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Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and Contextual Performance: Examining Effects of Work Status and Emotional Intelligence among Private Club Staff Members

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ABSTRACT
This study explored the effects of work status (part-time vs full-time) and emotional intelligence (high EI-vs low EI-groups) on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and contextual performance, using a sample of private club staff members (N = 136). Multivariate analysis of covariance (MANOVA) showed that there were no statistically significant differences between part-time and full-time staff members with regard to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and contextual performance. On the other hand, multivariate effects for emotional intelligence and work status × emotional intelligence interaction were statistically significant, respectively. Practical implications for the private club industry are also provided in terms of hiring and training procedures.

Key Words: Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Contextual Performance, Emotional Intelligence, and Private Club Industry

INTRODUCTION
Part-time employment is becoming a substantial and growing proportion of the workforce in the United States. In particular, service organizations have turned to part-time employees, because of their schedule flexibility and reduced labor costs. About 37% of service-related jobs are occupied by part-time staff members (U.S. Department of Labor, 2006). While several researchers started investigating the role of work status in job attitudes and performance in other industries (c.f., Martin & Sinclair, 2007; Thorsteinson, 2003), there is a paucity of hospitality research comparing the work-related attitudes and job performance between full-time and part-time hospitality staff members. So it is imperative to examine whether and when there may be differences in important organizational outcomes of part-time and full-time workers, using the hospitality sample. This current study, in particular, addresses the difference between part-time and full-time staff members in their work attitudes and behaviors in the context of the private club industry.

Feldman (1990) argued that researchers tend to treat part-time employees as a single, homogenous group. This current study attempted to differentiate characteristics of part-time and full-time staff members, depending on their scores of emotional intelligence. Although the term, emotional intelligence, was not introduced as a research mainstream until the 1990s, the concept of emotional intelligence has emerged as a growing research topic among organizational- and business researchers. In general, emotional intelligence refers to the ability to recognize and regulate emotions in ourselves and in others (Goleman, 1995). Emotional intelligence is claimed to influence various work behaviors, such as employee commitment, teamwork, development of talent, innovation, quality of service, and customer loyalty (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004).
Emotionally competent staff members are an important asset to the private club industry, because they likely possess skills and abilities to create rapport with private club members and build relationships with them and also with their co-workers (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Goleman, 1995). Private club staff members are required to treat private club members especially well, because private club members are also private club owners by virtue of retaining their memberships, continuing to pay dues, and sponsoring others to join through developed relationships (Cichy, Cha, & Kim, 2007). Emotionally intelligent staff members may be more aware of their own feelings as well as the feelings of others, including co-workers and private club member, and better may be able to identify and manage them, according to the theory of emotional intelligence. Understanding and managing one’s own and others’ emotions are likely to influence job attitudes and behavioral choices in the work place (Rozell, Pettijohn, & Parker, 2004).

**Study Objectives**

This study employed a sample of private club staff members to evaluate differences in job satisfaction, organizational commitment and contextual performance, based on their work status (full-time versus part-time) and their level of emotional intelligence (high EI versus low EI). Most importantly, this study was to explore whether there are differences in these important outcome variables, depending on interactions between their work status (part-time versus full-time) and emotional intelligence (high EI versus low EI).

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**Development in Emotional Intelligence**

After Salovey and Mayer (1990) initially introduced the term emotional intelligence to represent an individual’s ability to deal with his or her own and others’ emotions, Goleman (1995) popularized the concept of EI by his publication *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More than IQ*. As his title suggests, he argued that general intelligence (IQ) only predicts about 20% of the variance relating to an individual’s success, and emphasized that EI can be more powerful than IQ. Bar-On’s work in EI (1997) also needs to be recognized. Bar-On (1997) defined EI as “an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressure” (p. 16). His conceptual definition of EI is broader than those of other researchers who consider emotional intelligence as one part of important social intelligence. Since those researchers and other EI researchers have claimed the link between EI and important job attitudes and effective performance, practitioners and researchers increasingly have paid attention to understanding EI as an important factor explaining individual performance at work. EI frameworks theorized by Goleman (1995, 1998, 2000), Salovey and Mayer (1990), Mayer and Salovey (1997), and Bar-On (1997, 2000) have contributed significantly to the field of organizational behavior. However, several researchers have questioned the scientific validity and reliability of EI frameworks (Antonakis, 2003; Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Davies et al., 1998; Lockes, 2005; Schutte et al., 1998). Law, Wong, and Song (2004) also commented that some popular measures of existing EI scales are too extensive to administer in real organizational settings. In responding to fill in research gaps, Cichy, Cha, and Kim (2007) developed a relatively short scale of EI, consisting of In, Out, and Relationships, that can be applied to the real organizational context, and tested the proposed three dimensions of validity and reliability. In is defined as one’s ability to sense and lead one’s own emotions. Out is one’s ability to be aware of, or relate to and understand others’ emotions. Relationships construct represents one’s ability to integrate emotional experiences with one’s actions and thoughts, while interacting with others.

**High EI and Low EI Groups in Outcome Variables**

In general terms, organizational commitment is “a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a definite desire to maintain organizational membership (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; p. 604). Allen and Meyer (1990, 1996) proposed a three-component conceptualization of OC, comprising affective commitment (AC), continuance commitment (CC), and normative commitment (NC). Individuals with strong AC remain with the organization because they want to, those with strong CC stay because they need to, and those with strong NC continue to work because they feel they ought to (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 2003). Organizational commitment can be seen as an emotional response to a positive appraisal of the work environment (Testa, 2001). Researchers also found that emotional intelligence was correlated positively with organizational commitment (Carmeli, 2003; Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002; Shutte et al., 1998; Rozell et al., 2004).

Job satisfaction, one of the most extensively researched work attitudes in organizational behavior literature, is defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience
(Luthan, 1998). Dong and Howard (2006) explained that an employee with high level of emotional intelligence is able to cope appropriately with workplace stress; this capacity results in positive moods. Bar-On’s (1997) study reported a modest relationship between EI and job satisfaction. Other empirical studies also supported that individuals with high EI experienced high levels of job satisfaction (c.f., Carmeli, 2003; Chiva & Alegre, 2008; Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008; Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall, & Salovey, 2006; Sy, Tram, & Jones, 2006).

Maynard et al. also (2006) called for the future research investigating understudied outcome variables such as contextual performance and actual withdrawal behavior in comparing full-time and part-time staff members’ work experiences. This current study included the contextual performance as a dependent variable. The term, contextual performance, was used first by Borman and Motowidlo (1993; 1997); it references organizational citizenship behaviors including patterns of behaviors beyond job-specific duties, namely discretionary extra-role behaviors (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) initially investigated two separate dimensions of contextual performance: interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. They defined interpersonal facilitation as “consisting of interpersonally oriented behaviors that contribute to organizational goal accomplishment” and job dedication as “centering on self-disciplined behaviors such as following rules, working hard, and taking the initiative to solve a problem at work” (p. 526). Previous studies showed positive relationship between EI score and extra-role behaviors (Carmeli & Josman, 2006; Modassir & Singh, 2008).

Mixed Supports of Work Status in Outcome Variables

Barling and Gallagher (1996) criticized organizational research investigating employees’ work status, because much of the research on job attitudes and behaviors of full-time and part-time employees has been mainly descriptive and has not built on strong theoretical frameworks. Empirically, research on job satisfaction, commitment, and contextual performance of part-time employees in general shows mixed results. Some researcher found that part-time employees were less committed to, and satisfied with, their jobs than were full-time employees (Hall & Gordon, 1973; Lee & Johnson, 1991; Miller & Terborg, 1979; Morrow, McElroy & Elliott, 1994). Contrarily, other researchers showed interesting findings that part-time employees were more committed and satisfied than were full-time employees (Barker, 1993; Eberhardt & Shani, 1984; Jacofsky & Peters, 1987). Eberhardt and Shani (1984) found that health care part-time employees had more favorable attitudes toward organizational structure and reward systems, than had full-time employees. They explained that those part-time employees were more likely to be exposed to fewer organizational problems and politics, and that this lesser likelihood may prevent (or at least reduce) the development of negative attitudes pertinent to job satisfaction. Interestingly, the recent meta-analysis conducted by Thorsteinson (2003) showed that part-time employees reported lower levels of job involvement than did full-time employees; however, there were not significant differences of job satisfaction and organizational commitment between these two groups. Martin and Sinclair (2007) argued that Thorsteinson’s work treated part-time employees as a single group, without considering differences among those part-timers.

Research Questions

Although there are a few explanations why there may be differences between full-time and part-time staff members and between high EI and lower EI groups in their work attitudes and behaviors, previous empirical findings in these topics were mixed and are unclear. Thus, this current study developed the following research questions:

RQ1: Are there differences in job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and contextual performance between part-time and full-time staff members?

RQ2: Are there differences in job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and contextual performance between low-EI and high-EI staff members?

RQ3: Are there any interaction effects between work status and EI groups in examining job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and contextual performance?

METHODS

Data Collection and Sample Characteristics

Data were collected initially via a web-based survey and followed up via a mail survey. This current study was a part of Phase IV joint research with the Club Managers Association of American (CMAA). An e-invitation was sent to COOs/GMs with a request to distribute a survey copy or forward an online survey link to their
executive members, department heads, supervisors and staff members. To explore this current study’s research objectives and research questions, it selected only staff members (N = 136) from the entire sample (N = 987). The majority of respondents (68.4%) are female, the majority of the respondents’ ages ranged 35 years or younger (M = 32 years). More than half the respondents (51.5%) indicated attending some college and obtaining two-year degrees. About 76% were permanent/long term employees while 58.1% respondents were full-time staff members.

Measurement Development and Scales
Respondents were asked to check one of two categories, full-time or part-time, for the work status question. The EI scale was adopted from a previous empirical study conducted by Cichy et al. (2007). The EI scale with 20 items consisting of three dimensions – In (8 items), Out (7 items), and Relationships (5 items) – was used. The criterion used to divide the total sample into two groups, i.e., low- and high-EI groups, was based on the median of total EI scores, namely 60. That is, the total EI score was 75 points (5 points multiplied by 15 questions). Scales of overall job satisfaction (Taylor & Bowers, 1972), organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990), and contextual performance (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) were adapted from previous studies and modified to apply in the context of the only private club industry.

Statistical Analysis
Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to check the goodness of the measurement scales, using the AMOS 16.0 program. CFA offers a viable method for evaluating construct validity (Kline, 1998) and establishing evidence for convergent and discriminant validity among scales. In addition to a chi-square statistic, multiple indices were used in evaluating the model fit, including the comparative fit index, the non-normed fit index, and the root mean square error of approximation. Next, multivariate analysis of covariance (MANOVA) was employed to examine differences in overall job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and contextual performance between two main effects (1. part time versus full time, 2. high EI and low EI groups), while controlling for covariate such as the individual’s gender, age, and job tenure. Also, interaction effects between work status and EI groups in these outcome variables were examined.

RESULTS
Measurement model
The initial model, comprising six factors (job satisfaction, affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment, job dedication, and interpersonal facilitation) was revised to a model with 15 items. The initial model did not show acceptable fit indices, $\chi^2(224) = 436.5$, $p < .01$ (NNFI = .82; CFI = .79; RMSEA = .10). The revised model had a good fit of data, $\chi^2(162.5) = 162.5$, $p < .01$ (NNFI = .92; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .05). All standardized loadings were significant at $< .01$, indicating evidence for convergent validity.

Descriptive Statistics
Table 1 shows numbers of items, means, standard deviations, and standardized Cronbach for variables in the study. All scales demonstrated acceptable and good reliability, which exceed .7 (Nunnally, 1978).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Number of variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Reliability (Cronbach’s $\alpha$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal facilitation</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>.750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job dedication</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>.818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective commitment</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>.853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous commitment</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>.725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative commitment</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>.787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>.895</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Findings of MANCOVA
The MANCOVA results presented in Table 2 show that the multivariate effect of work status was not statistically significant, $F (6,114) = 1.85$. There were no differences between part-time and full-time staff members with regard to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and contextual performance. On the other hand, multivariate effects for emotional intelligence and work status × emotional intelligence interaction were statistically significant, $F (6,114) = 7.19$ and $F (6,114) = 3.06$, respectively. Multivariate effects for job tenure and gender
control variables) were statistically significant, $F(6, 114) = 2.53$ and $F(6, 114) = 3.56$. Follow-up univariate tests (bottom half of Table 2) for the EI main effect revealed three significant univariate relationships: contextual performance (interpersonal facilitation and job dedication) and job satisfaction.

Table 2. Results of MANCOVA ($N = 136$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multivariate effect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WS</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI</td>
<td>7.19</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WS × EI</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>.008*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job tenure</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>.025*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>.369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>.003*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Univariate effects</th>
<th>WS F</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>EI F</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>WS ×EI F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IF</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>.199</td>
<td>15.27</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>9.13</td>
<td>.003*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JD</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>.026*</td>
<td>36.42</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>.022*</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>.731</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>.195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>.366</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>.232</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td>.020*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>.728</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>.143</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>.153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>.159</td>
<td>13.21</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>.611</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Staff members in the high-EI group had higher mean scores in interpersonal facilitation ($EIH = 4.41$ versus $EIL= 4.06$), job dedication ($EIH = 4.51$ versus $EIL= 4.02$) and job satisfaction ($EIH = 4.38$ versus $EIL= 3.97$) than those in the low-EI group. These differences were statistically significant at $p < .05$. As shown in Figure 1 and Table 3, work status × emotional intelligence interaction yielded a significant univariate interaction effect on interpersonal facilitation ($F(1, 112)=9.13$), and continuous commitment ($F(1,112)=5.60$). Findings showed that full-time staff members with high EI (M=4.54, M=3.32) had higher scores in interpersonal facilitation and continuous commitment than had full-time staff members with low EI (M=3.98; M=2.78). But within part-time workers, there was no EI difference in interpersonal facilitation and continuous commitment.

Figure 1. Plots of cell means for Interpersonal Facilitation and Continuous Commitment.

Table 3. Means of dependent variables by work status by EI.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
<th>Low EI</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Part-time</td>
<td>Full-time</td>
<td>Part-time</td>
<td>Full-time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IF</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>4.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JD</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>4.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>4.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>3.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>3.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>4.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DISCUSSIONS

While part-time employees are particularly prevalent in the hospitality industry including the private club industry, there has been a paucity of research on examining work-related differences between part-time (PT) and full-time (FT) employees. This current study yields some insightful findings and makes several important contributions to the field of organizational behaviors and human resource literatures.

The current study demonstrated that work status did not have overall substantial effects on selected dependent variables. This finding is generally consistent with the recent meta-analysis conducted by Thorsteinson (2003). Separate univariate analyses showed that full-time staff members had higher levels of affective commitment and job dedication than had part-time staff members. Some explanations can explain different motivation, job attitudes and work behaviors between PT and FT staff members. The partial inclusion theory of Katz and Kahn (1978) explains that many work- and non-work roles compete for individuals’ time, energies, and psychological involvements. FT staff members partial inclusion theory likely consider their organizations (private clubs) as a primary social system, because they are more involved in day-to-day activities than are PT employees. Partial inclusion theory recognized that PT employees may not be included to the extent FT employees are in the organization’s important social system (Thorsteinson, 2003). When they feel less a part of the organization (Alexandrov et al., 2007), PT employees intentionally limit their attached feelings, commitment, and extra-role behaviors in one organization so that they can direct their time and energies to other important social systems they consider (Martin & Sinclair, 2007). Also, social exchange theory may explain some differences in job dedication (part of contextual performance) between part-time and full-time employees. Stamper and Van Dyne (2003) used this theory to explain differences of work status in organizational citizenship behaviors. They explained that organizations are likely to expect less from their PT staff members, because organizations invest less in PT staff members such as training, benefits, and salaries, compared to these aspects for FT staff members. Simultaneously, PT staff members do not feel much obligation to contribute or reciprocate much to the organization and feel less reason to engage in discretionary behaviors beyond their duties and responsibilities to help their organizations.

This current study found that EI played an important role in identified outcome variables. This finding has an important implication for practitioners in the private club industry. Hiring staff members who possesses relatively high levels of EI may be important to consider. Staff members’ emotional competency and abilities are required to be measured and evaluated objectively and accurately during interview. The topic of EI also should be treated as a new level of service training for current staff members. For example, the private club industry may implement EI training programs for all their staff members, regardless of their work status, to improve those members’ work experience and performance. Spencer (2001)’s meta analysis showed that emotionally intelligent competency based staffing, training, and performance management intervention add important economic value to the organization. Findings from the interaction effects demonstrated that EI training may be critical for FT staff members to increase their interpersonal facilitation.

Future research should collect more data from the private club industry to have a representative sample and, in particular, to test interaction effects of work status and emotional intelligence, especially on continuance commitment. All scales were measured by staff members’ self-evaluation and perception. Future study may require supervisors to evaluate staff members’ contextual performance to reduce the problem of common-method variance.

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