be chosen. Furthermore, the research design's objective involves planning, structuring, and implementing the study to maximise the findings' validity (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

An explanatory study using quantitative data was used for this study, using questionnaires as the primary tool for data collection. Explanatory studies aim to explain relationships among variables that are already well described. Quantitative research is defined in terms of how it offers complex and factual data (Barnham, 2014). A quantitative research approach refers to a study that collects evidence in numbers to answer a given research question (Neuman, 2007). Ex-post facto research is a method that can be utilised instead of an experiment to evaluate hypotheses about cause and effect in cases where it is not possible to control or modify the dependent variable. Kerlinger (1970) defines ex-post facto research as a study in which the independent variable or variables have already occurred, and the researcher begins with the observation of a dependent variable or variables. The researcher examines the independent variable or variables in hindsight for probable relationships to and impacts on the dependent variable or variables (Cohen et al., 2007).

This study's main purpose was to identify and understand the effects of Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital on Job Embeddedness for staff in HE. The central focus of this study was to assess model fit to understand the distinctions of the relationships. The quantitative research design was selected because it is suitable for studying the relationships between variables and constructs through numerical inferences (Swanson & Holton, 2005). The quantitative research method also allowed the researcher to use scientifically valid and reliable measures, making it possible for data to be analysed through numerical comparisons and inferences through statistical analyses (Minichiello et al., 1990).

#### **5.4 Selection of test persons**

The target group of this study constituted permanent employees working at the University of the Free State South Africa. Kline (2011) states that to get acceptable

results from structural equation modelling, a sample size of 200 individuals is required. A sample of 229 individuals was selected including both academic and support staff and was obtained by using a non-probability convenience sampling method. Convenience sampling refers to a sampling procedure in which the researcher selects any participants based on their availability and willingness to participate in the study (Babbie & Mouton, 2015). Only employees who were willing to participate were used in the study, which means the probability of a person being selected could not be determined.

The basis for determining the sample was the ratio of the sample size to the number of estimated parameters. According to Smuts (2011), one would not regard a situation desirable in which more freed parameters have to be estimated than there are observations in the sample. Bentler and Chou (1987, as cited in Kelloway, 1998), recommend that the ratio of sample size to estimated parameters should range between 5:1 and 10:1. Taking this suggestion into account, the proposed model, while using item parcelling, had 30 parameters. A ratio of between 5:1 and 10:1 would yield a required sample size of about 150 to 300; hence the selected sample size of 229 was considered appropriate.

The criteria that qualified individuals to participate included that they have to be employed full-time, either in academic or support departments. Secondly, the researcher included participants representing the different age groups such as 18 to 25; 26 to 30; 31 to 40; 41 to 50, above 50 years present in the workplace.

## **5.5 Ethical considerations**

Professional competence and integrity are essential for ensuring high-quality research. Therefore, research must be conducted in an ethical manner (Shaughnessy et al., 2000). The information that follows covers the measures taken in accordance with the ethical and legal guidelines provided by the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA) (2006) and American Psychological Association (APA) (2010) to ensure that the research was conducted ethically. To comply with the ethical requirements, the following procedures were adhered to during the research:

- Before conducting this research study, approval from the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, as well as the Ethics Committee of the University of the Free State was obtained (ethical clearance number: **UFS-HSD2021/1688/21**).
- Informed consent, including information on the researcher, the purpose of the study, the potential benefits of the study, confidentiality, time required to participate in the study, voluntary participation, the use of information gathered, and the researcher's contact information, was obtained from all participants before gathering data.
- Participation in this study was voluntary.
- All data gathered were treated confidentially.
- The researcher will keep the original data for five years. The data will be stored and kept safe on a password-protected cloud system.
- All sources used were referenced explicitly.

The ethical guidelines and principles stipulated by the HPCSA and the University of the Free State's Department of Industrial Psychology formed the ethical basis of the study. Additionally, compliance with the Protection of Personal information Act (POPIA), Act No. 4 of 2013 (Republic of South Africa [RSA], 2013) shall be maintained in accordance with the General/Human Research Ethics Committee GHREC's requirements. Furthermore, informed consent and voluntary participation were followed.

- **Informed Consent** – Informed consent ensures that participants are aware of the importance of taking part in the study and should be in a position to decide whether to participate or not. A consent form was provided to the participants, indicating the purpose of the research and the research procedures that would be used. The participants were informed that their participation was voluntary and that they may withdraw at any time without penalties.
- **Beneficence** – This is about making sure that no harm comes to participants. Participants were informed of the nature, aims and objectives of the research. Additionally, they were advised that the information would

only be used for the purposes of the study and that they have the right to withdraw from the study at any time. The safety and psychological wellness of the participants were considered during data collection and the researcher did not use any offensive language. Participants were informed that participating in the study would hold no physical, psychological, and economic risk or benefit for them. Research reflexivity was used to prevent the researcher's position in the institution from influencing the interpretation of the study results by incorporating the supervisor's viewpoint for objectivity.

- **Confidentiality and anonymity** – Participants were respected throughout the research. They were advised that participation in the study was voluntary, and that confidentiality and anonymity would be maintained by avoiding using names or identifying criteria. Reference numbers were used instead of names. The personal information collected will be kept confidential and will not be shared.

## **5.6 Data collection and documentation**

Once permission had been obtained to gather data via the University of the Free State, the Research Information Management System (RIMS) office distributed the questionnaires on behalf of the researcher. To gather data, three standardised measuring instruments, including the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS), Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ), and the Job Embeddedness Scale (JES), along with a biographical questionnaire, were administered to the participants via EvaSys, which is an online survey tool.

Data collection only commenced on receipt of ethical clearance to conduct the research. Before data were gathered, ethical principles and guidelines related to the study were considered. The participants were required to complete all questionnaires, and clear instructions on how to complete the questionnaires were provided for each scale. The required instruments were sent to the participants, and participants were given one month to complete the surveys. All the basic steps of the project as well as confidentiality consent were highlighted in the letter of request.

The questionnaire contained an anonymity section that highlighted to the respondents that their names were not required in the questionnaire and that individual data would not be communicated to the management or the organisation. Thus, respondents were assured of the confidentiality of their responses. It was made clear that participation was voluntary and withdrawal at any time during the research project was guaranteed.

Upon completion of a questionnaire, all participant responses and data were sent directly to the principal researcher's encrypted database. This database was accessible only to the principal researcher, and all data will be stored electronically on a password-protected computer accessible only to the principal researcher. All electronic data collected from participants via questionnaires will be destroyed after five years. Pre-established scales with acceptable reliability and validity were used and comprised the scales discussed below.

### **5.6.1 *Biographical Questionnaire***

A biographical questionnaire was developed to gather information regarding the demographic characteristics of the participants. The information gathered in this section included age, gender, educational level, and job level in the HEI. The data gathered are discussed in detail in Chapter 6. The section below is a detailed description of each instrument that was used in the study.

### **5.6.2 *The Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS)***

#### **5.6.2.1 Nature and composition**

Emotional Intelligence was measured using the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS) which comprises 33 self-referencing statements and requires subjects to rate the extent to which they agree or disagree with each statement on a five-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*) (Ciarrochi et al., 2000). These self-report responses tap into the appraisal and expression of emotions in self and others, regulation of emotions in self and others, and utilisation of emotions in problem-solving (Schutte et al., 1998).

### **5.6.2.2 Reliability**

Schutte et al. (1998) claim that the SEIS may be both reliable and distinct from the Big Five personality factors. Jonker and Vosloo (2008) conducted a study on the SEIS and reported that acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained on the SEIS factors. Furthermore, Ciarrochi et al. (2002) also conducted studies into the reliability of the SEIS factors and found them to be considerably lower than the full measure's reliability, which has proven to be very reliable. Moreover, findings from studies on the SEIS indicate that it is a reliable emotional intelligence measure (Jonker & Vosloo, 2008). According to Schutte et al. (2009), the SEIS is indicated to be a reliable and valid measure, with a reported Cronbach alpha of .87. Schutte et al. (2009) published the alpha coefficients from 27 studies. They report that the mean alpha coefficient across these studies is .87, whereas Francis (2011) reports an alpha reliability coefficient of .81. Liau et al. (2003) discovered that the alpha coefficients were less than .80.

### **5.6.2.3 Validity**

In accordance with the research conducted by Ciarrochi et al. (2002), it was substantiated that the sub-dimensions encompassed within the SEIS exhibited an adequate level of discriminant validity, thus substantiating their classification as unique dimensions. Furthermore, Conte (2005) highlights the concern of construct validity for self-report emotional intelligence measures. It is essential to delve into the crucial aspects of model fit and factor structure, as these elements play a crucial role in validating the under-investigation constructs. It was revealed that managing own emotions (.51) and managing others' emotions (.25) correlated well with self-reported intrapersonal emotional intelligence (Freudenthaler et al., 2008). Previous research in structural equation modelling (SEM) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) has provided valuable insights into assessing model fit and factor structure. Researchers commonly consider thresholds such as a Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) above 0.90, a Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) below 0.08, and a Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) below 0.08 indicative of good model fit. Multigroup analysis is employed to evaluate model fit across different subgroups, while model modification techniques are used to improve fit if necessary. Factor loadings are crucial, with values above 0.60 indicating strong

relationships between observed variables and latent constructs. Researchers also scrutinize cross-loadings, as high cross-loadings may signify construct overlap. Recent studies explore higher-order, second-order, and bifactor models for representing complex relationships, and measurement invariance is emphasised to ensure consistent factor structures across groups or time points (Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1998; Kline, 2016; Reise, 2012). According to Schutte et al. (1998), the SEIS shows good results regarding reliability and predictive validity. The study of Schutte et al. (1998) shows that the measure indicated predictive validity where the emotional intelligence scores of newcomer college students predicted their end-of-year grade point average.

#### **5.6.2.4 Rationale for inclusion**

The SEIS was used for the current study because it is aligned with the theory discussed in Chapter 3 and the definition of emotional intelligence. Grant (2007) also found that emotional intelligence measured by the SEIS is indeed changeable and can be changed by focusing on specific behaviours related to emotional intelligence, such as coaching skills. Therefore, the chosen measure of emotional intelligence, the SEIS, was suitable for this study as it links well with the emotional intelligence model of Mayer & Salovey (1997). The scale was chosen because it has been shown to be valid and reliable.

### **5.6.3 *Psychological Capital Scale***

#### **5.6.3.1 Nature and composition**

The Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ) developed by Luthans, Avolio et al., (2007) was used (PCQ-24). According to Luthans et al. (2008), the PCQ draws widely from familiar published standardised measures of the construct of psychological capital. This scale comprises 24 items with a response format ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree, and the possible score on this scale ranges from 24 to 144. The four sub-dimensions of psychological capital, which include hope, resilience, optimism, and self-efficacy, are represented by six items, respectively. The four sub-scales were according to Görgens-Ekermans and Herbert (2013), the respective sub-scales have good internal consistency. Hope ranged between 0.72 -

0.80; optimism between 0.69 - 0.79; self-efficacy between 0.75 - 0.85, and resilience between 0.66 - 0.72.

### **5.6.3.2 Reliability and Validity**

Foxcroft and Roodt (2001) define reliability as the accuracy and consistency with which the intended measures are assessed. There are various methods for measuring the reliability of a measuring instrument, namely the Test-retest Method, Split-half reliability, Cronbach's alpha (Aron & Aron, 1999, cited in Paulse, 2005), alternate form and KuderRichardson Theory (Paulse, 2005; Van Zyl & Van der Walt, 1994).

In a study conducted by Luthans, Youssef and Avolio (2007), the PCQ overall had reliabilities of 0.89, 0.89, and 0.91 across three different studies. Given that each sub-scale has been derived from general theories and measures on hope, resilience, optimism, and efficacy in positive psychology, the PCQ fits within the definition of Luthans, Youssef and Avolio (2007). In a South African setting, Simons and Buitendach (2013) found high levels of internal consistency and reliability for the measuring instrument, Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ), and its sub-scales, hope, optimism, self-efficacy, and resilience. A reliability coefficient of 0.69 was also obtained in the South African sample (De Waal & Pienaar, 2013).

Luthans, Youssef and Avolio (2007) report in three different studies that the construct has strong external validity, face validity, content validity, discriminant validity and convergent validity. Other authors have found similar results across various studies that each of the components has demonstrated discriminant validity across multiple samples compared with each other (Bryant & Cvengros, 2004; Carifio & Rhodes, 2002; Magaletta & Oliver, 1999; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). The PCQ24 scale has demonstrated high reliability and validity in earlier studies (Avey, Luthans et al., 2010; Luthans et al., 2008).

### **5.6.3.3 Rationale for inclusion of measuring instrument**

The PCQ24 scale was used in the current study because it has demonstrated high reliability, adequate internal consistency, and construct validity as shown in earlier studies (Avey, Luthans & Youssef, 2010; Luthans et al., 2008; Luthans, Youssef &

Avolio, 2007). In addition, this scale is standardised to South African context research, and it is well aligned to the definition and theory adopted for the study, which summarises the four dimensions of Psychological Capital. Since the PCQ is based on theoretical factors, it is evident that this scale correlates with the definition by Luthans, Avolio et al. (2007). The PCQ measures the four dimensions within the definition, making the results coherent and accurate (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007).

#### **5.6.4 Job Embeddedness Scale (JES)**

The Job Embeddedness Scale (JES), which measures each respondent's job embeddedness dimensions, is discussed below regarding the nature and composition, reliability, validity, and rationale for inclusion.

##### **5.6.4.1 Nature and composition**

To assess Job Embeddedness, the JES developed by Mitchell et al. (2001) was used. The scale is a self-report instrument that includes three significant scales of Job Embeddedness dimensions: links, fit, and sacrifice. The response scale is scored on a five-point Likert scale, varying between poles of intensity, from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A higher response aggregate indicates higher levels of job embeddedness, and a lower response aggregate suggests otherwise (Takawira et al., 2014). The JES (Mitchell & Lee, 2001) allows for respondents to determine their Job Embeddedness on each dimension with regard to the organisation and community. However, in the present study, only organisational dimension was examined, because researchers have found that the organisational dimension better predicts Job Embeddedness than the community dimension (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Takawira, 2012). The scale was made up of 28 items: organisational fit was represented by nine items, for example "My co-workers are similar to me", organisational sacrifice by 10 items, for example "I would sacrifice a lot if I leave this job", and organisational links by nine items, for example "I feel a strong link with my organisation".

#### **5.6.4.2 Reliability and validity**

The JES reports acceptable internal consistency reliabilities for links  $\alpha = 0.68$ , fit  $\alpha = 0.87$ , and sacrifice  $\alpha = 0.86$ . (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Similarly, acceptable internal consistency reliability was yielded in a recent South African study done by Takawira (2012), reporting the following alphas: links = 0.79, fit = 0.81, and sacrifice = 0.88. With regard to validity, previous studies have reported a good validity of the JES, for example Burton et al. (2010), Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) and Holtom and O'Neill (2004).

Mitchell and Lee (2001) calculated the alpha reliabilities for each of the dimensions, not because they are particularly valid for causal indicators, but simply as some evidence that the items within a dimension are internally consistent. The reliability (using all the items) for two different population groups gave results 0.85 and 0.87 (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Other authors have also confirmed the measure to be reliable (Lee et al., 2004). Further discriminant and construct validity are also satisfactory as reported in the study by Crossley et al. (2007).

#### **5.6.4.3 Rationale for inclusion of measuring instruments**

Since the composite measurement scale is based on theoretical factors, it is evident that this scale correlates with the definition by Mitchell and Lee (2001). The three dimensions measured on organisational and cultural aspects fit within the definition proposed by Mitchell and Lee (2001). The JES composite measure was adopted for this study because compared to the global measure, it has the advantage of theoretical richness, and it also covers the components of Job Embeddedness previously discussed in the theory of Job Embeddedness. Lee et al. (2004) highlight that the scale was still preliminary and evolving, therefore in this study, the focus was on the items used in Mitchell and Lee's (2001) studies that primarily had the strongest face validity in the previous studies and had the least likelihood of overlap with other constructs. In addition, the JES has been proven reliable and valid in the South African context (Harris, 2012).

## 5.7 Statistical methods

Statistical methods encompass the techniques and procedures used to analyse and interpret collected data, with the goal of drawing reliable and meaningful conclusions. These methods are applied to various types of data, including information gathered through questionnaires, in order to classify and organise the data into estimates and distributions. By employing statistical methods, researchers can extract valuable insights from the collected data, identify patterns, make predictions, and make informed decisions based on the results (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005).

According to Cooper and Schindler (2008), data analysis entails the process of reducing a large volume of accumulated data to a more manageable size. This involves developing summaries of the data, identifying patterns, and applying statistical techniques to draw meaningful insights. Similarly, Babbie and Mouton (2015) emphasise that data analysis involves the transformation of extensive and intricate data into concise and manageable summaries, enabling researchers to gain a comprehensive understanding of the information at hand.

The present study reported on both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics were used to examine the central tendencies of the measurements and to assess the measures of validity. This allowed for a comprehensive understanding of the characteristics and properties of the data. Inferential statistics, specifically multiple regression analysis and the independent samples t-test, were utilised to draw conclusions and make inferences about the larger population based on the sample data. Multiple regression analysis examined the relationships between multiple independent variables and a dependent variable, while the independent samples t-test compared the means of two independent groups. Cronbach's alpha was used to assess instrument reliability, while confirmatory factor analysis was employed to establish instrument validity. These statistical techniques were crucial in ensuring the reliability, robustness, and accuracy of the research instruments in measuring the intended constructs. By applying these inferential statistical techniques, the study aimed to go beyond the descriptive analysis and explore relationships, differences, and potential predictors within the data.

### **5.7.1 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)**

In order to examine the data and explore the relationship between Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Capital, and Job Embeddedness, the researchers decided to utilise structural equation modelling (SEM).

SEM, as a statistical technique, allows researchers to examine relationships between independent and dependent variables in a comprehensive manner (Ullman & Bentler, 2003). Unlike traditional approaches, SEM considers multiple regression analyses and explores the entire system of direct and mediated relations within a causal structure, rather than focusing solely on isolated predictors (Savalei & Bentler, 2005). This technique is theory-based and widely recognised by researchers in the field (Diamantopoulos et al., 2000; Weston & Gore, 2006). By incorporating measurement error, SEM provides a more accurate assessment of the relationships between latent constructs and their observed indicators. This feature enhances the validity of the findings and enables a better representation of the underlying constructs. Moreover, SEM accommodates complex models with multiple exogenous and endogenous latent variables, allowing for the investigation of alternative explanations. This addresses the issue of "third" variables often encountered in bivariate studies and provides a more comprehensive understanding of the relationships among variables. In this study, the use of SEM offers a robust framework to analyse the intricate interplay between Psychological Capital, Emotional Intelligence, and Job Embeddedness, contributing to a deeper understanding of these constructs and their relationships.

According to Wong (2013), SEM is a second-generation multivariate data analysis method that is widely used to test theoretically supported direct and additive causal models (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004; Statsoft, 2013). SEM is still regarded as one of the most common methods that are used to study the separate and collective contributions of several independent variables to the variance of a dependent variable (Lumley, 2010; Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Through a procedure where models are built, scores are explained from both the dependent and independent variables (Lumley, 2010; Terre Blanche et al., 2006). In addition, Wong (2013) states that unobservable, hard-to-measure latent variables can be used in SEM, making it ideal for studies dealing with some research problems.

### **5.7.2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)**

Following the application of structural equation modelling (SEM) to analyze the complex relationships involving Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Capital, and Job Embeddedness, it is important to elucidate the use of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for addressing the secondary objective, which focuses on age differences.

ANOVA is a statistical tool employed to examine variations in a dependent variable—in this context, Job Embeddedness—across different levels or categories of an independent variable, such as age groups. Its primary purpose is to determine whether there are statistically significant differences in Job Embeddedness scores among distinct age cohorts within the study's participant pool.

By categorising study participants by age and conducting ANOVA, researchers can better understand the extent to which age plays a significant role in influencing Job Embeddedness scores. The use of ANOVA provides researchers with valuable insights into the relationship between age and the main constructs under investigation, enhancing our understanding of how Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital impact Job Embeddedness across different age groups in the workforce. This statistical technique allows for the extraction of meaningful findings regarding potential age-related variations in the relationships among these crucial variables, thus enriching the study's conclusions (Field, 2013; Hair et al., 2019).

## **5.8 Summary**

This study used a non-experimental survey in a quantitative study constructed to determine the effect of Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence on Job Embeddedness. In this chapter, emphasis was placed on the specific research methodology for this study. This included the size and method of sample drawing, the ethics pertaining to conducting this empirical research and measuring instruments used to gather the data. The various measurement instruments were discussed, namely The Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale, the Psychological Capital Scale, and the Job Embeddedness Scale. The chapter concluded with the discussion of both

the descriptive and inferential statistical methods that were used to test the relevant hypotheses of this study.

## **CHAPTER 6: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS**

### **6.1 Introduction**

Chapter 6 reports on the results and findings of the study. The chapter presents the results of descriptive statistics containing the respondents' biographical details and the averages and standard deviations of the different variables used in the analysis. It also presents the results of inferential statistics consisting of correlations, measurement reliability coefficients, stepwise multiple regression, and structural equation modelling dependent on covariance. Finally, the model (both measurement and structural) was assessed using JAMOVI as instructed by (Love et al. 2023). A discussion of the empirical testing of the proposed theoretical model ends with the chapter.

Firstly, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to evaluate the items that load onto specific latent variables for the research instruments in the study. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to assess the reliability of the established constructs. A descriptive analysis was used to describe the study's demographic features as well as the study's theoretical constructs and variables. Secondly, item parcels were calculated which allowed for the establishment of a more concise measurement and structural models, offering a more parsimonious representation of the constructs. Thirdly, the hypothesised relationships were assessed using the established structural model. Lastly, the Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA test, which is a rank-based nonparametric test, was used to determine if there are statistically significant differences between Job Embeddedness across age groups.

### **6.2 Descriptive statistics**

This section focuses on descriptive statistics, average means and standard deviations of the data obtained from the biographical variables used in the analysis. Summaries of the data obtained for this analysis are described using descriptive statistics (Stangor, 2011). It is important to note that all 229 respondents in the sample were considered valid for the study, meaning that none of the collected data were excluded from the analysis.

### 6.2.1 Biographical characteristics of the sample

The purpose of collecting this biographical data was to obtain information about each respondent's age, gender, race, and education level, which would contribute to the support of the existing literature and the ultimate findings of the study. The results are summarised below using tables and graphs. Table 6.1 demonstrates the age distribution of participants. Comparatively, the profile of the general workforce in the higher education sector suggests that more than half of the workforce falls within the age group of 31 to 50 years, as indicated by Statistics on Post-School Education and Training in South Africa (Department of Higher Education and Training [DHET], 2020). Therefore, the age distribution observed in this study is in alignment with the national higher education workforce.

**Table 6.1:**

*Frequency distribution (Age)*

Age Groups	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
18-25 years	9	3.9	3.9	3.9
26-30 years	35	15.3	15.3	19.2
31-40 years	80	34.9	34.9	54.1
41-50 years	56	24.5	24.5	78.6
Older than 50 years	48	21.0	21.0	99.6
Do not wish to answer	1	0.4	0.4	100.0
Total	<b>229</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

#### 6.2.1.1 Gender

Table 6.2 presents the frequency distribution with regard to gender. The results indicate that the majority of the completed questionnaires were in the category of female respondents ( $n = 173$ ; 75.5%), as opposed to male respondents ( $n = 56$ ; 24.5%). National data on gender representation with respect to staffing in universities obtained in 2017, indicates that about 56.0% of the workforce in higher education are women (Naidu, 2018). The number of females employed as permanent staff was 5,438 higher compared to males (DHET, 2020). Therefore, in this study, the gender

distribution is slightly more in favour of females compared to the national higher education workforce.

**Table 6.2:**

*Frequency distribution (Gender)*

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	56	24.5	24.5	24.5
Female	173	75.5	75.5	100.0
Total	<b>229</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

### 6.2.1.2 Race

Table 6.3 depicts the distribution of respondents in relation to their race within the sample. Most of the respondents (34.8%, n = 79) are Black Africans followed by Whites who constitute 31.7% (n = 73) of the sample. Coloureds constituted 30.0% (n = 69) of the sample whilst only 0.9% (n = 2) were Indians. According to DHET (2020), more than half of the permanent staff in higher education are Africans, followed by White staff members. Therefore, although not reflective of the general population demographics the sample does more or less correspond to the work profile within the higher education sector. The African, Coloured and White categories were relatively evenly represented in the sample, with Indians as a clear minority group. Findings might therefore not generalise to this population group as well as for the first three groups.

**Table 6.3:**

*Frequency distribution (Race distribution)*

Race	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
African	79	34.8	34.8	34.8
White	73	31.7	31.7	66.5
Coloured	69	30.0	30.0	96.5
Indian	2	0.9	0.9	97.4
Other	3	1.3	1.3	98.7
Do not wish to answer	3	1.3	1.3	100.0

Total	<b>229</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
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### 6.2.1.3 Highest educational qualifications

Table 6.4 presents the highest educational qualification categories of the sampled participants. The graph shows that most of the respondents (30.6%; n = 70) had an honour's degree as their highest qualification. Out of the 229 respondents, 48 respondents (21.0%) had a bachelor's degree as their highest qualification, while 39 respondents (17.0%) had a master's degree as their highest educational qualification. Further, 21 respondents (9.2%) had a doctorate as their highest educational qualification. On the other hand, 22 respondents (9.6%) had matric as their highest educational qualification. Lastly, 18 respondents (7.9%) had a diploma as their highest educational qualification.

**Table 6.4:**

#### *Education distribution*

Education level	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Matric	22	9.6	9.6	9.6
Diploma	18	7.9	7.9	17.5
Bachelor's Degree	48	21.0	21.0	38.5
Honour's Degree	70	30.6	30.6	69.1
Master's Degree	39	17.0	17.0	86.1
Doctorate	21	9.2	9.2	95.3
Other	8	3.5	3.5	98.8
Do not wish to answer	3	1.2	1.2	100
Total	<b>229</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

### 6.3 Missing values

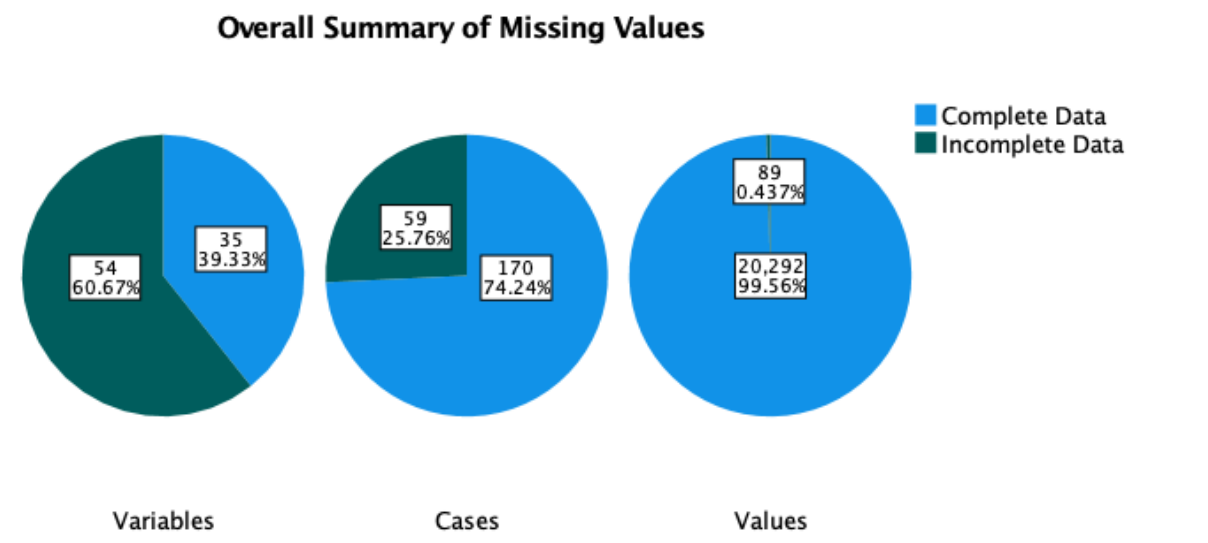
The original data set consisting of 229 observations was exported from the online survey platform and transferred to Microsoft Excel for data cleaning purposes. Variable names were assigned, and the types of variables were specified for analysis. The questionnaire responses were considered as scale (continuous) variables for the purpose of the analyses. To ensure consistency, negatively worded items were

reverse coded, aligning them with the positively worded items. Subsequently, the data set was carefully inspected for any anomalous or outlying values that could potentially affect the analysis. The initial examination of the data ensured that all cases were included in the analyses. A small number of missing values were observed across the items, yet no obvious pattern relating to the missingness of the data was detected. Specifically, out of the 89 variables in the dataset, 54 variables had at least one missing data point. Examples of items with missing data include RES\_1, MOT\_8, and EMP\_4. The overall summary of the missing values is represented in Figure 6.1.

Only 89 of the 20,292 data points had missing values which is only 0,437% of the entire dataset. The imputation method employed to handle these missing values was imputation by matching. This approach assumes that the missing data are missing at random. To perform imputation by matching, Jöreskog et al. (2016) recommend substituting missing values with real values obtained from other cases that have similar values on a set of matching variables. These values are calculated based on one or more cases with the same response pattern across the matching variables (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996).

**Figure 6.1:**

*Summary of missing values*



## 6.4 Evaluating the psychometric properties of the instruments

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to confirm the factor structure of the measurement models. Literature was used as a guideline for the proposed factor structure for these measurement tools. JAMOVI was used to empirically test the factor structures with the metrics that are commonly reported for goodness of fit (presented in Table 6.5) along with their acceptable cut-off points (Love et al., 2023).

**Table 6.5:**

*Model fit indices summary and their acceptable cut-off points accordingly to literature*

<b>Name of index</b>	<b>Cut-off points</b>	<b>Comment</b>	<b>Reference</b>
RMSEA	$\leq 0.05$	Good fit	Hu & Bentler (1998)
	$0.05 < \text{RMSEA} \leq 0.10$	Acceptable fit	Hu & Bentler (1998)
SRMR	$\leq 0.05$	Good fit	Diamantopoulos et al. (2000)
	$0.05 < \text{SRMR} \leq 0.09$	Acceptable fit	Hu & Bentler (1998)
CFI	1	Perfect fit	Hu & Bentler (1998)
	$\geq 0.95$	Good fit	Hu & Bentler (1998)
	$> 0.90$	Acceptable fit	Hu & Bentler (1998)
NFI	1	Perfect fit	Hooper et al. (2008)
	$\geq 0.95$	Good fit	Hooper et al. (2008)
	$> 0.90$	Acceptable fit	Hooper et al. (2008)

**SRMR** = The Standardised Root Mean Square Residual. **RMSEA** = The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation. **CFI** = The Comparative Fit Index. **NFI** = The (Non) Normed Fit Index.

### 6.4.1 Factor and reliability analysis for Job Embeddedness

A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to assess the validity and reliability of the Job Embeddedness scale. Firstly, a first-order CFA using literature as a guide on the empirical factors for Job Embeddedness was conducted. The second-order CFA was then conducted to validate Job Embeddedness scale by assessing whether the established subdimensions of Job Embeddedness can be explained by a common underlying higher order construct (i.e. job embeddedness). Similar indices and criteria used in the previous section were used to examine the goodness-of-fit of the established model.

It is important to note that the organisational links items were not indicative of typical reflective type indicator variables but rather formative indicator variables, as such

traditional internal consistency and factor structure analyses are not appropriate for these types of items. It was therefore decided to remove this subdimension from the CFA analyses. The subdimension and its items were however included in the overall measurement and structural model.

The CFA was then conducted on the 19 items for the Job Embeddedness scale. Nine items measured organisational fit whilst 10 items measured organisational sacrifice. Items with poor loadings were removed in order to establish a measurement model that has acceptable model fit indices. In Table 6.10, the most parsimonious model was achieved with seven items retained for the organisational fit dimension (Factor 1) and eight items for the organisational sacrifice dimension (Factor 2). The value of the average variance extracted for the organisational fit dimension was 0.479, whilst that of organisational sacrifice was 0.405. Some studies indicated that the AVE values  $<0.50$  are acceptable provided the CR values are  $>0.60$  (Raines-Eudy, 2000). This is the case with these two established factors; therefore, the convergent validity is deemed adequate. Further, for measuring the internal consistency of the McDonald's omega coefficient was more than 0.80 for organisational fit ( $\omega = 0.857$ ), revealing a good reliability measure whilst organisational sacrifice ( $\omega = 0.847$ ) had a McDonald's omega which is suggestive of acceptable reliability. For measuring composite reliability, the values of the Jöreskog rho are also greater than 0.80 for the organisational fit ( $CR = 0.855$ ) and organisational sacrifice ( $CR = 0.841$ ). Thus, composite reliability is adequate for the established measurement model; hence, there is a satisfactory level of construct reliability.

Regarding the overall assessment criteria for model goodness of fit, the measurement model showed an acceptable model fit. In Table 6.11, the results revealed that the value of the standardised root mean square residual ( $SRMR = 0.069$ ) is between 0.05 and 0.09 and the root mean square error of approximation ( $RMSEA = 0.079$ ) is greater than 0.05, but below 0.08 indicating acceptable fit. On the other hand, the CFI is 0.814, and assessing this measure, it is at least 0.80, which is a poor fit. In summary, although the incremental fit indices had some difficulty attaining the desired level of model fit, the absolute fit indices revealed an acceptable model fit. Figure 6.4 shows the path diagram for the measurement model for Job Embeddedness. All factor

loadings were statistically significant (all  $p = <0.001$ ). The residuals were also generally acceptable although some were slightly high.

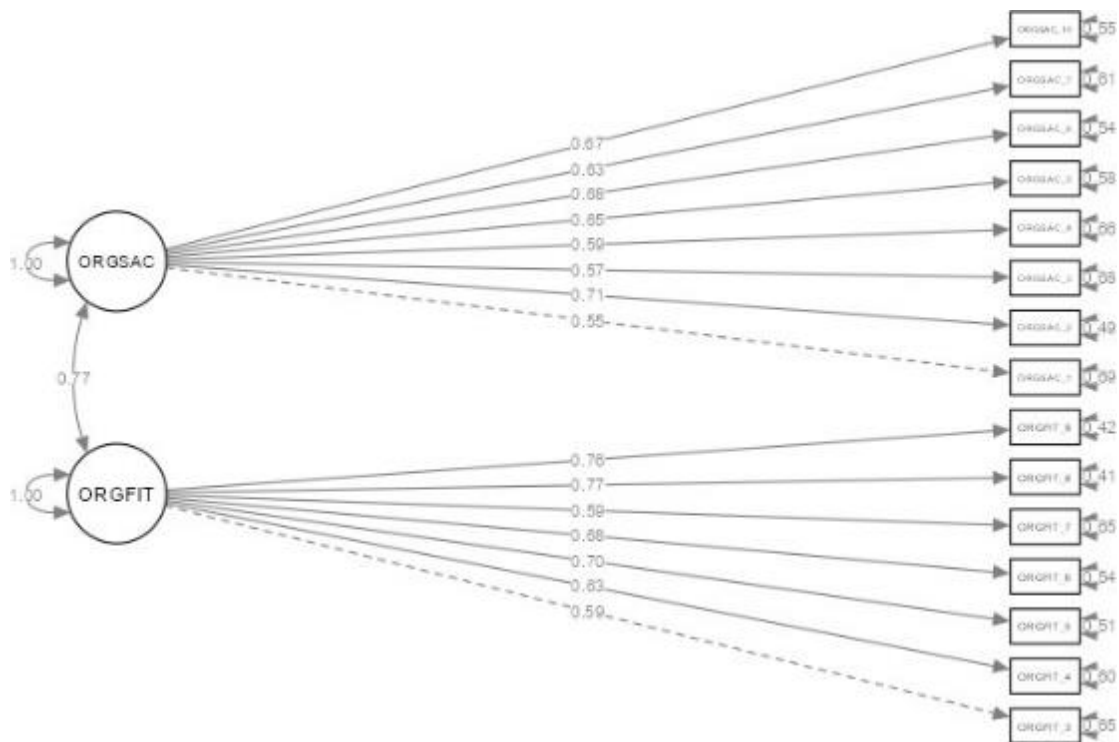
**Table 6.6:**

*Job Embeddedness confirmatory factor analysis and internal consistency output*

<b>Factors and respective items</b>	<b>CODE</b>	<b>CFA Loadings</b>
<b>Factor 1. Organisational fit parcel</b>		
My job utilizes my skills and talents well.	ORGFIT_3	0.591
I feel like I am a good match for this company.	ORGFIT_4	0.630
I fit with the company's culture.	ORGFIT_5	0.698
I like the authority and responsibility I have at this company.	ORGFIT_6	0.678
My values are compatible with the organization's values.	ORGFIT_7	0.591
I can reach my professional goals working for this organization.	ORGFIT_8	0.770
I feel good about my professional growth and development.	ORGFIT_9	0.762
<i>McDonald's omega = 0.857; Joreskog rho = 0.855; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = 0.479</i>		
<b>Factor 2. Organisational sacrifice</b>		
I have a lot of freedom on this job to decide how to pursue my goals.	ORGSAC_1	0.555
The perks on this job are outstanding.	ORGSAC_2	0.712
I feel that people at work respect me a great deal.	ORGSAC_3	0.568
I would sacrifice a lot if I leave this job.	ORGSAC_4	0.587
My promotional opportunities are excellent here.	ORGSAC_5	0.646
I am well compensated for my level of performance.	ORGSAC_6	0.682
The benefits are good on this job.	ORGSAC_7	0.625
The prospects for continuing employment with this company are	ORGSAC_10	0.670
<i>McDonald's omega = 0.847; Joreskog rho = 0.841; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = 0.405</i>		

**Figure 6.2:**

*The path diagram for the measurement model for Job Embeddedness*



**Table 6.7:**

*The goodness of fit measures assessment for the Job Embeddedness measurement model*

Name of index	Index value	Cut-off points	Comments
SRMR	0.069	0.05 < SRMR ≤ 0.09	Acceptable fit
RMSEA [95% CI]	0.079 [0.069; 0.089]	0.05 < RMSEA ≤ 0.10	Acceptable fit
CFI	0.814	> 0.90	Poor fit
NFI	0.770	Approx. 0.90	Poor fit

**SRMR** = The Standardised Root Mean Square Residual. **RMSEA** = The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation. **CFI** = The Comparative Fit Index. **NFI** = The (Non) Normed Fit Index.

#### **6.4.2 Factor and reliability analysis for Emotional Intelligence**

A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to assess the validity and reliability of the Emotional Intelligence scale. To determine the empirical factors for the measurement model of Emotional Intelligence, a CFA was conducted on the 33 items.

The CFA was also conducted to validate whether the established subdimensions of Emotional Intelligence (as theorised by the authors of the instrument) can be explained by a common underlying higher order construct (i.e. Emotional Intelligence). Various model fit indices and relevant criteria were used to examine the goodness-of-fit of the established model. Thus, the overall fit of the models was deemed acceptable based on several model fit indices such as SRMR, CFI, NFI and RMSEA.

Items with poor loadings were removed in order to establish a measurement model that has good and acceptable model fit indices. Notably, there were some challenges with many of the negatively worded items from the scale. Previous research has demonstrated that the use of negatively worded items can often lead method effect (Chyung et al., 2018). The most parsimonious model was achieved with 24 items retained. All factor loadings were above 0.40 (see Table 6.8). The established factor structure shows four items loading for social skills (Factor 1), three items loading for self-regulation (Factor 2), five items loading on self-awareness (Factor 3), eight items loading on motivation (Factor 4), and four items loading on empathy (Factor 5). The value of the average variance extracted for all the established factors ranges between 0.27 to 0.36, i.e. social skills (AVE = 0.353), self-regulation (AVE = 0.361), self-awareness (AVE = 0.290), motivation (AVE = 0.344), and empathy (AVE = 0.278). A minimum cut-off point of 0.50 is recommended but <0.50 can be accepted provided the composite reliability is higher than 0.60 (Raines-Eudy, 2000). Assessing the Jöreskog rho for measuring composite reliability, the values of CR are more than 0.60 for all the constructs. Thus, composite reliability is achieved for the established model; hence, the convergent validity is also deemed adequate. Further, for measuring internal consistency of these factors, the McDonald's omega coefficient was used. Assessing this coefficient, the values were as follows: social skills (omega = 0.663), self-regulation (omega = 0.654), self-awareness (omega = 0.662), motivation (omega = 0.783), and empathy (omega = 0.604). Although the internal consistency for self-regulation and empathy were on the lower end, they were very close to 0.60 that can be considered adequate. The reliability of the established factors is suggestive of acceptable reliability.

Examining the overall assessment criteria for model fit the measurement model showed an acceptable to good fit. In Table 6.9, SRMR is 0.075, which is regarded as

an acceptable model fit. The RMSEA is below 0.05, which is suggestive of a good model fit. The comparative fit index (CFI = 0.985) and the normed fit index (NFI = 0.925) are both suggestive that the model is generally a good fit. Figure 6.3 shows the path diagram for the measurement model for emotional intelligence. All factor loadings were statistically significant (all  $p = <0.001$ ). Notably many of the residuals were somewhat high, suggesting a high degree of measurement error present.

**Table 6.8:**

*Emotional Intelligence confirmatory factor analysis and internal consistency output*

Factors and respective items	CODE	CFA Loadings
<b>Factor 1. Social skills</b>		
I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.	SS_4	0.599
By looking at their facial expression, I recognize the emotions people are...	SS_5	0.592
I compliment others when they have done something well.	SS_6	0.532
I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send.	SS_7	0.620
<i>McDonald's omega = 0.663; Jöreskog rho = 0.677; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = 0.353</i>		
<b>Factor 2. Self-regulation</b>		
When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar ...	SR_1	0.674
Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is...	SR_2	0.540
I have control over my emotions.	SR_5	0.608
<i>McDonald's omega = 0.654; Jöreskog rho = 0.638; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = 0.361</i>		
<b>Factor 3. Self-awareness</b>		
I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.	SA_2	0.595
I seek out activities that make me happy.	SA_3	0.552
I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others.	SA_4	0.409
I know why my emotions change.	SA_5	0.614
I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.	SA_6	0.618
<i>McDonald's omega = 0.662; Joreskog rho = 0.695; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = 0.290</i>		
<b>Factor 4. Motivation</b>		
I expect that I will do well on most things if I try.	MOT_1	0.645
I expect good things to happen.	MOT_2	0.572
When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.	MOT_3	0.635
When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me.	MOT_4	0.555
When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas.	MOT_5	0.567
I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on.	MOT_6	0.666
When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas.	MOT_7	0.499

I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles. MOT\_8 0.575

McDonald's omega = **0.783**; Jöreskog rho = **0.810**; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = **0.344**

**Factor 5. Empathy**

Other people find it easy to confide in me. EMP\_1 0.502

When another person tells me about an important event in his/her ... EMP\_2 0.551

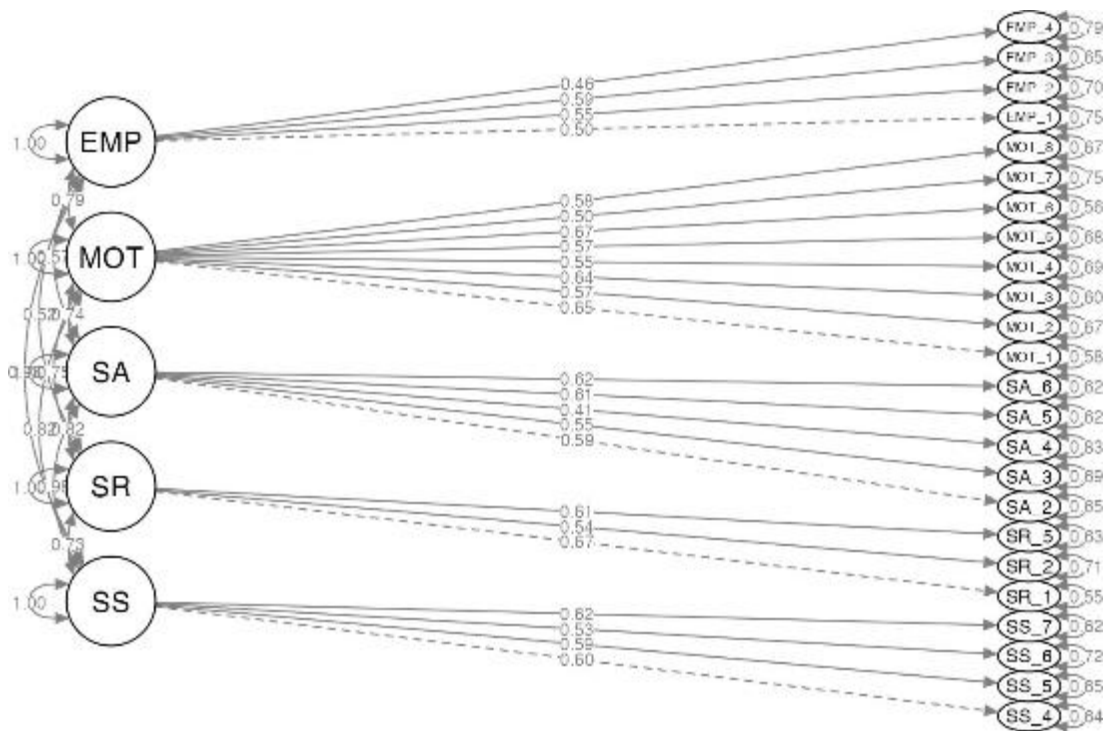
I help other people feel better when they are down. EMP\_3 0.589

I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice ... EMP\_4 0.457

McDonald's omega = **0.604**; Jöreskog rho = **0.604**; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = **0.278**

**Figure 6.3:**

*The path diagram for the measurement model for Emotional Intelligence*



**Table 6.9:**

*The goodness of fit measures assessment for the Emotional Intelligence measurement model*

Name of index	Index value	Cut-off points	Comments
SRMR	0.075	$0.05 < \text{SRMR} \leq 0.09$	Acceptable fit
RMSEA [95% CI]	0.032 [0.017; 0.043]	$\leq 0.05$	Good fit
CFI	0.985	$\geq 0.95$	Good fit
NFI	0.925	$0.90 \leq \text{NFI} < 0.95$	Acceptable fit

**SRMR** = The Standardised Root Mean Square Residual. **RMSEA** = The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation. **CFI** = The Comparative Fit Index. **NFI** = The (Non) Normed Fit Index.

### **6.4.3 Factor and reliability analysis for Psychological Capital**

A confirmatory factor analysis, followed by a reliability analysis, was conducted to assess the validity and reliability of Psychological Capital as a measuring tool. The researcher followed the conceptualisation of the authors of the instrument as a guide on the empirical factors for the Psychological Capital tool. The most parsimonious model was achieved with 20 items loading on four factors (see Table 6.6). Thus, a total of six items were retained for Factor 1 (self-efficacy), five items were retained for Factor 2 (hope), five items were retained for Factor 3 (optimism) and four items were retained for Factor 4 (resilience). All factor loadings were above 0.50 (see Table 6.6), indicating an acceptable fit for these loadings. The value of the AVE for all the constructs is more than 0.30, i.e. self-efficacy (AVE = 0.502), hope (AVE = 0.468), optimism (AVE = 0.366), and resilience (AVE = 0.336). A minimum cut-off point of 0.50 is recommended but  $<0.50$  can be accepted provided the composite reliability is higher than 0.60 (Raines-Eudy, 2000). Assessing the Jöreskog rho for measuring composite reliability, the values of CR are more than 0.60 for all the constructs, i.e. self-efficacy (CR = 0.862), hope (CR = 0.819), optimism (CR = 0.741), and resilience (CR = 0.676). Thus, composite reliability is achieved for the established model; hence, the convergent validity of the Psychological Capital variable is also deemed adequate. For measuring internal consistency, McDonald's omega was used, and the value is more than 0.60 for all the constructs, indicating acceptable reliability for these factors.

Lastly, Table 6.7 reveals that for absolute fit indices, all the values are fulfilling the required minimum criteria, i.e. SRMR is 0.067, which is between 0.05 and 0.09, and

RMSEA is 0.051, with 95% CI [0.041, 0.060], which is just above 0.05. Further, CFI is 0.873 > 0.80 and NFI is 0.804, which is also > 0.80, hence the model has somewhat fulfilled the model fit requirements. It is therefore suitable for building linkage between factors and determining contribution of constructs in measuring Psychological Capital. Thus, the results for the goodness of fit indexes assessment for the resultant model of the CFA shows that the established model is adequate. Figure 6.2 shows the path diagram for the measurement model of the Psychological Capital tool. All factor loadings were statistically significant (all  $p = <0.001$ ). The residuals were also generally acceptable though some notable high residuals were present.

**Table 6.10:**

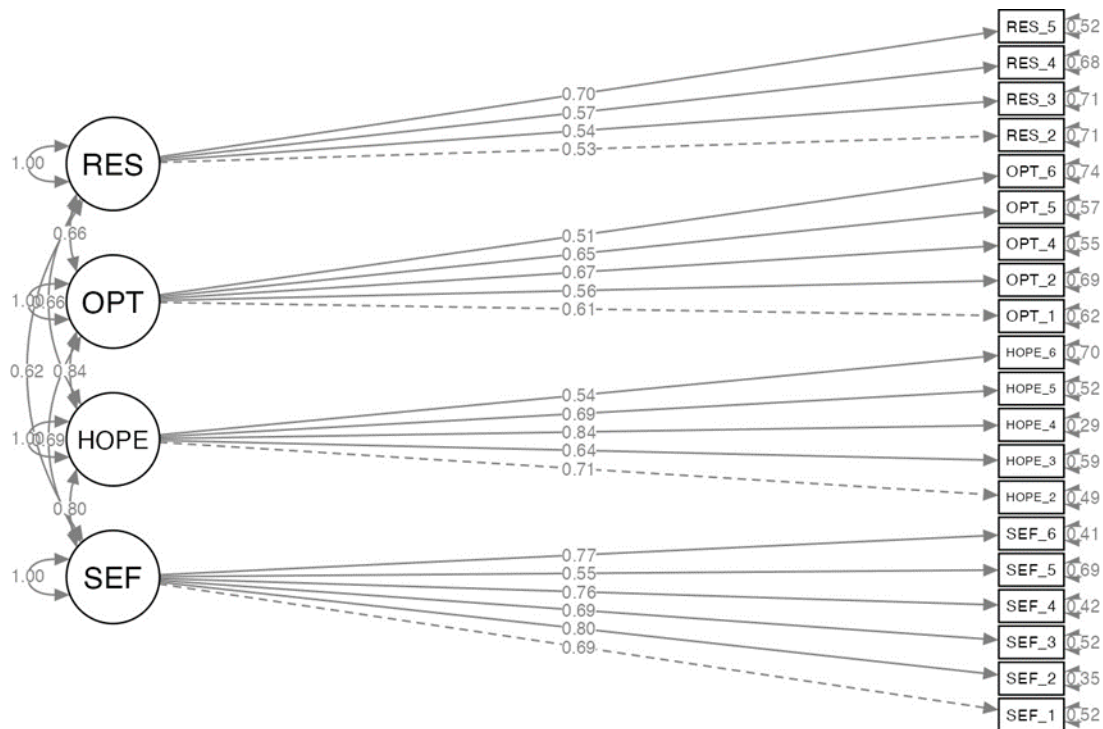
*The Psychological Capital confirmatory factor analysis and internal consistency output*

Factors and respective items	CODE	CFA Loadings
<b>Factor 1. Self-efficacy</b>		
I feel confident analysing a long-term problem to find a solution.	SEF_1	0.690
I feel confident representing my work area in meetings with management.	SEF_2	0.805
I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company's strategy.	SEF_3	0.690
I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area.	SEF_4	0.759
I feel confident contacting people outside the company to discuss	SEF_5	0.554
I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.	SEF_6	0.769
<i>McDonald's omega = 0.857; Jöreskog rho = 0.862; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = 0.502</i>		
<b>Factor 2. Hope</b>		
At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my work goals.	HOPE_2	0.714
There are lots of ways around any problem.	HOPE_3	0.639
I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.	HOPE_4	0.841
At this time, I am meeting the work goals that I have set for myself.	HOPE_5	0.690
When things are uncertain for me at work, I usually expect the best.	HOPE_6	0.545
<i>McDonald's omega = 0.821; Joreskog rho = 0.819; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = 0.468</i>		
<b>Factor 3. Optimism</b>		
Right now, I see myself as being pretty successful at work.	OPT_1	0.613
I feel I can handle many things at a time at this job.	OPT_2	0.561
I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job.	OPT_4	0.673
I'm optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to	OPT_5	0.653
I approach this job as if "every cloud has a silver lining."	OPT_6	0.513
<i>McDonald's omega = 0.749; Jöreskog rho = 0.741; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = 0.366</i>		
<b>Factor 4. Resilience</b>		

I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work.	RES_2	0.535
I can be “on my own,” so to speak, at work if I have to.	RES_3	0.541
I usually take stressful things at work in stride.	RES_4	0.565
I can get through difficult times at work because I’ve experienced	RES_5	0.695
<i>McDonald’s omega = 0.659; Jöreskog rho = 0.676; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = 0.336</i>		

**Figure 6.4:**

*The path diagram for the measurement model for Psychological Capital*



**Table 6.11:**

*The goodness of fit measures assessment for Psychological Capital measurement model*

Name of index	Index value	Cut-off points	Comments
SRMR	0.067	0.05 < SRMR ≤ 0.09	Acceptable fit
RMSEA [95% CI]	0.051 [0.041; 0.060]	0.05 < RMSEA ≤ 0.10	Acceptable fit
CFI	0.873	> 0.80	Poor fit
NFI	0.804	> 0.80	Poor fit

**SRMR** = The Standardised Root Mean Square Residual. **RMSEA** = The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation. **CFI** = The Comparative Fit Index. **NFI** = The (Non) Normed Fit Index.

#### **6.4.4 Measurement Model**

After establishing that the three measurement instruments were operationalised successfully, the full measurement for the study could be evaluated. The researcher used item parcelling to calculate parcels to be used as the indicator variables of the measurement model. Parcelling is pre-modelling strategy to create fewer and more reliable indicators of constructs for use with latent variable models. In the current study, item parcels were used as indicator variables of the constructs. Item parcels can provide several advantages when utilised appropriately (Little et al., 2013). The use of item parcels allows for the establishment of a more concise measurement model, offering a more parsimonious representation of the constructs. This approach enables the testing of more complex structural models with smaller sample sizes, which would not have been feasible with item-level indicators, as it involves fewer parameter estimates and lower indicator-to-sample size ratios. By utilising item parcels, the study retains the possibility for examining intricate relationships among variables and exploring the underlying structure of the constructs.

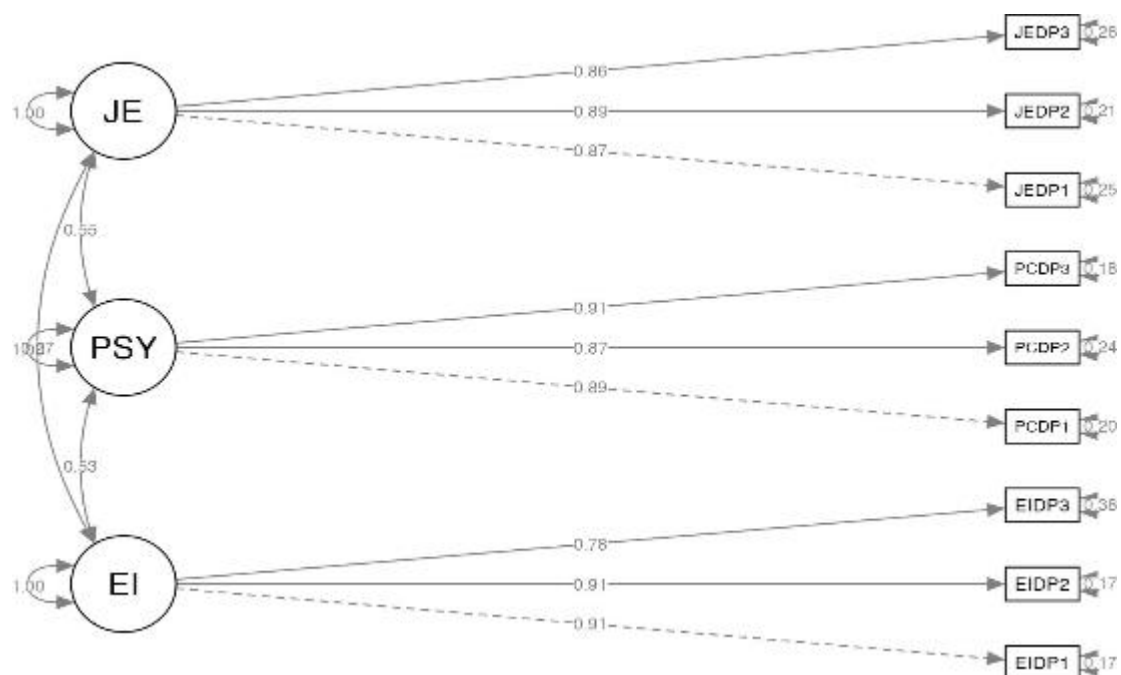
Item parcels often demonstrate higher reliability compared to the individual items they comprise. This occurs because the unique variance of each item is minimised through the parcelling process. Additionally, parcelling has a normalising effect on variables, promoting a more continuous distribution of the data. Consequently, standard (or robust) maximum likelihood (ML) estimation can be utilised instead of diagonally weighted least square (DWLS) estimation, as supported by Kline (2011) and Little et al. (2013). By leveraging the benefits of parcelling, the study ensures enhanced reliability, normality, and the ability to employ appropriate estimation techniques for the analysis. Three parcels were systematically constructed for each latent variable, utilizing a domain-representative parcelling approach as elucidated by Little et al. (2013). This approach was chosen as it aligns with the researcher's primary focus on examining associations among higher-order constructs rather than delving into specific sub-dimensions. Briefly put, the use of parcels has several psychometric and model-level benefits. parcels tend to have better distributional properties. Indeed, when items are averaged, non-normal distributions become more normally distributed and scales become more continuous since intervals increase in number while also becoming smaller and more equal.

In order to establish whether the items adequately reflect their underlying constructs all the factors measuring different variables and constructs, the full measurement model was examined. The resultant full measurement model (see Figure 6.5) shows acceptable factor loadings, which is suggestive of a good and satisfactory fit for the respective items and factors. The most parsimonious full measurement model was achieved with three items each loading on three factors. All factor loadings were above 0.70 (see Figure 6.5) revealing satisfactory factor loadings for the full measurement model. Thus, all factor loadings were statistically significant (all  $p = <0.001$ ). The residuals were also statistically acceptable because all residuals were less than 0.50.

Examining the overall assessment criteria for model fit the measurement model showed a good model fit. In Table 6.12, the results revealed that the value of SRMR = 0.027 is less than 0.05, which suggests a good model fit. This is complimented by the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA = 0.039) which is also less than 0.05, indicating a good model fit. In addition, the comparative fit index is 0.990, and the normed fit index is 0.975. Assessing these measures, they are both greater than 0.95, which is indicative of a good model fit. In summary, all these fit indices confirm the adequacy of the established full measurement model for the research instrument.

**Figure 6.5:**

*The path diagram for confirmatory factor analysis of the full measurement model*



**Table 6.12:***The goodness of fit measures assessment for the full measurement model*

<b>Name of index</b>	<b>Index value</b>	<b>Cut-off points</b>	<b>Comments</b>
SRMR	0.027	< 0.05	Good fit
RMSEA [95% CI]	0.039 [0.000; 0.077]	< 0.05	Good fit
CFI	0.990	> 0.95	Good fit
NFI	0.975	> 0.95	Good fit

**SRMR** = The Standardised Root Mean Square Residual. **RMSEA** = (Robust) The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation. **CFI** = The Comparative Fit Index. **NFI** = The (Non) Normed Fit Index.

Further, for assessing the internal consistency, the McDonald's omega coefficient was more than 0.80 for all the variables (see Table 6.13), revealing a good reliability measure and suggestive of satisfactory internal consistency for the measurement scales. The value of the average variance extracted for all the variables is greater than the minimum cut-off point of 0.50, i.e. Emotional Intelligence (AVE = 0.750), Psychological Capital (AVE = 0.797) and Job Embeddedness (AVE = 0.762). A minimum cut-off point of 0.50 is recommended, thus the convergent validity of the variables is deemed adequate. Lastly, when establishing the measurement and structural models, it is often recommended to test for multivariate normality. Thus, the multivariate normality distribution of data was first examined through the Mahalanobis distance computation. Table 6.14 portrays Mardia's multivariate skewness ( $\beta = 16.6$ ,  $p = <0.001$ ) and kurtosis ( $\beta = 131.0$ ,  $p = <0.001$ ). Also, in Table 6.14, the p-value =  $<0.001$  for the skewness test and similarly p-value =  $<0.001$  for the kurtosis test. Since all these p-values are less than alpha = 0.05, we do not retain the null hypothesis and consider the sample as not coming from a normal distribution. Thus, for our data, the assumption of multivariate normality was not met. As such it was necessary to use robust maximum likelihood as the estimation technique.

**Table 6.13:***Reliability indices for the full measurement model*

Variable	Cronbach Alpha	McDonald's Omega	AVE
EI	0.899	0.899	0.750
PSY	0.920	0.922	0.797
JE	0.904	0.905	0.762

Emotional Intelligence (EI); Job Embeddedness (JE) and Psychological Capital (PSY)

**Table 6.14:***Mardia's coefficients for the full measurement model*

	Coefficient	z	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p
Skewness	16.6		633	165	<0.001
Kurtosis	131.0	17.2			<0.001

Lastly, for the full measurement model, when establishing the measurement and structural models, it is often recommended to test whether the partial loadings on the constructs are statistically significant. Table 6.15 further indicates estimates from the factor loadings with confidence intervals, all these paths are statistically significant, in terms of factor loadings and beta values, all of which are above 0.5. This signify that the partials accurately capture the constructs.

**Table 6.15:**

*Structural equation estimates for the regression weights of the predictive effect of Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital on Job embeddedness*

Path Effects		Estimates	95% Confidence intervals	Standardized Beta and Significance		
				Estimate (SE)	[LL; UL]	<sup>(b)</sup> beta
<b>Dependent</b>	<b>Predictor</b>					
PSY	← EI	0.840 (0.137)	[0.571; 1.109]	0.528	6.121	<0.001*
<b>Latent</b>	<b>Observed</b>					
PSY	← PCDP1	1.000 (0.000)	[1.000; 1.000]	0.894		
PSY	← PCDP2	0.947 (0.055)	[0.840; 1.050]	0.873	17.300	<0.001*
PSY	← PCDP3	1.079 (0.054)	[0.974; 1.180]	0.907	20.100	<0.001*

Path Effects		Estimates	95% Confidence intervals	Standardized Beta and Significance		
		Estimate (SE)	[LL; UL]	<sup>(b)</sup> beta	z	p
EI	← EIDP1	1.000 (0.000)	[1.000; 1.000]	0.909		
EI	← EIDP2	1.056 (0.057)	[0.946; 1.170]	0.913	18.690	<0.001*
<b>Dependent</b>	<b>Predictor</b>					
JE	← PSY	0.451 (0.061)	[0.331; 0.571]	0.561	7.348	<0.001*
<b>Latent</b>	<b>Observed</b>					
JE	← JEDP1	1.000 (0.000)	[1.000; 1.000]	0.867		
JE	← JEDP2	1.102 (0.064)	[0.978; 1.230]	0.891	17.370	<0.001*
JE	← JEDP3	1.104 (0.075)	[0.957; 1.250]	0.859	14.770	<0.001*
PSY	← PCDP1	1.000 (0.000)	[1.000; 1.000]	0.894		
PSY	← PCDP2	0.947 (0.055)	[0.840; 1.050]	0.873	17.300	<0.001*
PSY	← PCDP3	1.079 (0.054)	[0.974; 1.180]	0.907	20.100	<0.001*
EI	← EIDP3	0.973 (0.103)	[0.772; 1.170]	0.785	9.490	<0.001*

(\*) Statistically significant effects. <sup>(b)</sup> Represents the standardized estimates for the structural model. S.E. is the standard error for the structural regression estimates. Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Psychological Capital (PSY) and Job Embeddedness (JE).

## 6.5 Hypotheses testing

### 6.5.1 Hypothesis 1: Actual Model Fit

**H<sub>01</sub>**: The proposed structural model of Job Embeddedness, Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital does not demonstrate close fit.

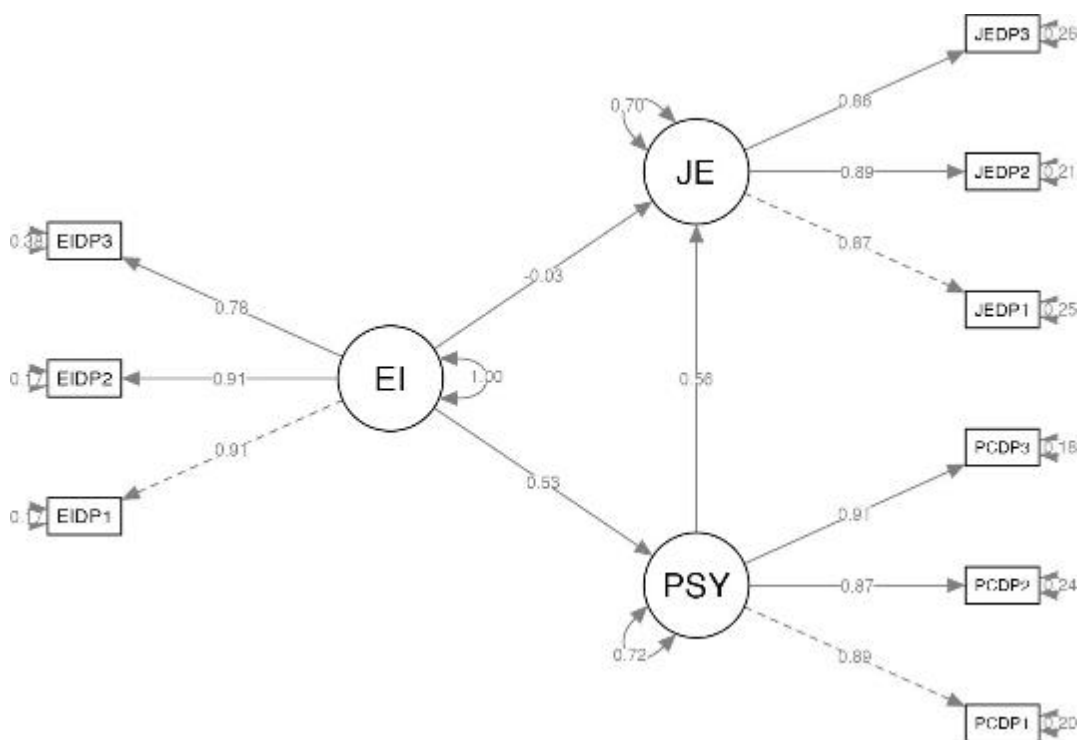
**H<sub>a1</sub>**: The proposed structural model of Job Embeddedness, Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital demonstrate close fit.

In order to establish whether the proposed theoretical relationships exist between Job Embeddedness, Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital the structural model was examined. Figure 6.6 below shows the resultant structural model and the goodness of fit indices are presented in Table 6.16. The goodness of fit indices is similar to those of the full measurement model. Thus, the results showed that the value of SRMR (SRMR = 0.027) is less than 0.05 which suggests a good model fit. In addition, the robust RMSEA is 0.039, with 95% CI [0.000, 0.077], which is less than 0.05 and suggestive of a good model fit. Consequently, these indicators were complemented with CFI (0.996) and NFI (0.975) and assessing these measures, they

both exceeded 0.95 which is the minimum recommended for a good model fit. In summary, all these fit indices confirm the goodness of fit of the established structural model. Thus, as indicated, the results of the proposed structural model fit demonstrates acceptable fit. Therefore, the null hypothesis will be rejected, and the alternative hypothesis accepted. This implies that there is evidence to support that the prior model fits the sample data.

**Figure 6.6:**

*The path diagram for the structural model*



**Table 6.16:**

*The goodness of fit measures assessment for the structural model*

Name of index	Index value	Cut-off points	Comments
SRMR	0.027	< 0.05	Good fit
RMSEA [95% CI]	0.039 [0.000; 0.077]	< 0.05	Good fit
CFI	0.990	> 0.95	Good fit
NFI	0.975	> 0.95	Good fit

**SRMR** = The Standardised Root Mean Square Residual. **RMSEA** = (Robust) The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation. **CFI** = The Comparative Fit Index. **NFI** = The (Non) Normed Fit Index.

**Table 6.17:***Parameter estimates for the structural model*

Effects	Estimates		95% Confidence intervals		Standardized Beta and Significance		
	Estimate	SE	Lower	Upper	beta	z	p
<i>PSY</i>	0.451	0.061	0.331	0.571	0.561	7.348	<0.001*
<i>EI → JE</i>	-0.035	0.101	-0.232	0.163	-0.027	-0.344	0.731
<i>EI → PSY</i>	0.840	0.137	0.571	1.109	0.528	6.121	<0.001*

\*Significant effect at Alpha = 0.05.

Emotional Intelligence (EI); Job Embeddedness (JE) and Psychological Capital (PSY)

**6.5.2 Hypothesis 2: Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Psychological Capital**

*H<sub>02</sub>:  $\beta = 0$  Emotional Intelligence does not have a statistically significant positive effect on Psychological Capital.*

*H<sub>a2</sub>:  $\beta > 0$  Emotional Intelligence has a statistically significant positive effect on Psychological Capital*

The structural model in Figure 6.6 was assessed with the aim of examining the predictive effect of Emotional Intelligence on levels of Psychological Capital. Examining the standardised estimates for the regression weights of the effect of Emotional Intelligence on Psychological Capital, the results shows that the path coefficient is statistically significant (see Table 6.17). Thus, the predictive effect of Emotional Intelligence on Psychological Capital is positive and statistically significant, with a moderate to strong effect size. ( $\beta = 0.528$ ;  $z = 6.121$ ;  $p = <0.001$ ). As a result, the null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis implying that Emotional Intelligence has a statistically significant effect on Psychological Capital among employees in the selected HEI.

**6.5.3 Hypothesis 3: Effects of Emotional Intelligence on Job Embeddedness**

*H<sub>03</sub>:  $\beta = 0$  Emotional Intelligence does not have a statistically significant positive effect on Job Embeddedness.*

**H<sub>a3</sub>:**  $\beta > 0$  Emotional Intelligence has a statistically significant positive effect on Job Embeddedness.

To determine the underlying predictive effect that Emotional Intelligence has on the levels of Job Embeddedness among employees in an HEI, the structural model in Figure 6.6 was examined. The beta coefficient for the effect of the Emotional Intelligence on Job Embeddedness was not statistically significant ( $\beta = -0.027$ ;  $z = -0.344$ ;  $p = 0.731$ ). Thus, the null hypothesis could not be rejected. Therefore, there is not sufficient statistical evidence to support the notion that Emotional Intelligence had an effect on Job Embeddedness among employees in an HEI. The results of this analysis revealed several important insights. Notably, it was observed that the pathway between Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness was not statistically significant. This unexpected finding prompted further investigation to better understand the underlying dynamics of this relationship.

#### **6.5.3.1 Post Hoc analysis**

In light of unexpected results from the previous hypothesis above, a post hoc analysis was undertaken to explore potential mediation effects and gain deeper insights into the indirect influence of Emotional Intelligence on Job Embeddedness.

#### **6.5.3.2 The mediating effect of Psychological Capital**

As indicated above subsequently, a mediation analysis was conducted to explore a potential mediation effect. The mediation model included Emotional Intelligence as the independent variable, Job Embeddedness as the dependent variable, and Psychological Capital as the mediating variable. The mediation analysis aimed to assess whether Psychological Capital played a mediating role in the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness. Further scrutiny was deemed necessary to understand the indirect impact of Emotional Intelligence on Job Embeddedness. To investigate a possible mediation effect, both the direct and indirect effects of Emotional Intelligence on Job Embeddedness were compared. As reflected in Figure 6.7 and Table 6.18, ( $\beta = -0.135$ ;  $z = 4.696$ ;  $p = 0.001$ ) the results indicated that while the indirect effect was statistically significant the direct effect was not, suggesting a full mediation effect.

**Table 6.18:**

*Mediation analysis to determine the mediating effect of Psychological Capital on the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness*

Effects	beta estimates		Significance of beta estimates		95% Confidence intervals	
	beta	SE	z-value	p-value	Lower	Upper
<b>Direct effect(s) – Path coefficients</b>						
a) EI (X) → PSY	0.277*	0.042	6.594	<0.001	0.194	0.359
b) PSY (M) → JE	0.489*	0.063	7.724	<0.001	0.365	0.613
c) EI (X) → JE (Y)	0.025	0.041	0.611	0.541	-0.055	0.104
<b>Indirect effect of X on</b>	<b>0.135*</b>	<b>0.029</b>	<b>4.696</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>0.079</b>	<b>0.192</b>
<b>Total effect of X on Y</b>	<b>0.160*</b>	<b>0.044</b>	<b>3.608</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>0.073</b>	<b>0.247</b>

\*Significant effect at Alpha = 0.05. Robust standard errors, robust confidence intervals, ML estimator.

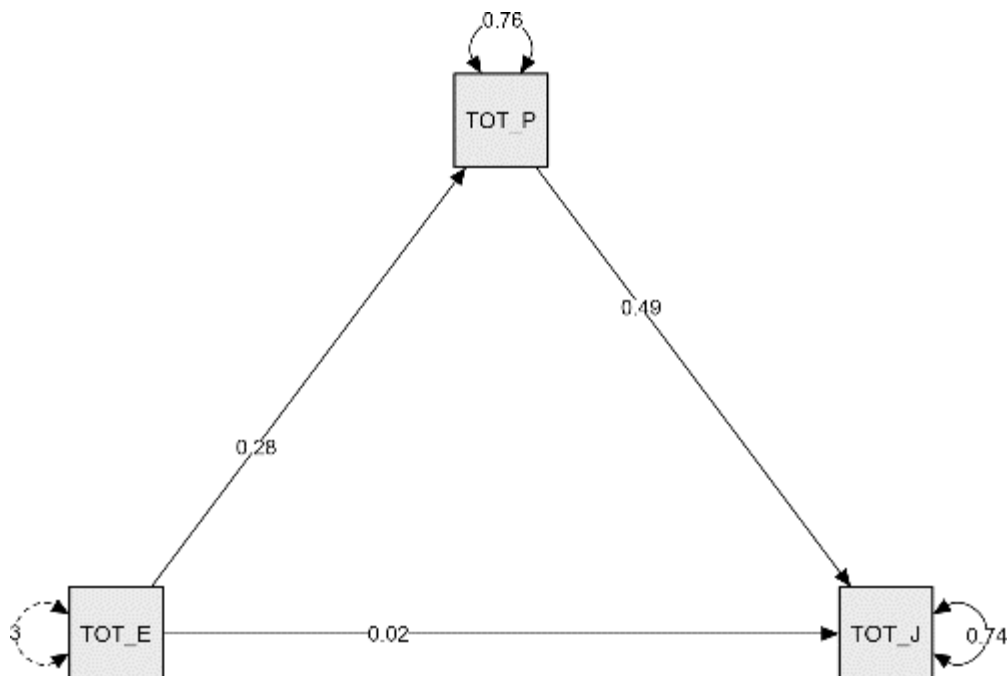
Predictor/Independent variable (X): Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Outcome/Dependent variable (Y): Job Embeddedness (JE)

Mediator variable (M): Psychological Capital (PSY)

**Figure 6.7:**

*The path diagram for the mediation analysis*



The results of the mediation analysis unveiled a significant and interesting finding. Psychological Capital emerged as a full mediator in the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness. In other words, the impact of

Emotional Intelligence on Job Embeddedness is channelled entirely through Psychological Capital, emphasising the crucial role of Psychological Capital as a mediator in enhancing employees' Job Embeddedness.

#### **6.5.4 Hypothesis 4: Effect of Psychological Capital on Job Embeddedness**

**H<sub>04</sub>:**  $\beta = 0$  Psychological Capital does not have a statistically significant positive effect on Job Embeddedness.

**H<sub>a4</sub>:**  $\beta > 0$  Psychological Capital has a statistically significant positive effect on Job Embeddedness.

The structural model in Figure 6.6 was also assessed in order to examine the predictive effect of Psychological Capital on levels of Job Embeddedness among employees in a selected HEI. Examining the standardised estimates for the regression weights of the predictive effect of Psychological Capital on Job Embeddedness, the results show that the path coefficient is statistically significant (see Table 6.17) with a moderate to strong effect size ( $\beta = 0.561$ ;  $z = 7.348$ ;  $p = <0.001$ ). A positive association implies that there is a direct correlation between an individual's Psychological Capital and their level of Job Embeddedness. Specifically, as an individual's Psychological Capital increases, their degree of Job Embeddedness also increases. This implies that the null hypothesis is rejected as there is enough evidence to support the relationship between psychological Capital and Job Embeddedness.

#### **6.5.5 Investigating Mean differences of age on Job Embeddedness**

**H<sub>05</sub>:** There is no statistically significant differences in scores achieved on Job Embeddedness among employees in an HEI with regard to age.

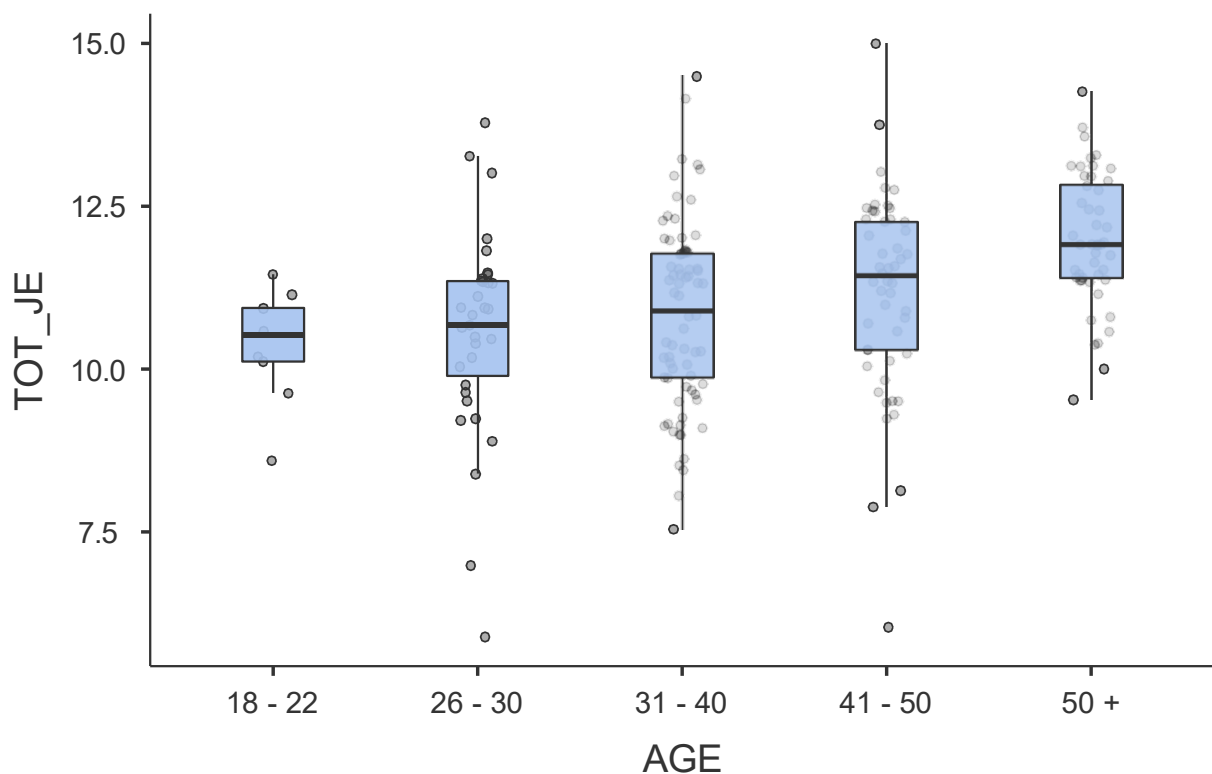
**H<sub>a5</sub>:** There is statistically significant differences in scores achieved on Job Embeddedness among employees in an HEI with regard to age.

In order to determine if there are statistically significant differences between the multilevel groups for age on the mean rankings of Job Embeddedness, the Kruskal-Wallis H test, which is a rank-based non-parametric test, was used. This test was

opted as it is considered the non-parametric alternative to the one-way ANOVA. Table 6.19 shows the Kruskal-Wallis tests for mean differences of Job Embeddedness by age. The results revealed that there were statistically significant differences between the different groups of age on the mean ratings of Job Embeddedness (Kruskal-Wallis  $H = 35.3$ ;  $df = 4$ ;  $p = <0.001$ ) among the sampled participants. Thus, the individual's perception of Job Embeddedness was not the same throughout the different categories of age. The pairwise comparisons indicated significant differences between individuals aged 50 years and older and those in younger age categories. Specifically, individuals aged 50 years or older had significantly different mean ratings for Job Embeddedness compared to individuals in other age groups refer to Figure 6.8 below.

**Figure 6.8:**

*Differences across age groups*



**Table 6.19:**

*Non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis*

Variable	Test Statistic	df	p-value
Job Embeddedness	35.3	4	<0.001

**Table 6.20:**

*Summary of the independent-samples Kruskal-Wallis test for differences of the mean rankings of Job Embeddedness by age*

<b>Pairwise Comparisons</b>	<b>w</b>	<b>p-value</b>
18 to 22 – 26 to 30 years	0.844	0.976
18 to 22 – 31 to 40 years	1.520	0.820
18 to 22 – 41 to 50 years	3.116	0.178
18 to 22 – 50 + years	5.339	0.002*
26 to 30 – 31 to 40 years	1.130	0.931
26 to 30 – 41 to 50 years	3.415	0.111
26 to 30 – 50 + years	6.736	<0.001*
31 to 40 – 41 to 50 years	2.767	0.288
31 to 40 – 50 + years	6.731	<0.001*
41 to 50 – 50 + years	4.025	0.036*

(\*) The significance level is 0.05.

### Summary of hypotheses

In view of above results and the interpretations of the hypotheses testing, a summary for the hypothesized frameworks is given in Table 6.21.

**Table 6.21:**

*Summary of the hypothesised frameworks*

	<b>Description (Null Hypothesis)</b>	<b>Test Statistic</b>	<b>p-value</b>	<b>Decision</b>
<b>H<sub>01</sub></b>	The proposed structural model does not demonstrate an acceptable fit.	RMSEA = 0.039	CI [0.000, 0.077]	Reject <b>H<sub>01</sub></b>
<b>H<sub>02</sub></b>	<i>Emotional Intelligence does not have a statistically significant positive effect on Psychological Capital</i>	$\beta = 0.528$	$p = <0.001$	Reject <b>H<sub>02</sub></b>

<b>H<sub>03</sub></b>	Emotional Intelligence does not have a statistically significant positive effect on Job Embeddedness.	$\beta = -0.027$	$p = 0.731$	Accept <b>H<sub>03</sub></b>
<b>H<sub>04</sub></b>	There is no statistically significant predictive effect of Psychological Capital on Job Embeddedness among employees in an HEI.	$\beta = 0.561$	$p = <0.001$	Reject <b>H<sub>04</sub></b>
<b>H<sub>05</sub></b>	There are no statistically significant differences in scores achieved on Job Embeddedness among employees in an HEI with regard to age.	$\beta = 35.3$	$p = <0.001$	Reject <b>H<sub>05</sub></b>

## 6.6 Summary

This chapter presented and interpreted the results of the study. The initial interpretations concentrated on the constructs' reliability. Separately, the findings for each research hypothesis were discussed. The interpretations of the proposed model were presented to determine the significant predictors of Job Embeddedness. The structural model showed good fit. The pathways of the relationships between Psychological Capital and Job Embeddedness as well as Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital were also statistically significant. The lack to direct effect between Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness was unexpected, prompting the need for a mediation analysis. Psychological Capital was found to fully mediate the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness. Furthermore, it is noteworthy that mean scores exhibited variations across different age groups in relation to their levels of Job Embeddedness.

## **CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH**

### **7.1 Introduction**

The present study aimed to determine whether Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence have an effect on Job Embeddedness for employees in the Higher Education. By conducting a comprehensive examination of the hypothesised relationships, the study further sheds light on the role of Psychological Capital in clarifying how Emotional Intelligence influences an individual's level of attachment and commitment to their job. Indirect and direct relationships were clarified. In addition, the study also clarified whether there are statistically significant differences in levels of Job Embeddedness across different age groups. The previous chapter provided statistical answers to the hypothesised relationships. The current chapter highlights some discussion, conclusions and possible recommendations related to the current study.

### **7.2 Discussions of results**

The results obtained from the studies will be highlighted in the following section.

#### **7.2.1 *Structural model***

An exploration of the structural model is undertaken, with a particular emphasis on the complex interplay between Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital as key determinants of Job Embeddedness.

##### **7.2.1.1 The effect of Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital on Job Embeddedness**

The complete measurement model demonstrated good fit, i.e. SRMR is  $0.027 < 0.05$ , RMSEA is 0.039, with 95% CI (0.000, 0.077), CFI is 0.990 and NFI (0.975). In other words, the proposed model of the study demonstrated a reasonable representation of the theory. A strong model fit indicates that the proposed conceptual framework, which defines the relationships between the fundamental constructs of Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Capital, and Job Embeddedness, effectively represents the underlying dynamics within the context of employees in a HEI. Therefore, the null

hypothesis was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis accepted. This implied that there was evidence to support that the prior model fits the sample data.

### **7.2.1.2 The relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital**

The results showed a statistically significant positive relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital path ( $\beta = 0.528$ ;  $z = 6.121$ ;  $p = <0.001$ ). This implied that the null hypothesis was rejected as there was enough evidence to support the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital. The results were consistent with several previous studies (Malik & Masood's, 2015; Mellão & Mónico's, 2013). Malik and Masood (2015) discovered significant correlations between Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence ( $r = .599$ ). Similarly, Şimşek, and Aktaş (2016) indicated that Emotional Intelligence explained 25.8% variance in Psychological Capital. Consistent with that, Ignat (2010) found positive and significant relationships between Emotional Intelligence and self-efficacy a dimension of Psychological Capital. A recent study done by Ansari et al. (2020) also noted a positive correlation between Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital among knowledge workers. Though the current study did not explore the correlations among the dimensions of the variables, available literature also indicates that the dimension of self-control in Emotional Intelligence is most correlated with optimism in Psychological Capital. They further indicated that Emotional Intelligence can enhance self-efficacy and resilience within Psychological Capital, while Psychological Capital can benefit from the emotional regulation and social awareness aspects of Emotional Intelligence.

### **7.2.1.3 The relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness**

The results showed that there is no statistically significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness ( $\beta = -0.027$ ;  $z = -0.344$ ;  $p = 0.731$ ). Employees with high levels of Emotional Intelligence were expected to have high levels of Job Embeddedness, as proposed in  $H_{a3}$ . However, results of this study did not provide support for this hypothesis. The results are contrary to Lee and Woo (2015) who found a positive correlation between Emotional Intelligence and Job

Embeddedness noting that employees with high Emotional Intelligence are often better at managing workplace relationships, handling stress, and adapting to organisational culture, all of which can lead to a stronger sense of Job Embeddedness. Lee and Woo (2015) noted that Emotional Intelligence can positively impact an individual's sense of attachment and commitment to their job, thereby positively influencing their Job Embeddedness. In addition, based on the meaning of the constructs, individuals with high Emotional Intelligence are expected to exhibit higher Job Embeddedness due to their ability to build strong interpersonal relationships (links), find jobs that align with their values and skills (fit), and cope effectively with challenges and setbacks (sacrifice) (Lee & Woo, 2015). It was therefore expected that Emotional Intelligence would assist in navigating the social and emotional aspects of one's work environment, fostering a sense of connection and commitment to their job and organisation.

Given all the evidence in support of the hypothesised relationship, note is taken that the current findings were unexpected, therefore further investigation was done and revealed that although there is no direct relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness, there is a significant indirect effect. This suggests that Psychological Capital may act as a mediator in the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness. Emotional Intelligence serves as an initial foundation for individuals to develop skills in recognising and managing their emotions. This, in turn, facilitates the development of Psychological Capital components, including hope, optimism, and resilience (da Costa et al., 2021). The core competency of Emotional Intelligence plays a significant role in fostering the formation of psychological resources by enhancing emotional resilience. These psychological resources significantly impact an individual's attachment to their job and organisation (Mónico et al., 2016).

Emotional Intelligence has been shown to impact on an individual's Psychological Capital (Malik & Masood, 2015; Mellão & Mónico, 2013) which, in turn, impacts on their attachment to colleagues and tasks (Harunavamwe et al., 2019). Thus, Emotional Intelligence enables the expansion of psychological resources and with adequate resources employees can have the confidence to interact with others resulting in an increased sense of attachment and commitment to their job, leading to higher Job

Embeddedness. Essentially, Psychological Capital acts as the bridge that explains how Emotional Intelligence affects Job Embeddedness. As employees experience strong connections with colleagues, supervisors, and other job-related aspects, along with alignment with personal values and goals, embeddedness is enhanced (Mitchell et al., 2017). Psychological Capital, with its focus on hope, efficacy, resilience, and optimism, reinforces these links and fit, thus fostering greater attachment to the job and organisation (Harunavamwe et al., 2019). Thus, the full mediation suggests that Emotional Intelligence facilitates Psychological Capital which, in turn, positively influences Job Embeddedness. This underscores the importance of Emotional Intelligence in fostering positive psychological states (such as hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience) and, subsequently, a deeper connection to one's job, colleagues and organisation.

#### **7.2.1.4 The relationship between Psychological Capital and Job Embeddedness**

The results showed a statistically significant effect for the Psychological Capital to Job Embeddedness path ( $\beta = 0.561$ ;  $z = 7.348$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ). Therefore, it was concluded that variances in levels of Job Embeddedness can be statistically explained by Psychological Capital. These findings are consistent with previous empirical studies which indicate that individuals with higher levels of Psychological Capital tend to feel more connected to their jobs and organisations, ultimately contributing to higher levels of job retention and commitment (Harunavamwe et al., 2019). Individuals with high levels of Psychological Capital are characterised by positive mindset, resilience, self-efficacy, and optimism therefore they are more likely to remain deeply attached and committed to their organisations (Nafei, 2015). Theoretically, the findings underscore the importance of psychological resources amongst employees in fostering organisational commitment and employee retention (Alhargose et al., 2021). It supports the notion that employees who possess these positive psychological attributes are not only better equipped to navigate workplace challenges but are also more inclined to perceive their roles as meaningful and integral to their professional journey within the organisation (Pillay et al., 2019). Moreover, it is worth noting that in previous studies, Psychological Capital was found to be negatively related to undesirable behaviours, such as cynicism, turnover intentions and deviant behaviours

(Avey et al., 2011; Kappagoda et al., 2014) which are essentially the opposite of Job Embeddedness.

#### **7.2.1.5 Age Differences on Job Embeddedness**

In terms of age differences in Job Embeddedness, the results revealed statistically significant differences among age groups, with older employees displaying higher levels of embeddedness compared to the younger employees. These findings are consistent with prior studies that have indicated that older individuals tend to exhibit increased levels of embeddedness and engagement (Karatepe & Karadas, 2012). The observed age-related differences can be attributed to generational differences, as older cohorts tend to prioritise work stability and commitment to a greater extent (Ng & Feldman, 2012). According to Chen et al. (2010), older employees tend to demonstrate higher levels of Job Embeddedness due to factors such as stability, long tenure with the organisation, financial incentives like pension plans, and strong social bonds with colleagues, which all contribute to current job attachment. Furthermore, they experience a sense of career fulfilment and encounter opportunities for continued development within the organisation, which significantly contributes to their Job Embeddedness (Chen et al., 2010). The combination of these factors results in a strong reluctance to leave their current employment, highlighting the significant role of the element of sacrifice in older employees' embeddedness (Karatepe & Karadas, 2012).

### **7.3 Conclusions regarding contributions to the field of Industrial Psychology**

In light of the findings of the study, it is highly recommended for HEIs to give the highest priority to the cultivation of Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence within their workforce, as these variables have a substantial influence on Job Embeddedness (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). HEIs can accomplish these goals by adopting targeted interventions, training programmes, and projects that address specific subdimensions of Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence (Goleman, 1995; Luthans, Avolio, et al., 2007). These may include facilitating the development of self-efficacy among their employees through the implementation of skill-enhancement workshops and mentoring programmes, which

would motivate individuals to undertake demanding tasks and cultivate a sense of assurance in their capabilities (Luthans, et al., 2015). It is recommended that professional development programmes incorporate techniques aimed at improving emotional intelligence abilities, such as self-awareness, self-regulation, empathy, and social skills. These abilities promise to have a strong association with Job Embeddedness.

Given the direct relationship between Psychological Capital and Job Embeddedness, as well as the indirect relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness, some of the initiatives can be implemented to enhance Job Embeddedness among employees. One effective strategy is to focus on expanding personal resources, such as hope, resilience, self-efficacy, and optimism. By developing these psychological attributes, employees can improve their emotional stability, which, in turn, positively influences their Job Embeddedness. It is crucial to establish a conducive work environment that facilitates the utilisation of personal resources and cultivates positivity and optimism, improve personal resources through recognising accomplishments, and providing challenging tasks to boost confidence (Seligman, 2011; Snyder, 2002). In the context of HEIs, managers can consider implementing coaching and mentoring programmes with a specific focus on enhancing both Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence dimensions. These programmes should be implemented, as proposed by Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) and Luthans, Avolio, et al. (2007) to provide practical tools to help individuals identify and regulate their emotions, build resilience, and foster a positive outlook. Mentors play a pivotal role in fostering the development of emotional intelligence skills and nurturing Psychological Capital in their mentees. This is achieved through the exchange of personal experiences and the provision of constructive feedback, as highlighted by Ghosh (2014) and Grocutt et al. (2020). The mentorship programme has the potential to serve as a comprehensive framework for various mentoring activities within the institution, ultimately contributing to the enhancement of Job Embeddedness among employees.

In addition, the implementation of comprehensive onboarding programmes is crucial in facilitating the integration of new employees into the organisational culture and fostering the development of significant interpersonal connections with co-workers

(Bauer et al., 2007). This helps to create links for new employees. HEIs ought to consider the inclusion of components that foster Emotional Intelligence, such as empathy and proficient communication, inside their onboarding curriculum (Goldstein, 2014). Through this approach, organisations have the ability to establish a conducive atmosphere wherein recently recruited personnel experience a sense of motivation, appreciation, and adequate readiness for their respective positions. Consequently, this fosters enhanced attachment and high levels of Job Embeddedness. In summary, by strategically emphasising specific subdimensions of Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence, HEIs can nurture personal development, expand employee links, cultivate their skills and deeply embed employees into their roles and the organisation at large. In order to improve Job Embeddedness, organisations should be more attuned to the needs of the younger generation, since they are more likely to explore alternative career opportunities compared to their older counterparts.

#### **7.4 Limitations and suggestions for future research**

The current study focused on exploring the impact of Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital on Job Embeddedness among HEI employees. However, it is essential to acknowledge certain limitations in the study's design and approach. The cross-sectional design used in this study, while informative, does not allow for the establishment of definitive causal relationships. To provide stronger evidence for the proposed mediation mechanism, future research employing experimental or longitudinal designs is recommended, as it would enable a more in-depth examination of cause-and-effect relationships over time.

Another important consideration is the potential introduction of common method bias due to the reliance on self-report measures for Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Capital, and Job Embeddedness. To address this, future research could incorporate objective measures or multiple data sources to triangulate findings and minimise the impact of common method bias.

While the study primarily focuses on Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital as predictors of Job Embeddedness, it is crucial to recognise the potential contributions of other unexplored variables to this relationship. The complexity of

mediation mechanisms should also be acknowledged, prompting further exploration of additional mediators or moderators in future studies. This will help to clarify the intricate psychological mechanisms through which Emotional Intelligence influences job outcomes.

Additionally, it is worth noting that the study did not directly measure employee turnover. This limitation underscores the need for future research specifically targeting Job Embeddedness within the higher education sector, with a focus on understanding its determinants and implications, including its potential relationship with turnover. This would lead to a more comprehensive understanding of the factors influencing employee retention and commitment in the unique context of HEIs and contribute to the broader literature on Job Embeddedness.

## **7.5 Recommendations for future research**

This study opens the door for further exploration of the differences in the levels of Job Embeddedness across age groups. Future research could delve deeper into comparing the differences in levels of Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital across age groups. Additionally, conducting comparative studies on the levels of Job Embeddedness across other demographic variables in various industries and settings could offer a more comprehensive perspective on Job Embeddedness. Future studies might investigate how Job Embeddedness varies among different generations, such as Baby Boomers, Generation X, Millennials, and Generation Z, exploring how generational values, work expectations, and career goals influence Job Embeddedness. Furthermore, future research could examine Job Embeddedness in diverse cultural contexts to determine whether cultural differences impact the factors contributing to Job Embeddedness and identify any universal factors that transcend cultural boundaries.

Given the evolving nature of work in many organisations, including the rise of remote work and the gig economy, future research should focus on understanding how Job Embeddedness is influenced by these changes. Exploring the impact of remote work on Job Embeddedness, considering the reduced physical interaction among employees, is essential. Additionally, investigating how the concept of Job

Embeddedness adapts to the changing work landscape, including the gig economy, temporary work arrangements, and emerging technologies, is necessary to keep the concept relevant and applicable.

In alignment with the current emphasis on employee well-being, further studies should delve into the relationship between Job Embeddedness and employee well-being. This research can explore how factors like stress, burnout, and mental health relate to Job Embeddedness. It is important to determine whether high levels of Job Embeddedness consistently lead to positive outcomes or if there are situations where it may have negative effects.

To gain a comprehensive understanding of the organisational benefits of a highly embedded workforce, research should focus on quantifying the impact of Job Embeddedness on key performance indicators. This would provide insights into how Job Embeddedness contributes to improved productivity, reduced turnover, and enhanced employee engagement. Moreover, developing and evaluating interventions and strategies that organisations can implement to increase Job Embeddedness among employees, particularly in industries with high turnover rates, is crucial for enhancing organisational performance and employee retention.

Given the dynamic nature of HEIs and the recognised significance of Job Embeddedness in retaining talented staff, future research should focus on exploring effective retention strategies. Investigating tailored approaches that foster Job Embeddedness among academic and support staff may furnish significant insights into supporting organisational commitment and mitigating turnover.

Future research needs to be undertaken to explore comprehensive career planning strategies tailored to the unique needs of staff. Investigating the effectiveness of career development initiatives, mentorship programmes and skills development opportunities for staff can offer valuable insights into fostering professional growth and enhance Job Embeddedness. This research should consider the diverse career trajectories within academia and administration, taking into account the evolving landscape of higher education.

Considering the mediating role observed, it would also be valuable to explore potential moderating factors that might influence the association between Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Capital, and Job Embeddedness. These moderating elements could include variables related to one's career stage, specific job roles, or the prevailing organisational culture, and understanding how they may buffer the negative effects and facilitate higher levels of Job Embeddedness.

In examining the use of Psychological Capital as a full mediator in the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness, it is essential to expand the model to encompass other organisational factors and consider how they interact with these psychological resources. These additional factors could include various positive psychology aspects. Therefore, the inclusion of extra variables in the relationship between Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Capital, and Job Embeddedness would offer a more comprehensive view of how these concepts interact.

This approach may enable the exploration of nuanced mediational or conditional mechanisms that shape the relationship. By including these supplementary variables, researchers can better understand the complex interplay between Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Capital, and Job Embeddedness, along with the diverse circumstances that might influence this relationship. To further substantiate the mediating role of Psychological Capital, longitudinal studies can be conducted to track individuals over time. Longitudinal research would allow researchers to observe how changes in Emotional Intelligence impact changes in Psychological Capital and, subsequently, their effect on Job Embeddedness. This temporal perspective can provide valuable insights into the dynamic nature of these constructs and their interactions.

## **7.6 Conclusion**

In conclusion, this study has provided valuable insights into the complex interplay among Psychological Capital, Emotional Intelligence, and Job Embeddedness within the context of HEIs. The findings have significant implications for the development of strategic initiatives aimed at enhancing Emotional Intelligence, subsequently contributing to improved Psychological Capital and ultimately resulting in an enriched

level of Job Embeddedness. This study not only contributes to the understanding of the HEI context but also provides insights that may be applicable to other organisational settings, highlighting the broader relevance of these findings. Further research can build upon these foundations to explore additional factors and mechanisms that influence Job Embeddedness, ultimately fostering a deeper understanding of how organisations can enhance employee engagement and commitment. This chapter focused on the conclusions, recommendations and limitations derived from the current study. A few pointers are also provided for future research.

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## APPENDIX 1: INFORMED CONSENT

### INFORMED CONSENT FORM

#### Dear Participant

You are invited to complete the following questionnaire which is **NOT** a test of ability but only asks for your opinion. Please note that there are no right or wrong answers. The survey is being conducted by an independent party and poses **no harm** of any kind to you and your job. Complete **confidentiality and anonymity are guaranteed; and only grouped data will be presented**. The information you provide will be used to improve the working environment.

The **main purpose of this research** is to determine whether Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital have a significant effect on Job embeddedness among employees in a higher education institution: The findings can be adopted by organisations, practitioners and researchers in effectively reorganising and enhancing the efficiency of their delivery systems through enhancing job embeddedness without jeopardizing worker quality.

- a. We hereby request your **consent** before proceeding with the process.
- b. Participation in this survey is voluntary.
- c. Please provide answers to all questions as honestly as possible and do not leave out any as this will compromise the findings of the study

**Your participation in this research is much appreciated**

## **APPENDIX 2: RESEARCH STUDY INFORMATION LEAFLET AND CONSENT FORM**

### **DATE**

[Date of study to be confirmed.]

### **TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT**

“The effect of emotional intelligence and psychological capital on job embeddedness among employees in a higher education institution”.

### **PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR / RESEARCHER NAME AND CONTACT NUMBER:**

Burneline Kaars 2007058072      +27 71 670 4433

### **FACULTY AND DEPARTMENT:**

Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

Department of Industrial Psychology

### **STUDY LEADER NAME, EMAIL AND CONTACT NUMBER:**

Mr. Thinus Delpport

Delpportm@ufs.ac.za

+27 58 718 5050

### **WHAT IS THE AIM / PURPOSE OF THE STUDY?**

The purpose of this study is to investigate possible correlations between emotional intelligence and psychological capital as critical resources that promote job embeddedness among employees in an higher education institution. The study aims to determine if the positive aspects of emotional intelligence and psychological capital influence job embeddedness in a higher education institution.

### **WHO IS DOING THE RESEARCH?**

My name is Burneline Kaars, and I am currently a master's student of industrial psychology at the University of the Free State. I am conducting this study as part of the requirements to complete my master's degree.

## **HAS THE STUDY RECEIVED ETHICAL APPROVAL?**

This study has received approval from the Research Ethics Committee of UFS. A copy of the approval letter can be obtained from the researcher.

Approval number: Insert approval number

## **WHY ARE YOU INVITED TO TAKE PART IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT?**

The study that I wish to conduct will mainly focus on permanently employed employees, both academic and support staff, working at the University of the Free State. The criteria that will make individuals to participate include that they need to have at least two years' experience in their current position.

## **WHAT IS THE NATURE OF PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY?**

Your participation in this study will serve to contribute to the growing knowledge of why employees decide to stay within their organisation and offer an improved understanding on how emotional intelligence and psychological capital can play a role in promoting job embeddedness among employees. This study involves a questionnaire survey with empirically proven reliability and validity. The questions within this questionnaire aims to ascertain why people stay in their organisations and how connected they are to their place of employment and community, to determine how emotional intelligence promotes positive employee work behaviour, and overall psychological capacities of the individual.

## **CAN THE PARTICIPANT WITHDRAW FROM THE STUDY?**

You are free to decide if you want to partake in this study at your own choice. Participation is voluntarily, and should you wish, you are welcome to withdraw from this study at any moment without giving reason, and without fear of consequence prior to the submission of the questionnaire. Please note it will not be possible to withdraw once you have submitted the questionnaire. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a written consent form.

## **WHAT ARE THE POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?**

The results of this study will be a valuable contribution to the University of the Free State, and to the general body of knowledge around this topic, where the findings of this study will be able to indicate whether positive aspects of emotional intelligence and psychological capital influence job embeddedness of employees.

## **WHAT IS THE ANTICIPATED INCONVENIENCE OF TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?**

Except for the time that you offer to complete the questionnaire, this study does not predispose you to any other risks and will incur no financial costs to you by partaking in this study. However, due to the sensitive nature of information about turnover intention, or intention to leave, any specific identifiable information you provide (e.g. name and surname) will not be shared with management. Should management request feedback on the final results of this study, only the collective findings of this

research study will be provided in a report, without any identifiable information on any specific individual.

### **WILL WHAT I SAY BE KEPT WILL WHAT I CONFIDENTIAL?**

Any and all information that is acquired in relation with this current study will remain confidential and used only for the generation of knowledge. Any personal or identifiable information (e.g. names, contact numbers, etc.) that you provide will be kept highly confidential. Your answers will be given a fictitious code number or a pseudonym and will be referred to in this way in the data, any publications, or other research reporting methods such as conference proceedings etc. The data and records that can identify you will only be available and accessible by the people working on the study, which includes myself (Burneline Kaars) and my research supervisor (Mr. Thinus Delpport), unless you provide permission for other people to see the records. In addition, all answers from you may be reviewed by people responsible for making sure that this research is done properly, which includes the University of the Free State's transcriber, external coder, and members of the Research Ethics Committee. Only the collective results, which does not include any personal or identifiable information on any participant and organisation, of this study may be published by the University of the Free State for lecturers and students for academic purposes should the University of the Free State decide to do so (e.g. research reports, journal articles, conference presentations, etc.). Strict confidentiality will be maintained for all organisations and individual participants that partakes in this study. Any and all identifiable information that is provided by you will be kept private and protected in any publication of the information.

### **HOW WILL THE INFORMATION BE STORED AND ULTIMATELY DESTROYED?**

Hard copies of the results will be stored by the researcher for a period of five years in a locked cupboard/filing cabinet with the department of industrial psychology for future research or academic purposes. Electronic information will be stored on a password protected computer only accessible by the researcher. Future use of the stored data will be subject to further Research Ethics Review and approval if applicable. After a period of five years, the hard copies of all the answers will be destroyed through shredding, and electronic copies of the answers will be erased

### **WILL I RECEIVE PAYMENT OR ANY INCENTIVES FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY?**

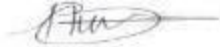
There is no payment or incentives for participating in this survey or study.

### **HOW WILL THE PARTICIPANT BE INFORMED OF THE FINDINGS / RESULTS OF THE STUDY?**

If you require any further information, want to contact the researcher about any aspect of this study, or would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact Burneline Kaars on +27 71 670 4433 or [kaarsb@ufs.ac.za](mailto:kaarsb@ufs.ac.za). The findings are accessible for [time frame to be confirmed]. Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact Mr. Thinus Delpport on +27 58 718 5050, or via email at [Delpportm@ufs.ac.za](mailto:Delpportm@ufs.ac.za).

**Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.**

Yours sincerely



Burneline Kaars  
Masters of Industrial Psychology Student  
University of the Free State



### APPENDIX 3: CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY

I, \_\_\_\_\_ (participant name), confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read (or had explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet. I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without reason, and without fear of consequence prior to the submission of the questionnaire. I am aware that the findings of this study will be anonymously processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings.

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Full name of Participant: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of Participant: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Full Name (s) of Researcher(s): \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of Researcher: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX 4: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire consists of four sections, each focusing on a different part about you and the organisation you are working for. Please read every question in each section, and either cross or circle the number that best relates to your view as honestly as you can. Take note that there are no right or wrong answers and that each question simply serves to represent your opinion.

### SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

All categories below are included to support the literature and ultimate findings of this study.

**Please complete the following details for the purposes of the research by marking the box (with an X) that is appropriate for you**

1.1 Gender:

1. Male		2. Female		3. Other		4. Do not wish to answer	
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1.2 Age in Years:

18-25		26-30		31-40		41-50		5. Above 50		6. Do not wish to answer	
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1.3 Ethnicity:

1. Black		2. White		3. Coloured		4. Indian		5. Other ( <i>state</i> )		6. Do not wish to answer	
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1.4 Highest Level of Educational Achieved

1. Matric		2. Diploma		3. B. Degree		4. Post grad		5. Other ( <i>state</i> .....)		6. Do not wish to answer	
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1.5 Current Job level

1. Executive level		2. Senior Level		3. Middle Level		4. Operational Level	
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## SECTION B: PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

**PSYCAP Questionnaire – Instruction: Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. Where:**

(1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = somewhat agree, 5 =

= Agree, 6 = strongly agree)

1	I feel confident analysing a long-term problem to find a solution.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I feel confident representing my work area in meetings with management.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company's strategy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I feel confident contacting people outside the company (e.g., suppliers, customers) to discuss problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my work goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	There are lots of ways around any problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Right now, I see myself as being pretty successful at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	At this time, I am meeting the work goals that I have set for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering and moving on. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I can be "on my own," so to speak, at work if I have to.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I usually take stressful things at work in stride.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I can get through difficult times at work because I've experienced difficulty before.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	I feel I can handle many things at a time at this job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	When things are uncertain for me at work, I usually expect the best.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	If something can go wrong for me work-wise, it will. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I'm optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	In this job, things never work out the way I want them to. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I approach this job as if "every cloud has a silver lining."	1	2	3	4	5	6

## SECTION C: JOB EMBEDDEDNESS

**J E Scale: Instruction: Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements**

**1- Strongly disagree, 2- Disagree, 3- Neutral, 4-Agree, 5- Strongly Agree**

Item ( Organisational Fit)	1	2	3	4	5
I like the members of my work group					
My co-workers are similar to me.					
My job utilizes my skills and talents well.					
I feel like I am a good match for this company.					
I fit with the company's culture.					
I like the authority and responsibility I have at this company.					
My values are compatible with the organization's values.					
I can reach my professional goals working for this organization					
I feel good about my professional growth and development					
<b>Organisational Sacrifice</b>					
I have a lot of freedom on this job to decide how to pursue my goals.					
The perks on this job are outstanding.					
I feel that people at work respect me a great deal					
I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job					
My promotional opportunities are excellent here					
I am well compensated for my level of performance.					
The benefits are good on this job.					
The health-care benefits provided by this organization are excellent.					
The retirement benefits provided by this organization are excellent.					
The prospects for continuing employment with this company are excellent.					

### Links to Organisation

1. How long have you been in your present position?

Less than a yr.	1 year	2-3years	4-5 years	More than 5 yrs.

2. How long have you worked for this company?

Less than a yr.	1 year	2-3years	4-5 years	More than 5 yrs.

3. How long have you worked in this industry?

Less than a yr.	1 year	2-3years	4-5 years	More than 5 yrs.

4. How many co-workers do you interact with regularly?

1	2-3	4-5	6-7	More than 8

5. How many co-workers are highly dependent on you?

None	1-2	3-4	5-6	7 and more

6. How many work teams are you on?

None	1	2	3	4 and more

7. How many work committees are you on?

None	1	2	3	4 and more

8. The quality of people who work for the company are good.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

9. I feel a strong link with my organisation.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

## SECTION D: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

### Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale:

Instructions: Indicate the extent to which each item applies to you using the following scale:

*1- Strongly disagree, 2- Disagree, 3- Neutral, 4-Agree, 5- Strongly Agree*

	1	2	3	4	5
1. I know when to speak about my personal problems to others					
2. When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them.					
3. I expect that I will do well on most things I try					
4. Other people find it easy to confide in me					
5. I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people					
6. Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important					
7. When my mood changes, I see new possibilities					
8. Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living					
9. I am aware of my emotions as I experience them					
10. I expect good things to happen					
11. I like to share my emotions with others					
12. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last					
13. I arrange events others enjoy					
14. I seek out activities that make me happy					
15. I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others					
16. I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others					
17. When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me					
18. By looking at their facial expression, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing					
19. I know why my emotions change					
20. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas					
21. I have control over my emotions					
22. I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them					
23. I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on					
24. I compliment others when they have done something well					
25. I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send					
26. When another person tells me about an important event in his/her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself					
27. When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas					
28. When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail					

29. I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them					
30. I help other people feel better when they are down					
31. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles					
32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice					
33. It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do					

## APPENDIX 5: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



### GENERAL/HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (GHREC)

15-Feb-2022

Dear Mrs Burneline Kaars

#### Application Approved

Research Project Title:

**The effect of Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital on Job Embeddedness among employees in a higher education institution**

Ethical Clearance number:

**UFS-HSD2021/1688/21**

We are pleased to inform you that your application for ethical clearance has been approved. Your ethical clearance is valid for twelve (12) months from the date of issue. We request that any changes that may take place during the course of your study/research project be submitted to the ethics office to ensure ethical transparency. Furthermore, you are requested to submit the final report of your study/research project to the ethics office. Should you require more time to complete this research, please apply for an extension. Thank you for submitting your proposal for ethical clearance; we wish you the best of luck and success with your research.

Yours sincerely

**Dr Adri Du Plessis**

**Chairperson: General/Human Research Ethics Committee**

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## APPENDIX 6: EDITOR'S DECLARATION



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### TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This serves to confirm that I have edited and proofread the dissertation entitled

**THE EFFECT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND PSYCHOLOGICAL  
CAPITAL ON JOB EMBEDDEDNESS AMONG EMPLOYEES IN A HIGHER  
EDUCATION INSTITUTION**

prepared by Ms Burneline Kaars in accordance with the requirements of the Magister Degree in Industrial Psychology, Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences at the University of the Free State, according to the specifications of the University, where available, and the latest standards for language editing and technical (computer-based) layout.

Editing was restricted to language usage and spelling, consistency, formatting and the style of referencing. No structural writing of any content was undertaken.

As an editor I am not responsible for detecting any content that may constitute plagiarism.

All references have been provided in the prescribed format.

I cannot guarantee that the proposed changes have been made to this dissertation by the author or any other party after the date of my edit, and therefore accept no responsibility for the correctness in all respects of the dissertation.

*(Electronically signed – actual signature withheld for security reasons)*

**MONICA BOTHA**

30 October 2023

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Sole Proprietor: Monica Botha

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