EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, JOB DEMANDS - RESOURCES, OCCUPATIONAL SELF-EFFICACY AND WORK COMMITMENT OF MILLENNIALS IN KENYA'S TELECOMMUNICATION SECTOR

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DECLARATION PAGE

I declare that this thesis is my original work and has not previously in its entirety or in part been presented for a degree or other academic work.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my mother Mrs. Rahab Wangui Ndung'u who champions education in the family and community against all odds.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ANOVA - Analysis of Variance

CA - Communications Authority

EI - Emotional Intelligence

IGOs - International Gateway operators

JD-R - Job Demands-Resources

KNBS - Kenya National Bureau of Statistics

NACOSTI - National Council of Science, Technology & Innovation

OCB - Organization Citizenship Behaviour

OSE - Occupational Self-efficacy

OSS - Occupational Self-efficacy Scale

PWC - Price Water-house Coopers

SACCOs - Savings and Credit Cooperative Societies

SSEIT - Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Emotional intelligence: This term refers to the competence to identify, comprehend, and manage one's own emotions, as well as the emotions of others.

Generation X: Generation of people born between 1965 -1980 who have solidified their place in the 21st century organizations.

Generation Z: Generation of people born between 2001-2012 who are joining the workplace.

International gateway operators: Are organizations licensed by the Communications Authority of Kenya to provide international gateway services: voice, internet, wholesale bandwidth, interconnection, colocation, and other value-added services.

Job demands: This term refers to the "physical, psychological, social, and organizational aspects of work that require sustained effort."

Job resources: This term refers to the aspects of the job that help employees achieve their work aims while minimizing the job demands, and stimulating individual's growth, learning, and development.

Managing emotion: This term refers to the ability to regulate emotions in oneself and others, ensuring that emotional responses are appropriate and productive.

Millennials: This term refers to individuals born between 1981 and 2001. In this study, only participants within this age range will be included.

Occupational self-efficacy: This term refers to an individual's belief in their ability to perform specific job-related tasks.

Perceiving emotion: This term refers to the ability to accurately recognize and identify emotions in oneself and others, as well as in the environment, including facial expressions, body language, tone of voice, and other non-verbal cues.

Understanding emotion: This term refers to the ability to comprehend emotional language, signals, and how emotions evolve.

Work commitment: This term refers to an employee's attachment and dedication to their work and organization. Work commitment was measured using the Work Commitment Questionnaire in the study.

ABSTRACT

The personal characteristics of employees and the conditions within organizations play a crucial role in fostering favorable work outcomes such as commitment. However, research indicates that many organizations fail to fully grasp and utilize these factors such as emotional intelligence (EI), occupational self-efficacy (OSE), and job demands-resources (JD-R) to their advantage. In addition, there is limited research on their combined effect on millennial workers within Kenya's telecommunication sector. The main aim of the study was to evaluate the impact of EI, JD-R, and OSE on work commitment (WC) among millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector. The specific objectives of the study were to examine: the relationship between EI and WC; to determine the moderating effect of JD-R on the relationship between EI and WC; the mediation effect of OSE on the relationship between EI and WC; and the moderation-mediation effect of JD-R and OSE on the relationship between EI and WC of millennial employees in the Kenyan telecommunication sector. The study adopted a positivist research philosophy and cross-sectional research design. A sample of 157 employees, aged between 23 and 43 years, was selected from the IGOs using random sampling techniques. Participants were asked to complete an online survey that measured their EI, JD-R, OSE, and WC. A response rate of 85.4% was achieved (134 respondents). The collected data was analyzed through descriptive and correlational analysis using IBM SPSS version 24 and Macro Process. The study's findings showed that EI, JD-R, and OSE explained 2.6%, 24.5%, and 16.2% of work commitment respectively. In addition, JD-R increased the between EI and WC by 21.7%. The findings imply that EI is significantly associated WC of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector. In addition, JD-R moderated the relationship between EI and WC. Also, OSE mediated partially the relationship between EI and WC. Lastly, JD-R and OSE had a moderated-mediated effect on the relationship between EI and WC of millennial workers in Kenya's telecommunication sector. The findings may contribute to theory, inform policy, and provide insights into how organizations can enhance employee commitment by promoting EI while enhancing JDR, and OSE.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This section of the thesis serves as an introductory segment to the research. The chapter contextualizes and discusses the backdrop of the research study with global, regional and local perspectives and insights. It elaborates on the concepts of emotional intelligence, job demands and resources, occupational self-efficacy, and work commitment of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector. Within this chapter, an outline of the study's background is presented. It also covers the problem statement, research objectives, justification, and the study's scope, delimitations, and limitations.

1.1 Background of the Study

Work commitment, especially among millennials, has become a significant area of concern for organizations across the globe. Moreover, millennials, born between 1981 and 2000, make up a substantial portion of the global workforce, and their unique expectations and attitudes toward work present both challenges and opportunities for employers, particularly in fast-paced industries like telecommunications (Njoroge, Ndirangu & Kiambi, 2021). Understanding how millennials demonstrate commitment to their work in this sector is critical for organizational success, as this generational cohort is key to driving innovation, technological advancement, and service delivery. At the global level, the telecommunication sector is at the forefront of technological change, serving as a backbone for industries such as e-commerce, banking, and media. With the growing importance of mobile networks, 5G technology, and the internet of things (IoT), the need for a committed workforce, particularly millennials, has become increasingly important (Maneejuk & Yamaka, 2020; Bakar, Zuhra , Isyaku, Sulaiman, 2023).

However, millennial work commitment in the global telecommunication sector has been a subject of concern. Research indicates that millennials tend to exhibit lower organizational loyalty compared to previous generations. For instance, a Deloitte Global Millennial Survey (2020) found that millennials are more likely to switch jobs frequently, citing reasons such as a lack of career growth, work-life integration, and meaningful work

(Deloitte Global, 2020). This trend is evident in countries like the United States, where turnover rates in the telecommunication sector are relatively high, with companies like Verizon and AT&T facing challenges in retaining millennial talent (Aldridge, Powell & Harvatt, 2019). To address this, companies are focusing on creating more flexible work environments, offering career development programs, and emphasizing corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives to align with millennials' values. In Europe, the situation is similar where companies like Vodafone have introduced policies aimed at enhancing work commitment among millennials by offering flexible work arrangements, mentorship programs, and opportunities for personal and professional growth (Mózo, 2017). Despite these efforts, a PwC study found that millennials in the telecommunications industry still exhibit lower levels of long-term commitment compared to older generations, largely due to a preference for diverse career experiences and rapid advancement (PWC, 2024).

In Africa, the telecommunication sector has seen rapid growth, driven by increasing mobile phone penetration, internet access, and digital financial services. However, millennial work commitment remains a critical issue, as companies in this sector face high employee turnover rates, particularly among younger workers (Abeka, Qamar, Alalaween, Bentaher, Al-Halaybeh, Al-Jundi & Tanash, 2022). In South Africa, for example, telecommunication giants like MTN and Vodacom have struggled to retain millennial employees. Many millennials seek flexible working conditions, opportunities for skills development, and alignment with organizational values. According to a report by Deloitte Africa, South African millennials prioritize personal development and purpose-driven work over traditional career paths. This has prompted companies to adopt strategies such as leadership development programs and offering greater work-life balance through remote work options to foster higher levels of commitment (Louw & Steyn, 2021). Similarly, in Nigeria, the largest telecommunications market in Africa, companies like Airtel and Glo face challenges in keeping millennial employees engaged and committed. A study revealed that many young employees in the telecommunications sector tend to leave within a few years due to a lack of job satisfaction and perceived limited growth opportunities (Oluwaseun & Momo, 2023). As a response, these companies have begun investing in talent development

programs, mentorship, and providing clearer career advancement pathways to increase commitment among their millennial workforce.

Kenya's telecommunication sector, led by companies such as Safaricom, Airtel Kenya, and Telkom Kenya, is one of the most dynamic and rapidly growing industries (CA, 2021). As millennials make up a significant portion of the workforce in this sector, their work commitment is crucial to the sustained success of these companies. However, like in many other countries, the Kenyan telecommunication sector faces challenges in retaining millennial employees. Research on work commitment among millennials in Kenya suggests that this demographic places a strong emphasis on factors such as meaningful work, opportunities for career growth, and a balance between work and personal life (Nyongesa & Florah, 2019). Many millennials in the telecommunication sector are likely to move from one company to another in search of better career advancement opportunities and improved working conditions. For instance, despite Safaricom's reputation as one of Kenya's best employers, millennial turnover remains a concern. To address this, Safaricom has invested heavily in creating an innovative work environment that appeals to millennial employees, offering programs such as flexible work hours, leadership development initiatives, and opportunities to engage in community-driven projects (Musambai & Mukanzi, 2018). Additionally, the Kenyan millennial workforce tends to value companies that prioritize corporate social responsibility (CSR) and environmental sustainability, as these align with their values (Chatzopoulou & De Kiewiet, 2021). Companies that integrate these aspects into their operations, such as Safaricom's M-PESA Foundation, have seen improved levels of commitment and engagement from millennial employees. Despite these efforts, job satisfaction remains a key factor influencing work commitment in Kenya's telecommunications industry. A report by the Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis (KIPPRA) noted that many millennials in the sector experience burnout due to high job demands and long working hours, which negatively affects their work commitment (Wairimu & Owini, 2018) To mitigate this, telecommunication companies are increasingly adopting employee wellness programs and mental health initiatives to address the well-being of their millennial workforce.

It is against this backdrop of the global, regional, and local trends that this study sought to assess the factors affecting employee commitment in Kenya's telecommunication sector. The study narrowed down on the impact of emotional intelligence, job demands and resources, and occupational self-efficacy among millennial workers who form the majority in the sector. The research aimed at the enhancement of organizational effectiveness and employee well-being in the sector. The results may provide actionable perceived understanding for organizations, policymakers, and industry experts to foster a positive work environment and enhance the work commitment of millennial workers in Kenya's telecommunication sector.

1.1.1 Emotional Intelligence

An emotion is a psychobiological and cultural adaptation mechanism that allows an individual to respond flexibly and dynamically to environmental eventualities. Emotion is the state of feeling that entails thoughts, physiological changes, and an outward expression or behaviour. Researchers and specialists in the fields of Theology, Psychology, Philosophy, and Science have developed and are still developing theories to fully define the construct of emotions. Theologians study and seek to describe emotions in the light of realizing the superior being. Psychologists and sociologists describe emotions against their significance to the individual and society respectively. On the other hand, natural scientists like physiologists seek interest in the origin, evolution, and functions of emotions (Alsughayir, 2021).

Traditionally, it was accepted that individuals with high reasoning and analytical skills based on their intelligence quotient (IQ) scores, were more intelligent than others. Emotions were regarded as disruptive in the sense that they interfered with the thought process. Cognitive theorists later challenged this view and posited that emotions assist cognition including decision-making process (Goleman, 1998). Emotional intelligence is a multi-dimensional construct that has been developed and defined by multiple theorists over time. The origins of emotional intelligence can be found in the work of Thorndike (1920) who postulated the concept of social intelligence and highlighted its importance on performance as one of the intelligences in human beings (Setiawan, 2020).

Moreover, other theorists involved in the development of the construct include Gardner (1983) who developed the concept of multiple intelligences which include intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences. Salovey and Mayer (1990) were among the first to introduce the concept of emotional intelligence and defined it as a construct. Bar-on (2000), later developed the model of emotional and social intelligence which made great contributions to the construct of emotional intelligence. In 1995, Goleman published the book "Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ," which popularized the concept and brought it to the mainstream (Williams, 2021). Different measures of emotional intelligence are usually adopted for different studies. However, Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence model was utilized in the study. The model describes the construct as comprising four dimensions: perceiving emotion, understanding emotion, facilitating emotion, and managing emotion (Bru-Luna, Marti-Vilar, Merino-Soto, Cervera-Santiago, 2021). Perceiving emotion is the ability to accurately recognize and identify emotions in oneself and others. It involves being attuned to emotional cues such as facial expressions, vocal intonations, and body language. This skill enhances workplace interactions and fosters a positive work environment, which increases employees' emotional connection to their roles. Consequently, employees who excel in perceiving emotion are more likely to show higher work commitment because they feel emotionally aligned with their team and organization.

Understanding emotion involves the capacity to comprehend the causes, meanings, and implications of emotions. It encompasses knowledge and awareness of the wide range of emotions, their triggers, and the complex relationships between emotions and behaviors. By understanding the emotions of others, employees can respond appropriately, reducing conflict and promoting a collaborative work atmosphere, which directly enhances their sense of belonging and commitment to the organization. Facilitating emotion is defined as the competence in generating and harnessing emotions to facilitate cognitive processes and enhance decision-making. This component involves using emotions as a source of motivation, creativity, and problem-solving. When employees use positive emotions to fuel their work performance, they are more likely to be engaged and committed. This adaptability fosters a proactive approach to overcoming challenges, which enhances their dedication to both their tasks and the organization’s success.

Managing emotion encompasses the competence in regulating and controlling emotions on self and regulating those of others effectively This component includes strategies for managing and modifying emotions in oneself, as well as techniques for expressing and influencing emotions in social interactions. Moreover, managing emotion can also be described as the competence in regulating and controlling emotions on self and regulating those of others effectively This component includes strategies for managing and modifying emotions in oneself, as well as techniques for expressing and influencing emotions in social interactions. Employees who can manage their emotions are better equipped to handle workplace pressure, maintain focus, and avoid emotional burnout. In turn, this resilience contributes to sustained work commitment. Moreover, by managing the emotions of others, employees can help create a supportive and cohesive work environment, where commitment to organizational goals is reinforced through mutual trust and collaboration (Aniemeka, Akinnawo & Bede, 2020). Emotional intelligence has been positively linked with positive work outcomes and forms the independent variable (Rasooli, Moradi-Joo, Hamedpour, Davarpanah, Jafarinahlashkanani, Hamedpour, Mohammadi-Khah, 2019; Alismail, Cavaliere, Srinivasan, Chauhan, Muda, Gangodkar, 2022; Ahad, Mustafa, Mohamad, Abdullah, Nordin, 2021).

1.1.2 Job Demands-Resources

Job demands-resources (JD-R) theoretical model aims at explaining the complex relationship between the demands and resources present in the work environment and their impact on employee well-being and performance. It suggests that job demands and job resources have distinct effects on employee outcomes (Rai & Chawla, 2022). Job demands refer to the "physical, psychological, social, and organizational aspects of work that require sustained effort" (Patience Patience, De Braine & Dhanpat, 2020). These job demands can potentially hurt employee well-being. Job demands can be both quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative job demands refer to the amount of work that employees are expected to complete within a certain period, the number of hours worked, and the level of work pace required. Qualitative job demands refer to the psychological, social, and organizational aspects of work that require sustained effort and can potentially harm employee well-being, such as emotional demands, role ambiguity, and interpersonal

conflict. The components of job demands include workload, time pressure, emotional demands, role ambiguity, role conflict, job insecurity, and interpersonal conflict (Haar, Sune, Russo & Ollier-Malaterre, 2019).

Workload refers to the amount of work that employees are expected to complete within a certain period. This can be measured using objective measures such as the number of tasks completed or subjective measures such as self-reports by employees. Time pressure refers to the amount of time that employees have to complete the tasks and can be measured by deadlines. Emotional demands are the extent to which employees are required to regulate their emotions as part of their job with some jobs having high emotional demands known as emotional labor for instance employees in call centers and the medical fields. These can be measured using self-report surveys on the frequency and intensity of emotional labour required in their job. Role ambiguity refers to the extent to which employees have clear job expectations and understand what is expected of them and can be measured using self-reports. Role conflict refers to the degree to which employees have conflicting demands from different aspects of their job. Role conflict can be measured using employee self-report surveys on the frequency and intensity of conflicting demands in their job. Job insecurity is the uncertainty employees feel about their job status or the future of their jobs. Interpersonal conflict is the degree to which employees experience dissension with coworkers, supervisors, or customers as part of their job. It can be measured using self-report surveys that ask employees about the frequency and intensity of interpersonal conflict in their jobs (Bakker & de Vries, 2021).

Job resources are aspects of a job that contribute positively to an individual's well-being, motivation, and performance. These elements are essential for employees to achieve their work goals, reduce job demands, maintain high levels of engagement, and stimulate personal growth, learning, and development. The components of job resources include social support, autonomy, feedback, skill variety, task significance, job control, and opportunities for learning and development. Social support refers to the assistance provided by supervisors, peers, and the broader organizational network that enables an individual to cope with the demands of a job. It can be measured through self-report surveys to evaluate perceptions of interpersonal relationships at work and the availability of psychosocial

support within the workplace. Autonomy refers to the degree of independence and decision-making authority that individuals are granted in performing their tasks within the workplace. Autonomy can be measured by assessing the extent to which individuals have control over their work schedules and freedom to make decisions related to their job responsibilities. Feedback and recognition entail providing employees with constructive feedback on their performance and acknowledging their contributions and achievements. This can be measured using performance appraisals, and peer evaluations and can be rewarded through recognition programs. Skills variety refers to the range and diversity of tasks involved in a job. this can be measured using job analysis to identify different skills required for a particular role. In addition, interviews can be administered to gauge employees' perceptions of the variety and complexity of tasks they perform. Task significance refers to the perceived impact of one's work. Surveys can be employed to evaluate employees' perceptions of the meaningfulness of their work tasks in society. Job control involves the extent to which employees have discretion over their work. Self-report surveys can be used to assess the degree of control employees have over decision-making, task allocation, and resource utilization within their roles. Opportunities for learning and development are meant to enhance employees' skills, knowledge, and competencies. These can be measured by tracking individual employees' participation rates in training programs, and assessing skills acquisition and proficiency levels (Haar, Sune, Russo & Ollier-Malaterre, 2019). Understanding job demands and resources is critical in mitigating the effects of job demands while enhancing the positive effects of job resources thereby enhancing work commitment of the employees.

Job demands-resources construct was the moderating variable in the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector. Job demands-resources was conceptualized as a moderating variable because the interaction between job demands and available resources can either increase or decrease the effect of emotional intelligence on work commitment. In Kenya's telecommunication sector, where employees face high pressures, the balance between demands and resources significantly influences their commitment. Conceptualizing JD-R as a moderator captures how resources like support or autonomy can strengthen the positive impact of EI on commitment or buffer the negative effects of high demands.

1.1.3 Occupational Self-efficacy

The current study employed occupational self-efficacy (OSE) as the mediating variable to the relationship between millennials' EI and their work commitment in the Kenyan telecommunication sector. Occupational self-efficacy is described as an individual's belief to produce the expected work performance levels (not actual competencies). These beliefs determine how individuals think, feel, act, self-regulate and motivate themselves at work and produce diverse effects through major processes - cognitive, motivational and affective processes (Gerbino, 2020). The cognitive processes deal with the acquisition, organization and use of information whereas affective processes regulate emotional states and elicit emotional reactions. On the other hand, motivational processes involve activation to action. Occupational self-efficacy is associated with work outcomes namely organizational commitment, adaptation, and job satisfaction (Çetin & Aşkun, 2018). This is because individuals with a strong sense of efficacy approach difficult tasks as challenges to be conquered as opposed to threats to be avoided. Conversely, individuals with low efficacy have low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals while avoiding difficult tasks. The occupational self-efficacy construct consists of six underlying dimensions: confidence, command, adaptability, personal effectiveness, positive attitude, and individuality. These components are critical in promoting positive work outcomes including work commitment among employees and competitive advantage in organizations. Confidence involves believing in one's capacity to successfully execute specific tasks, solve problems, and achieve goals associated with a job role. Command encompasses a sense of mastery and competence in one's field of engagement including the knowledge, skills, and expertise required to perform job tasks effectively. Adaptability is the ability to adjust and thrive in dynamic and changing work environments. It includes flexibility, open-mindedness, and receptiveness to novel ideas, technologies, and paradigms. Personal effectiveness refers to the competence to set and achieve goals, manage time effectively, and prioritize tasks effectively. Individuals with high levels of personal effectiveness can maintain productivity, meet deadlines, and deliver high-quality work. Having a positive mind involves having a constructive outlook, and focusing on opportunities rather than

challenges and setbacks. Individuals with a positive attitude approach life and work with enthusiasm, creativity, and willingness to learn and grow. Lastly, individuality encompasses the unique strengths, interests, values, and personality traits that distinguish an individual in their occupational context. Embracing individuality enables individuals to bring their authentic selves to work, fostering creativity, innovation, and collaboration (E. Liu & Huang, 2019). Thus, occupational self-efficacy significantly enhances work commitment among employees by fostering confidence in their ability to perform tasks, adapt to change, and stay motivated. Employees with high self-efficacy are more resilient to the sector's dynamic challenges, view them as growth opportunities, and are more engaged in their roles. As a result, they become more emotionally invested in their work, showing higher levels of commitment to their organization and career progression (Guarnaccia, Scrima, Civilleri & Salerno, 2018).

In the study, occupational self-efficacy was the mediating variable in the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial workers in Kenya's telecommunication sector. Occupational self-efficacy was conceptualized as a mediating variable because it explains how emotional intelligence (EI) influences work commitment. Employees with high EI are more likely to develop a strong belief in their ability to perform tasks (self-efficacy), which in turn boosts their commitment to work. In Kenya's telecommunication sector, where rapid changes and high job demands are common, occupational self-efficacy helps employees feel more competent of meeting these challenges.

1.1.4 Work Commitment

The construct of commitment is central in Psychology and is defined as the ability and inclination to persist in a course of action (Irfan, Ali, Memon & Younis, 2021). Commitment to one's work has been conceptualized as an assemblage of the various commitment elements. These elements include loyalty towards different work-related entities namely, adherence to a work ethic, commitment towards one's career or profession, job involvement, affective organizational commitment, and continuance of organizational commitment (Morrow, 1993). Other divergent foci of work commitment that emerged in research include union commitment and commitment to various entities within

organizations for instance top management, immediate supervisor, or a particular work group. However, the aforementioned five constructs are the most commonly considered in the study of commitment due to their generality and constitute Morrow's model of work commitment (Irfan, 2018). This view provided the foundation for the study.

The first construct of Morrow's model of work commitment - work ethic- was first postulated by Weber (1904), originally known as the protestant work ethic. The values associated with work ethic include; autonomy, fairness, efficient utilization of time, and intrinsic value of work (Christopher & Jones, 2004). The second construct of work commitment known as career/professional commitment refers to an individual's level of commitment to a specific career or profession rather than an organization. It could also be perceived as the individual's attitude towards one's profession or career. The third construct of work commitment is job involvement defined as the level at which an employee is engaged in his daily work. Job involvement is derived from the extent to which the job affects an individual's performance and self-esteem. The antecedents of job involvement are personal needs, work ethic, work environment, and job characteristics (Jyoti, Sharma, Kour & Kour, 2021).

Organizational commitment is the fourth construct of work commitment considered in the study. This is the psychological attachment an individual has to the entire organization. This attachment can be considered as a function of affective, continuance, or normative involvement. Affective commitment can be described as an individual's loyalty to an organization because he identifies with and believes in it. Continuance commitment refers to an individual's decision to stay in an establishment based on the investments one has accumulated by membership in the organization. Normative commitment, on the other hand, refers to an employee's loyalty due to a perceived obligation to remain with the organization (Ullah, Singh, Shah & Kakakhel, 2022). The study considered the affective and continuance organizational commitment since Morrow's model of work commitment excludes normative organizational commitment.

The unit of analysis in the current research were millennial employees working in Kenya's telecommunication sector. Moreover, the study was on the work commitment of

millennials that display different work characteristics from other generations. Millennials, also known as Generation Y, are individuals born between 1981 and 2000. There are some differences in their work attitudes compared to previous generations, such as the Baby Boomers born between 1946 -1964, Generation X born between 1965-1980 and Generation Z born between 2001 and 2012 (Rudolph, Rauvola, Costanza & Zache, 2021).

Though there are unfounded biases of generational differences at work, it is prudent to understand the prevalent characteristics of the different cohorts at work. Baby boomers are said to have a strong work ethic characterized by their dedication to work and willingness to put in long hours. They tend to be loyal to their employers and have respect for hierarchy while preferring face-to-face communication over digital communication methods. Generation Xers value autonomy and flexibility at work to accommodate personal goals. They tend to think independently and prefer opportunities for innovation and autonomy in their roles. They tend to question traditional hierarchies and prefer a more collaborative work environment. Millennials are digital natives and are adept at using digital tools and social media platforms in their personal and professional lives. They have a strong desire for meaning and purpose and appreciate regular feedback, mentorship, coaching, and recognition for their contributions. Being global citizens, they tend to value diversity and inclusivity in the workplace and prefer working for organizations that demonstrate these values. Generation Z are also digital natives who have embraced an entrepreneurial spirit that has birthed the gig economy and freelancing. Just like their predecessors, the millennials, they prefer diverse and inclusive workplaces (Aziz, Rahman, Yusof & Yunus, 2018).

The millennial generation is often depicted in a negative light by older generational cohorts. However, they are the most adaptable and creative generation having witnessed the advent of technology like the internet, mobile telephones, virtual reality, artificial intelligence, and machine learning among others. This is the first generation to experience globalization during their adolescence and early adulthood. With that growth, millennials have developed the ability to quickly adapt and change according to new technology. Smartphones, virtual reality, interactive software, and even artificial intelligence may continue to see millennials adding to their skills and knowledge development. In addition,

millennials seem to be more task-oriented rather than time-oriented. They prefer assessment in terms of deliverables as well as placing a higher priority on the quality of a product or service. This makes them disregard the traditional "9 am to 5 pm" work schedules in favour of flexible schedules such as remote work and telecommuting (Deloitte, 2022). Moreover, this generation exhibits deep curiosity about the work and displays the desire to develop their skills through self-paced online learning platforms to gain micro-credentials. Millennials appreciate regular feedback and recognition and value teamwork and collaboration (Rudolph, 2021). Millennials appreciate work-life integration and flexibility in a job that allows them to pursue their hobbies outside their work schedules. They value collaborative work over competition and prefer open and transparent communication in addition to feedback and guidance from their superiors and peers. The digital natives are comfortable using technology to work more efficiently while staying connected. The millennials also seek jobs that offer opportunities for growth and development (Boone, 2019).

1.1.5 Overview of the telecommunication sector in Kenya

The telecommunication sector is one of the fastest-growing and most profitable sectors globally driven by increasing demand for communication services, advancements in technology, and globalization. Developing nations have not been left behind and the Kenyan telecommunication sector has continued in the growth explosion since 2012 attributed to the growing demand for communication services, advancement in technology, improved internet connectivity coupled with increasing subscribers for both mobile phones and money transfer infrastructure (Gatobu & Maende, 2019; KNBS, 2020). The growth translates to an increase in employment levels in the sector; the majority of those engaged in the industry being the technology-savvy youth. The study was conducted in the international gateway operators (IGOs), a category of organizations in the telecommunication sector licensed by the Communications Authority to provide connectivity between Kenya's telecommunication networks and global networks.

In Kenya, the telecommunication sector comprises fifteen major categories licensed by Communications Authority of Kenya based on the services they provide. These include

international gateway operators, submarine cable Landing rights operators, satellite landing rights, network facilities providers tier 1, network facilities providers tier 2, network facilities provider tier 3, community network and service providers, application service providers, content service providers, electronic certification service providers, business process outsourcing, telecommunications contractors, telecommunications technical personnel, telecommunication equipment vendors, and DOT KE sub-domain registrar services providers (CA-Kenya, 2023).

A crucial part of this ecosystem is the role international gateway operators (IGOs) play. These operators provide essential services by facilitating the exchange of telecommunication traffic between Kenya and the rest of the world. IGOs ensure international connectivity by managing the infrastructure that enables international voice, data, and internet services (CA, 2023). There are eleven international gateway operators in Kenya namely: Airtel Networks Kenya Limited, Commcarrier Satellite Services Limited, Dimensions Data Solutions East Africa Limited, Geo-Net Communications Limited, Jamii Telecommunications Limited, Liquid Telecommunications Kenya Limited, Mobile Telephone Networks Business (K) Limited, Safaricom PLC, Seacom Kenya Limited, Telkom Kenya Limited and Wananchi Telecom Limited (CA, 2023). That the industry is technology-based makes it popular with the millennial generation cohort who are also described as digital natives.

International gateway operators serve as the backbone for the global connectivity that supports international business, trade, and communication. They play a vital role in connecting Kenya's telecommunication network to major global hubs, allowing for the efficient transmission of international calls, data exchange, and internet traffic. This infrastructure not only strengthens Kenya's digital economy but also positions the country as a strategic communication hub in East Africa. Moreover, IGOs contribute to enhancing service quality, reducing costs for international communication, and improving internet access by ensuring a competitive market. By expanding submarine cable systems, such as the East African Marine System and Seacom, IGOs provide the necessary infrastructure for high-speed internet, supporting Kenya's growing digital economy and the telecommunication sector's global reach (CA, 2021).

In addition, the efficient operations of IGOs directly influence job demands and resources within the sector. For example, as international connectivity improves, the demand for reliable and high-speed communication services increases, which in turn heightens job demands on millennial employees working in telecommunication firms. At the same time, the presence of IGOs creates job resources, such as access to advanced technologies and global partnerships, which can moderate the impact of these demands. In this context, job demands-resources theory is relevant to understanding how resources provided through international gateways help employees manage work pressures, contributing to their overall work commitment**.** Furthermore, the occupational self-efficacy of millennial employees can be influenced by the global nature of telecommunication services, as they require technical expertise, adaptability, and confidence in managing complex tasks. The infrastructure provided by IGOs supports the operational efficiency of telecommunication firms, enabling employees to feel competent and motivated, thereby enhancing their commitment to work**.** The study's focus on how emotional intelligence and job demands-resources affect millennial work commitment is especially relevant in this context, as IGOs play a critical role in shaping the working environment in Kenya's telecommunication sector.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The telecommunications sector in Kenya is witnessing a significant presence of millennials in its workforce (Safaricom PLC, 2019). This generational cohort is characterized by a unique set of values, expectations, and work behaviors. When their expectations are not met, the millennial generational workers exhibit high turnover rates, decreased work commitment, and fluctuating job performance (Kaburu & Nzulwa, 2020; (Njoroge et al., 2021)). These challenges could threaten organizational stability and competitiveness in a sector where technological advancements demand a highly engaged, motivated, and committed workforce. One of the key factors influencing work commitment is emotional intelligence (EI), which involves the ability to perceive, understand, and manage emotions effectively (Ahad, Mustafa, Mohamad, Abdullah, & Nordin, 2021). High emotional intelligence is thought to foster stronger interpersonal relationships, resilience to job stress,

and increased motivation, all of which contribute to greater work commitment. However, empirical evidence regarding the direct relationship between EI and work commitment, particularly in the Kenyan telecommunication context, remains sparse.

Additionally, job demands-resources theory suggests that employees' work engagement and commitment are shaped by the balance between job demands (e.g., workload, pressure) and available resources (e.g., support, autonomy) (Bakker & de Vries, 2021). Excessive job demands without adequate resources can result in burnout, while sufficient resources can buffer the negative effects of high demands. Finally, occupational self-efficacy—the belief in one's ability to perform job tasks successfully—has been linked to greater work commitment. Individuals with high self-efficacy tend to exhibit higher levels of persistence and motivation (Çetin & Aşkun, 2018). Although Emotional Intelligence theory, Job Demands-Resources theory, and Social Cognitive Theory (which underpins occupational self-efficacy) are well-established, their combined influence on work commitment has not been extensively explored (Rai & Chawla, 2022). The current study sought to integrate these theories to assess their combined effect on work commitment, addressing the need to explore how emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and self-efficacy theories intersect in predicting commitment, particularly among the millennial workforce within the Kenyan context.

Moreover, reviewed studies reveal that the effect of emotional intelligence on work commitment has been studied on employees irrespective of their generational cohort. Selvi and Aiswarya (2023) researched to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and work engagement of automobile sector workers in Chennai, South India. The results showed a strong correlation between work engagement and emotional intelligence. This study was conducted in the automobile sector and had no moderators or mediators. Nasir, Bamber, and Mahmood (2023) conducted a perceptual study to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among higher education sector employees in Saudi Arabia. The research findings unearthed a correlation indicating a positive connection between faculties' four components of emotional intelligence. George, Okon, and Akaighe (2022) conducted a study on the role of emotional intelligence and work engagement of public officers in Nigeria. The findings

showed that emotional intelligence was positively related to work engagement (George, Okon and Akaighe., 2022). The study was conducted in the security field and the generational cohort of the participants was not considered.

Balogun and Afolabi (2019) conducted a study to examine the moderating roles of job demands and resources on the relationship between work engagement and family conflict among working mothers in the banking industry in Nigeria. The results showed that job demands and resources were found to significantly moderate the relationship between work engagement and work-family conflict (Balogun & Afolabi, 2019). Locally, Matheri, Karanja, and Namusonge conducted a study to examine the impact of emotional intelligence on employee commitment in savings and credit cooperative societies (SACCOs) in Kenya. The findings showed a positive correlation between EI and employee commitment which corroborates with the results in other studies. The study utilized two variables: emotional intelligence and employee commitment as the independent and dependent variables respectively. The operationalization of employee commitment was not clear in the study (Matheri, Karanja and Namusonge, 2020). There is an agreement among researchers that emotional intelligence impacts positively on the work commitment of employees. However, there is a dearth of research on the influence of emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and occupational self-efficacy on work commitment among millennial workers in Kenya's telecommunication sector. The current study investigated how the interplay of these factors affects millennial work commitment in the Kenyan telecommunication sector.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective

The general objective of the research was to examine the effect of emotional intelligence, job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy on the work commitment of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

i. To examine the effect of emotional intelligence on work commitment among millennial employees in the Kenyan telecommunication sector.
ii. To determine the moderating effect of job demands-resources on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in the Kenyan telecommunication sector.
iii. To determine the mediation effect of occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in the Kenyan telecommunication sector.
iv. To investigate the moderation-mediation effect of job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in the Kenyan telecommunication sector.

1.4 Significance of the Study

In today's dynamic and highly competitive business environment, organizations are increasingly recognizing the need to enhance employee commitment to improve retention, productivity, and overall organizational performance. The robust telecommunication industry has not been left behind on this front. The growth in the industry has led to significant dynamics including employing millennials who take the lion's share in the industry (KNBS, 2023). Moreover, the millennial workforce presents unique challenges, given their distinct characteristics and expectations from employers, such as a greater demand for work-life balance, meaningful work, and career development opportunities (Nguyen, 2022). While several studies have examined the impact of emotional intelligence on employee outcomes, there is limited research on the specific role that emotional intelligence plays in enhancing work commitment among millennials, particularly within the telecommunication sector in Kenya.

Moreover, research on the moderating role of job demands-resources and the mediating effect of occupational self-efficacy on this relationship is inadequate. By addressing these gaps, this study contributes new insights into how emotional intelligence and other related factors influence work commitment in a rapidly evolving sector that is critical to Kenya's economy. In addition, the millennials, who form a significant proportion of the workforce in Kenya, are known for their different expectations and attitudes toward work compared to previous generations. Understanding how emotional intelligence impacts their work commitment can provide organizations with actionable insights to better manage, engage, and retain this critical segment of the workforce. In the context of Kenya's telecommunication industry, where rapid technological changes and high job demands are prevalent, understanding the factors that influence millennial work commitment is essential for sustainable business growth.

Work commitment is directly linked to key organizational outcomes such as job performance, employee retention, and reduced absenteeism. By exploring how emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and occupational self-efficacy interact to influence work commitment, this study offers organizations practical insights that can inform the design of human resource policies, leadership development programs, and employee well-being initiatives. For organizations in the telecommunication sector, where high turnover rates and work-related stress are common, understanding the drivers of commitment is crucial for maintaining a competitive edge. Lastly, the study contributed to theory, policy, and practice. Theoretically, it extends existing models of emotional intelligence and work commitment by incorporating job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy as key moderating and mediating variables, respectively. Policymakers and regulatory bodies within Kenya's telecommunication sector can utilize the study's findings to inform the formulation of regulatory frameworks prioritizing employee welfare and organizational effectiveness. Practically, the findings will offer management in the telecommunication sector evidence-based strategies to enhance employee work commitment, improve performance, and reduce turnover, particularly among millennials. Therefore, the study was timely and relevant as it addressed important gaps in the literature, providing insights

into managing a key demographic in the workforce, and has practical implications for improving organizational performance in Kenya's telecommunication sector.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The scope of a study refers to the field in which it was conducted; where the population is, and from which the sample was drawn. The scope of the study can be categorized into geographical, objective, and time scope. This study evaluated the relationships between emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, occupation self-efficacy, and work commitment among millennial workers in Kenya's telecommunication sector. The study examined how emotional intelligence, job demands (stressors), job resources (supportive factors), and occupation self-efficacy influence the level of work commitment exhibited by millennial workers. In addition, the study explored the specific dimensions of emotional intelligence, job demands, job resources, and self-efficacy that are relevant to work commitment within the telecommunication sector.

The study focused specifically on millennial workers in Kenya's telecommunication sector. The geographical scope encompassed various regions in Kenya where the telecommunication industry is present, including urban centers and rural areas. The study aimed to capture the perspectives and experiences of millennial workers from diverse backgrounds within the telecommunication sector in Kenya. Moreover, the study was conducted over a period from May 2023 to February 2024. This time frame was chosen to enable the piloting of the study to validate the research instrument in addition to comprehensive data collection, analysis, and dissemination to the industry and academia.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

While this study provides valuable insights, it was not without limitations. Limitations in research refer to any structural problems encountered by the researcher relating to methodological aspects of the study that might affect its validity (Kumar, 2011). The first limitation points out the research being conducted in one industry that may limit the generalizability of the results for millennial employees in other industries and contexts. A multi-sectoral approach may be considered for future research where different

organizational settings and cultural contexts may be explored to enhance the external validity of the findings. In addition, the research utilized a cross-sectional research design which does not allow for an assessment of causality. There is a need for further research with longitudinal design that might confirm the causality of the hypothesized relationships. Lastly, the study focused on job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy as a moderator and mediator respectively between EI and millennial work commitment. Other moderators and mediators may exist that are beyond the span of the study.

1.7 Delimitations of the Study

Delimitations are factors that narrow down the research and specifies the boundaries of the study which help clarify which aspects would be included and those that would be excluded in the study (Stephens, 2021). The current study had five delimitations: the population of interest, geographical scope, industry scope, variables of interest, and methodological. First, the study delimited itself to millennials rather than all generations of employees to demystify the stereotypes of the generational cohort who are solidifying their place in organizations. Secondly, the study confined itself to the context of Kenya and did not consider data from other countries or regions. Thirdly, the study delimited itself in one industry- telecommunication sector which is one of the popular to-work sectors among the technology savvy millennials. Fourthly, the study explored four variables: emotional intelligence, job demands and resources, occupational self- efficacy, and work commitment of millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunication sector. Lastly, the study delimited itself to using quantitative techniques by self-reports to collect data form the participants.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This section of the thesis outlines an analysis of literature drawn from multiple studies, which aids in clarifying different types of variables: independent, dependent, mediating, and moderating. These variables encompass emotional intelligence, work commitment, occupational self-efficacy, and job demands-resources correspondingly. Additionally, it delves into a description of the theoretical underpinnings guiding the study and empirical reviews regarding the variables of the study and their relationships. Moreover, a summary of the literature, research gaps, study hypotheses, the conceptual framework, and operational definitions of the variables in the study are also discussed.

2.1 Theoretical Literature Review

Theories serve the purpose of explaining, predicting, and comprehending phenomena, often aiming to challenge and expand current knowledge within established critical assumptions. The theoretical framework acts as the foundation that upholds a theory within the research study. It introduces and elucidates the theory that provides an understanding of why the research problem being studied exists (Varpio, Paradis, Uijtdehaage, Young. 2020). In this theoretical review, the key concepts, models, and frameworks that have been developed to understand the problem being addressed were explored. The review provided the foundation of the study by situating it within the broader context of the field and highlighting the potential contributions it makes to the understanding of the topic. Emotional intelligence theory is the anchor theory since it underpins the other theories in the study: the job demand-resources model, occupational self-efficacy theory, and Morrow's work commitment model. Emotional intelligence refers to “the ability to recognize and manage emotions in oneself and others effectively”(Goleman & Boyatzis, 2017). The construct includes four characteristics: perceiving emotions, understanding emotions, utilizing/facilitating emotions and managing emotion. The job demand-resources model posits that job demands and resources have a significant impact on employees' well-being, motivation, and performance. Occupational self-efficacy theory

suggests that individuals' belief in their abilities to perform specific tasks influences their motivation, effort, and persistence. This construct is operationalized as confidence, command, adaptability, and a positive attitude. Morrow's work commitment model proposes that individuals' work commitment is influenced by five factors: work ethic endorsement, job involvement, career commitment, affective and continuance organizational commitment. Each theory is discussed in subsequent sections.

2.1.1 Emotional Intelligence Theory

The origins of emotional intelligence theory can be tracked from the work of Thorndike (1920) who posited that cognitive intelligence is insufficient in explaining human behaviour. Though Thorndike's work focused primarily on cognitive processes and learning, some aspects of his theory is relevant to the understanding of emotions. He suggested that human beings have different forms of intelligence including social intelligence which implies the ability to understand and interpret one's own and others' emotions for effective functioning of individuals and groups. Later, Gardner (1983) developed the theory of multiple intelligence published in his book *Multiple Intelligences.* In this theory, Gardner suggested that intelligence is not solely determined by cognitive abilities but also by other factors such as emotional and social skills. He thus introduced the concept of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence that formed the foundation for other models of EI (Ferrero, Vadillo & Leon, 2021).

The earliest measures of emotional intelligence was developed by Bar-on and comprised of the components such as emotional self-awareness, interpersonal relationships and stress management (Bar-on, 2014). Later, Salovey and Mayer introduced the concept of emotional intelligence which they defined as the ability to perceive, understand, manage, and use emotions effectively as a tool for guiding thinking and behavior (Salovey & Mayer, 2012). Goleman's work (1995) popularized the construct of emotional intelligence in his publications: "*Emotional Intelligence: Why it Matters More than IQ"* and "*Working with Emotional Intelligence"*. He described the construct as a collection of competencies that enable an individual to have emotional self- and social awareness to enhance interactions. His model was categorized into four dimensions: firstly, self-awareness entailing competence in recognizing one's emotions. Secondly, self-management entails the skill to

control one's emotions, the ability to adapt emotions to different situations, the ability to orient achievements and accomplishments, and the skill to maintain a positive outlook. Thirdly, social awareness, entailing empathy and organizational awareness, and relationship management comprising of extending influence, performing as a coach and mentor, managing conflicts, promoting teamwork, and manifesting inspirational leadership (Goleman, 1998; Goleman & Boyatzis, 2017)

Bradberry and Greaves (2009) advanced emotional intelligence theory in their book "*Emotional Intelligence 2.0"* whose theme was to provide practical strategies for improving emotional intelligence in various aspects of life including the workplace. The work provides specific guidance for applying emotional intelligence skills to leadership, teamwork, communication, and decision-making. In addition, the duo highlighted how emotional intelligence can lead to improved performance, productivity, and overall organizational success (Sarani, Mousavi, Salahi, Abdar, & Sheikhbardsiri 2020). Boyatzis contributed to the theory of emotional intelligence and linked it to leadership. He emphasized the impact of emotional intelligence on effective leadership. In addition, he developed coaching methods to help leaders enhance their emotional intelligence (Liu & Boyatzis, 2021). Later Mckee collaborated with Boyatzis and Goleman in their work published in the book "*Primal Leadership: Realizing the Power of Emotional Intelligence"*. The work explores the impact of emotional intelligence on leadership effectiveness and organizational performance (Cahya & Ningsih, 2020). The theory is still undergoing developments with the establishment of the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations (CREIO) whose mission is to advance research and practice of emotional and social intelligence in organizations through the generation and exchange of knowledge.

Different ways of conceptualizing emotional intelligence have emerged in the past three decades. The ways can be summarized in three models: ability, trait, and mixed. In the ability model, developed by Mayer and Salovey, emotional intelligence is perceived as an innate and distinct form of intelligence made up of different capacities that guide behaviour and influence how people understand and manage their emotions and those of others. These comprise three categories of abilities: first, there is appraisal and expression of emotions,

which is defined as the capacity to identify and acknowledge one's and those of others. Secondly, there is the emotional application, which involves utilizing the current emotional state to effectively carry out tasks or activities. Lastly, there is emotional management, which pertains to the skill of controlling and regulating one's own emotions. This model describes EI as a set of abilities at the intersection of emotion and cognition (Lopes, 2016; Baker, Shosha, Al-Oweidat & Nashwan., 2023). Later, Mayer and Salovey revised the description of EI to comprise perceiving emotion, integrating emotion, and managing emotion, a view that gave more priority to the cognitive components.

The trait model, on the other hand, as proposed by Petrides and Furnham, defines EI as a trait or persistent behavior pattern over time. The duo further associated emotional intelligence with dispositional tendencies, personality traits, or self-efficacy beliefs. It is composed of fifteen personality dimensions grouped under four factors: well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability, and is considered a good predictor of effective coping styles when facing everyday stresses such as educational and employment contexts. The last model mixed model- comprises of two large components that consider emotional intelligence as a mixture of traits, competencies, and abilities. The tools for measuring emotional intelligence mixed conceptualization often measure a combination of traits, social skills, competencies, and personality measures through self-reports. They are generally used in work environments since they are often designed to predict and improve workplace performance and are often focused on emotional competencies that correlate with professional success (Bru-Luna, Marti-Villar, Merino-Soto and Cervera-Santiago, 2021).

While Salovey and Mayer approached EI from the psychological perspective, Goleman created a link between EI and the workplace, especially with leadership. He conducted extensive research into the factors that contribute to a leader's success in a business environment and categorized those factors into intelligence quotient (IQ), job skills, and emotional quotient (EQ). He further conducted various studies to test the construct and established that emotional quotient accounts for between 67% and 85% of job performance and that EQ skills are necessary as an individual takes on more management responsibility (Williams, 2021).

Emotional intelligence theory has generated extensive debate on its definition, conceptualization, and measurements that have given rise to several approaches to understanding the construct. Two paradigms have however remained consistent in the different conceptions of emotional intelligence in research and practice: ability and trait emotional intelligence. Ability emotional intelligence is associated with the cognitive view of emotional intelligence and focuses on performance in assessing an individual's emotional intelligence whereas trait proposes that emotional intelligence is primarily dispositional and should be tested as personality using self-report instruments. The assessment of the construct among individuals is critical in personal development and organizational effectiveness and there are many measurement models in use currently by practitioners and researchers. The research aimed to assess the emotional intelligence of millennials using the mixed model to find correlations with work commitment.

There are many instruments used in the measurements of emotional intelligence. The instruments reported in the largest number of studies are Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), Schutte Self Report-Inventory (SSRI), Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test 2.0 (MSCEIT 2.0), Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS), Wong and Law's Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS), and Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue). The SSEIT was used to measure the emotional intelligence of the millennials in the Kenyan telecommunication sector. The SSEIT measures general emotional intelligence with four factors: perceiving emotion, understanding emotion, facilitating emotion, and managing emotion (Bru-Luna, Marti-Vilar, Merino-Soto, Cervera-Santiago, 2021). The current study utilized the SSEIT measure because it has been used extensively in research to measure emotional intelligence and reported good reliability and validity scores from a diverse sample of participants. Aniemeka, Akiwano, and Akpunne validated the Schutte SSEIT on Nigerian adolescents that showed a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.90, a Spearman-Brown Coefficient of 0.91, and a Guttman split-half coefficient of 0.91.

In addition, all the items in the scale reported acceptable goodness of fit measures revealing a corrected item correlation range of 0.83. Thus, the tool was found to have a high validity and hence useful for the study. In addition, Kaur and Kumar used SSEIT measure in the exploratory study of emotional intelligence in education industry among students from

seven management colleges in India (Francis et al., 2018; Hussein, Acquah & Musah., 2019; Aniemeka et al., 2020; Kaur & Kumar, 2022). While emotional intelligence theory has its strengths and has contributed to a greater understanding of emotions and their role in human behavior, it is not without limitations. Firstly, there is a lack of consensus on definition and measurement since different researchers and theorists have proposed many conceptualizations. This has resulted in confusion and inconsistency in measurement and application. Secondly, assessing emotional intelligence often relies on self-reports that can result in biases by social desirability and inaccurate self-assessment that is also complicated further by the debate about whether emotional intelligence should be assessed as a trait or ability. Lastly, there are disagreements on the importance of emotional intelligence among practitioners. The emotional intelligence theory is connected to work commitment by illustrating how employees' ability to perceive, manage, and use emotions positively influences their engagement and loyalty. This connection is crucial to understanding how emotional intelligence drives work commitment, especially in the dynamic context of Kenya's telecommunication sector.

2.1.2 Job Demands – Resources Theory

Job demands and resources theory (JD-R) explains the impact of job demands and resources on employee well-being and job performance. The model developed by Bakker & Demerouti (2006) proposes that every job includes demands as well as resources that interact to affect employees' engagement – a component of work commitment-, motivation, and performance (Gamage, 2021). Job demands refer "to physical, psychological, social or organizational aspects of a job that require sustained effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs" (Patience et al., 2020). These include workload, time pressure, emotional demands, physical demands, role ambiguity, work-family conflict, and job insecurity. These job demands can have a positive or negative effect on individual employee's motivation depending on how they interplay with personal goals (Smith & DeNunzio, 2020). Job resources, on the other hand, are the physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of a job that help employees to achieve their work goals and reduce job demands. The job resources include autonomy, social support, feedback, skill variety, task significance, job control, and career

opportunities. It is worth noting that high job demands coupled with low resources can lead to negative work outcomes such as health complaints, while high job resources can motivate and enhance employee engagement thereby fostering positive organizational outcomes such as performance and commitment (Lesener et al., 2019).

The job demands-resources model is commonly associated with the work commitment of workers. The theory suggests that job demands such as workload, emotional demands, and role ambiguity, can lead to work stress and burnout while job resources, such as autonomy, social support, and feedback can help buffer the negative effects of job demands, and promote work engagement and commitment (Bakker & de Vries, 2021). The framework has been supported by numerous research across various counties, sectors and occupations with good validity and reliability scores. A study to examine the relationship between contextual work-related factors in terms of job demands, job resources and work-family conflict in teachers in Italy utilized the job demands-resources model (De Carlo, Girardi, Falco, Dal Corso & Di Sipio, 2019).

The job demands-resources framework was employed in the study to measure job demands-resources that formed the moderating variable to the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial workers. While job demands-resources framework has been widely studied and validated, there are some criticisms of the model: it lacks specificity in terms of the job demands and resources prevalent for specific work contexts, overemphasis on individual factors at the expense of organizational factors such as job demands-resources and leadership that may impact job demands (Lesener, Gusy & Walter, 2019). The JD-R theory serves as a framework for conceptualizing job demands-resources as a moderating variable in the study. It explains how job resources such as support and autonomy can buffer the negative impact of job demands (e.g., workload, stress) and enhance the positive relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. This approach aligns with the JD-R model, highlighting the critical role of resources in shaping employees' work outcomes.

2.1.3 Occupational Self-efficacy Theory (OSE)

The construct of OSE has gained a lot of interest both in research and among practitioners due to its potency as an important resource for individual employees and as a tool for organizational growth and competitive advantage. Bandura (1977) defined self-efficacy as individuals' belief in their competence to produce certain outcomes through their attitudes, behaviour, and actions. Occupational self-efficacy is thus a derivative of self-efficacy as applied in the workplace in terms of what an individual feels concerning his ability to successfully fulfill the tasks involved in the job (Rigotti, Schyns, & Mohr, 2008).

Occupational self-efficacy is not a personality trait but confidence or belief in occupational capability. The concept of occupational self-efficacy was first proposed by Hackett & Betz (1981) to explain the gender differences in career selection among college students. The duo sought to explain the disparities in enrolments of female students among the traditionally male-dominated occupations because of female's low self-efficacy in these domains. They also posited that since occupational tasks and activities involve various aspects of a job, the concrete contents of occupational self-efficacy explored by researchers vary (Peng, Zhang, Zhou, Wan, Yuan, Gui, and Zhu, 2021) Occupational self-efficacy is operationalized using four characteristics that an individual should possess. These include confidence, command, adaptability, and a positive attitude. The individual should possess confidence that he/she can learn and use new skills at work while having the ability to handle new or unexpected situations at work. In addition, the individual can solve problems that arise at work, set priorities, and handle criticism from others at work.

Moreover, the individual should show command in how he clearly and effectively communicates ideas and opinions at work while influencing others and having effective negotiation skills. As far as adaptability is concerned, the individual should be able to adjust to changes at work and should have cultural intelligence to be able to work with people from diverse backgrounds while effectively managing emotions and stress levels at work. The individual is said to have a positive attitude if he can accomplish work goals and objectives and is optimistic about the prospects at work. He is also expected to succeed at work and is confident about overcoming obstacles and challenges at work.

Previous research on occupational self-efficacy involved two aspects. The first aspect is associated with an individual's belief in accomplishing the contents associated with an occupation such as the knowledge and skills requirements of a job. The second aspect relates to the occupational behaviour process – an individual's belief in accomplishing relevant occupational behaviour such as career decision making (Kim & Lee, 2018; Çetin & Aşkun, 2018).

There are different tools for evaluating occupational self-efficacy. The original occupational self-efficacy scale (OSS) was developed by Schyns and Collani (2002) and comprised of 20 items was utilized in the study since the measures are comprehensive and have good validity and reliability. Mahfud, Nugraheni, Pardjono, and Lastariwati utilized the occupational self-efficacy questionnaire (OSEQ) on the cooking ability of culinary students in Indonesia. The questionnaire had 16 items and showed good validity and reliability measures (Mahfud, Nugraheni, Pardjono, and Lastariwati, 2021). While occupational self-efficacy theory has been widely used in research, it has shortcomings that must be taken into consideration. These include a lack of objective measures due to reliance on self-reports which may not accurately assess the true impact of self-efficacy, limited focus on the individual's belief in their ability without taking into account other external factors, and ignoring the social aspect of job performance such as social support, interpersonal relationships (Gorson & O'Rourke, 2020). Occupational self-efficacy theory explains how self-efficacy mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. Employees with high self-efficacy are more confident in their ability to handle job demands, which enhances their commitment to work.

2.1.4 Morrow's Work Commitment Model

Morrow (1993) described work commitment as a complex and multifaceted construct that takes different forms. She suggested a generalization of five fundamental constructs of work commitment that constituted Morrow's work commitment model also called the universal forms of work commitment. The five constructs include protestant work ethic endorsement, job involvement, career commitment, job involvement, and affective and continuance organizational commitment.

Work ethic endorsement depicts the degree to which an individual identifies that personal worth results from occupational achievement. It encompasses values such as hard work, self-reliance, discipline, and diligence. The emphasis of work ethic endorsement is the importance of industry and dedication to work as a moral obligation. Protestant work ethic endorsement is primarily linked to personality and secondarily to culture and is positively related to gender while negatively related to education. It is however related to life satisfaction and unrelated to work experience or outcomes (Cohen, 1999).

Career commitment describes an individual's dedication and emotional attachment to one's career or profession rather than the organization. Career commitment implies an individual's dedication and attachment to their chosen occupational field and a long-term commitment to advancing to one's career goals by acquiring specialized skills and achieving success within a particular industry. Career commitment enables the employee to develop the needed skills, knowledge, attitudes, and relationships which are antecedents of career growth and development. Career commitment is determined by individual differences and characteristics and is positively related to job satisfaction. The construct is not related to work performance or life satisfaction (Zhu, Kim, Milne & Park, 2021).

Job involvement, also known as work engagement is defined as the positive, fulfilling, and energizing state of mind that allows an individual to be immersed fully in their work tasks. It is also the extent to which an employee psychologically identifies to one's job and to the work performed therein which is often accompanied by a sense of vigor, dedication, and absorption. It could be viewed as a function of the activities at work and the satisfaction an individual employee's present needs can be met by a job. Job involvement or engagement is determined by personality or individual differences and work situations and is positively associated with demographics like age, tenure, education, and gender. There is no strong relationship between performance or non-work domains and is positively associated with perceived performance or life satisfaction. (Kanungo, 1982; Cohen, 1999).

In addition, affective and continuance organization commitment comprises of the psychological attachment an employee has to the entire organization. Affective organization commitment can be described as the affirmative feelings of identification with

and attachment that an individual has derived from the involvement with the organization. It arises when an employee identifies with and feels a strong sense of belonging to their work accompanied by feelings of loyalty, pride, and enthusiasm towards the job or the organization. Affective organizational commitment could arise due to factors such as positive work experiences, supportive organizational culture, and alignment of personal goals with organizational goals. Continuance organization commitment is the attachment to the organization based on the investments one has accumulated by virtue of membership in an establishment and the perceived cost of exiting. The employee calculates the sacrifices and investments -financial, time, and effort- that would be forfeited if the individual left the organization including loss of connections and networks that would be lost (Allen & Mayer, 1990). While affective organizational commitment is perceived as emotional, continuance commitment is more rational and pragmatic.

Kalai, Kirmi and Lhassan (2021) used Morrow's work commitment model to investigate the effect of high school teachers' commitment on student academic achievement in Morocco (Kalai, Kirmi & Lhassan, 2021). While the framework has been widely accepted in research as a measure of work commitment, Morrow's work commitment model has been criticized. The model assumes that work commitment is always positive whereas employees can be committed to an organization due to negative reasons. Employees may stick to an organization for negative reasons such as a lack of alternative opportunities. In addition, it lacks integration with external factors such as the culture of an organization, predominant leadership style, job characteristics, and societal influences, which can significantly impact work commitment. Moreover, Morrow's work commitment model does not adequately account for individual differences in how employees perceive and experience work commitment in terms of personality traits, values, and career aspirations. Job involvement, also known as work engagement is defined as the positive, fulfilling, and energizing state of mind that allows an individual to be immersed fully in their work tasks. It is also the extent to which an employee psychologically identifies to one's job and to the work performed therein which is often accompanied by a sense of vigor, dedication, and absorption. It could be viewed as a function of the activities at work and the satisfaction an individual employee's present needs can be met by a job. Job involvement or engagement is determined by personality or individual differences and work situations and is positively

associated with demographics like age, tenure, education, and gender.These factors may influence an individual's work commitment but are overlooked in the model. Morrow's work commitment theory is used to frame the different types of commitment – affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment, job involvement, career commitment, and protestant work ethic examined in the study.

2.2 Empirical Review

This section reviews the literature on the key variables of the study- emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, occupational self-efficacy, and work commitment. Various studies were reviewed and analyzed, and research gaps that guided the current study were identified. The literature on the impact of EI on work commitment was reviewed. In addition, the moderation and mediation effects of job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy respectively on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment were considered. From the literature reviewed, a conceptual framework was developed showing the linkages between the various variables of the study.

2.2.1 Emotional Intelligence and Work Commitment

Shafiq and Rana (2016) conducted a study to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment of college teachers in Punjab colleges in Pakistan (Shafiq & Akram Rana, 2016). The descriptive survey utilized Schutter's emotions scale (EAS) and Allen and Mayer's organizational commitment scale to measure emotional intelligence and organizational commitment respectively. A sample size of N = 494 was selected for the study using the convenience sampling method. The findings revealed a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and affective organizational commitment and a weak relationship between emotional intelligence and continuance commitment. The quantitative study utilized a descriptive cross-sectional design like the current study and did not consider the generational cohort of the participants in the analysis. There were no moderators to the relationship in the study which was considered in the current study. Therefore the study did not examine the complex relationships as the current study where the interrelationships among emotional

intelligence, occupational self-efficacy, job demands-resources, and work commitment were extensively examined.

Miao, Humphrey and Qian (2017) conducted a meta-analytical analysis of existing research involving 119 empirical quantitative studies selected randomly on the relationship between EI and work attitudes of employees. The study revealed that the emotional intelligence of the workers was positively and significantly correlated to their organizational commitment. The meta-analysis also compared how the three types -ability, trait (self-report), and mixed- emotional intelligence correlated with the various job attributes (Miao, ChaoMiao, C., Humphrey, R. H., & Qian, 2017). The generational cohort was not considered in the study. Whereas moderators and mediators were used for job satisfaction in the meta-analysis, there was no moderator used for the relationship between EI and organizational commitment as is the case in the current study. The age of the employees was not considered either, which was a key consideration in the current study.

Navas and Vijayakumar (2018) conducted a review of the impact of emotional intelligence on organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job stress. The results showed that EI had a very good impact on organizational commitment which enhanced the employees' job satisfaction and hence good performance. In addition, the review corroborated with earlier studies that emotional intelligence has a significant positive correlation with the three components of organizational commitment which are pointed as effective, continuance and normative commitment (Sharfras, Navas & Vijayakumar, 2018).

Miao, Humphrey and Qian (2017) conducted a meta-analytical analysis of existing research involving 119 empirical quantitative studies selected randomly on the relationship between EI and work attitudes of employees. The study revealed that the emotional intelligence of the workers was positively and significantly correlated to their organizational commitment. The meta-analysis also compared how the three types -ability, trait (self-report), and mixed- emotional intelligence correlated with the various job attributes (Miao, ChaoMiao, C., Humphrey, R. H., & Qian, 2017). The generational cohort was not considered in the study. Whereas moderators and mediators were used for job satisfaction in the meta-analysis, there was no moderator used for the relationship between

EI and organizational commitment as is the case in the current study. The age of the employees was not considered either, which was a key consideration in the current study.

Baker, Jaaffar, Ibrahim, Hassan and Sallehuddin (2019) conducted a study to determine the effect of emotional intelligence on affective commitment among Royal Malaysia police officers. The study used four dimensions of the ability model of emotional intelligence – self-emotional appraisal, other's emotional appraisal, use of emotions, and regulation of emotions. A sample of 372 was obtained through non-probability sampling after a response rate of 40.2%. Wong and Law emotional intelligence scale (WLEIS) and Allen and Mayer's affective commitment scales were used to measure emotional intelligence and affective commitment of the police officers respectively. The results of the study showed that emotional intelligence has a strong positive relationship with affective commitment (Baker, Jaaffar, Ibrahim, Hassan & Sallehuddin, 2019). Since the study employed a non-probability sampling technique, elements of bias and non-representativeness of the sample might have posed a challenge and generalizability could not be guaranteed. The age of the respondents was not considered in the study. There was no moderator to the relationship between emotional intelligence and affective commitment. These factors were considered in the current study which was conducted in the telecommunication sector and utilized SSEIT and Morrow's work commitment model to measure the emotional intelligence and work commitment of the millennials respectively. In addition, the study was conducted in the context of security industry.

Setiawan (2020) conducted a study on the effect of emotional intelligence on the organizational commitment of health officers in Southwest Sulawesi and Central Sulawesi provinces in Indonesia. The study employed cluster techniques and stratified random sampling based on the hospital type and level of health officers to obtain heterogeneous information about the characteristics of the health workers and achieve generalizability of the results. The study showed that there is a significant direct influence between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment as measured using knowledge sharing, team conflict, and team performance (Setiawan, 2020). This study was conducted in the medical field and the generational cohort was not considered.

Njoku (2020) conducted a study on the link between emotional intelligence and perceived job stress as predictors of organizational commitment – a key component of work commitment- among fuel dispensers in Owerri, Nigeria. A sample of 200 participants was selected for the study using a simple random sampling technique. The results indicated that both emotional intelligence and perceived job stress are predictors of organizational commitment. Scutter's emotional intelligence test (SEIT) and organizational commitment scale (OCS) were used to assess the EI and organizational commitment of the participants respectively through self-reports. The age of the respondents was not considered and no moderators were included in the study that was conducted in a west African state (Njoku, 2020).

Matheri, Karanja and Namusonge conducted a study to examine the impact of EI on employee commitment in Savings and Credit Cooperative Societies (SACCOs) in Kenya. A sample of 238 respondents was taken using stratified sampling and simple random sampling techniques. Emotional intelligence was measured using Goleman's four-factor model of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management The findings showed that there exists a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and employee commitment that confirms the results in other studies (Matheri, Karanja & Namusonge, 2020).

Ahad, Mustafa, Mohamed, Abdullah & Nordin (2021) conducted a study on work attitudes, organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence of Malaysian vocational college teachers. A sample of 300 participants were involved in the investigation. The findings showed that positive work attitudes were positively correlated to emotional intelligence. In addition, the study revealed that relationship management is the most important element in creating optimal emotional intelligence out of the other three components: self-awareness, self-management, and social awareness (Ahad, Mustafa, Mohamed, Abdullah & Nordin, 2021).

Moreover, a study was conducted in Nigeria by George, Okon and Akaighe (2022) on the role of emotional intelligence and work engagement of public officers in Nigeria. The study drew on the cognitive-motivational-reactional theory of emotion and conservation of

resources theory in exploring the serial explanatory pathways between emotional intelligence and work engagement. Data collected was analyzed through PROCESS macro with a bias-corrected bootstrapping method. The findings showed that emotional intelligence was positively related to work engagement (George, Okon and Akaighe., 2022). The study was conducted in the security field and the generational cohort of the participants was not considered.

Baker, Shosha, Al-Oweidat & Nashwan (2023) researched the influence of EI on organizational commitment among nurses in government hospitals in Jordan. The study used a descriptive cross-sectional correlation design and a convenience sampling method with inclusion-exclusion criteria to select N = 200 nurses. The results showed that the respondents had high levels of emotional intelligence and moderate organizational commitment. Moreover, emotional intelligence was found to have a significant, moderately strong positive relationship with organizational commitment ($r = 0.53$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) (Baker, Shosha, Al-Oweidat & Nashwan, 2023). The study that utilized descriptive cross-sectional correlational design neither had no mediators nor moderators and was conducted with employees in the medical field.

Moreover, a study was conducted to examine the impact of emotional intelligence on the work engagement of automobile sector employees in Chennai, South India. The descriptive cross-sectional study used random sampling to select 184 employees to participate in the research. The emotional intelligence scale (EIS) and Utrecht work engagement scale were used to assess emotional intelligence and work commitment respectively. The results showed a strong correlation between work engagement and emotional intelligence (Selvi & Aiswarya, 2023). This study was conducted in the automobile sector and did not incorporate moderators or mediators.

Nasir, Bamber, and Mahmood (2023) conducted a perceptual study to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among higher education sector employees in Saudi Arabia. The study used an exploratory research design method. Quantitative data was gathered from faculty members (n = 277) working in different higher education institutes in Saudi Arabia that were selected anonymously. The research findings

revealed a positive relationship between the faculties' four components of emotional intelligence: self-emotion appraisal (SEA), others' emotions' appraisal (OEA), use of emotions (UOE), and regulation of emotions (ROE), and job performance (Nasir, Bamber and Mahmood, 2023). The study had no moderators or mediators thus complex interrelationships among variables were not considered.

2.2.2 Emotional Intelligence, Job Demands-Resources and Work Commitment

Patience, De Braine and Dhanpat (2020) conducted a study to investigate the impact of job demands and job resources on the work engagement of public and private sector nurses in Johannesburg, South Africa. A sample of 420 nurses was selected using purposeful sampling, majority of whom were females (88.8%) and from the private sector (61.8%). The study utilized the emotional labour scale, role conflict and ambiguity scale and exposure to workplace aggression to measure the job demands and job resources. In addition, a work design questionnaire, organized career growth scale, leadership member exchange, and Utrecht work engagement scale were used to measure work engagement. Regression analysis was used to determine which job demands and job resources could best predict the work engagement of nurses. The results showed that meaningful work contributed to the largest variance in work engagement among nurses in both the public and private sectors. In addition, career advancement was associated with work engagement for both public and private sector nurses. While emotional demands imparted negatively on the engagement levels of public sector nurses, the study found that the nurses' perceptions of meaningful work, leader-member exchange, and career advancement enhanced their work engagement. The current study was conducted in a different sector - the telecommunication sector – and a specific generational cohort -millennials- was considered (Patience, De Braine and Dhanpa, 2020).

Baker, Shosha, Al-Oweidat & Nashwan (2023) researched the influence of EI on organizational commitment among nurses in government hospitals in Jordan. The study used a descriptive cross-sectional correlation design and a convenience sampling method with inclusion-exclusion criteria to select N = 200 nurses. The results showed that the respondents had high levels of emotional intelligence and moderate organizational commitment. Moreover, emotional intelligence was found to have a significant,

moderately strong positive relationship with organizational commitment ($r = 0.53$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) (Baker, Shosha, Al-Oweidat & Nashwan, 2023). The study that utilized descriptive cross-sectional correlational design neither had no mediators nor moderators and was conducted with employees in the medical field. Herr, Vianen, Bosle and Fischer (2021) conducted a study to examine the patterns of associations of job demands and resources with work engagement and mental health. The sample was drawn from the Institute for Employment Establishment Panel using stratified sampling. The findings showed that job demands were negatively- and job resources were positively correlated with work engagement and mental health (Herr, Vianen, Bosle & Fischer, 2021).

Rai and Chawla (2022) conducted a study to explore the interrelationships among job resources, job demands, work, and organization engagement of junior management grade 1 officers in 27 public sector banks in India. The findings showed that job demands moderated the relationship between job resources and work engagement. Work engagement was found to mediate the relationship between job resources and organizational engagement (Rai & Chawla, 2022). Lambert, Qureshi, Holbrook, Frank and Hines (2022) conducted a study to examine the effect of workplace variables on organizational commitment using the job demands-resources model. A sample of 163 correction officers from a prison in Haryana state in India participated in the study. The findings showed that job demands have no significant effect on organizational commitment. Conversely, the components of job resources considered in the study were found to be positively and significantly associated with organizational commitment (Lambert, Qureshi, Holbrook, Frank & Hines, 2022). The quantitative study conducted in the East was based on the security sector unlike the current one in the telecommunication sector.

Mokhtar and Krishna (2023) conducted a meta-analysis of the studies conducted on the relationship between EI and job demands on employee performance which is a function of work commitment. The results showed that emotional intelligence is positively correlated to employee performance. In addition, job demands were found to explain the relationship between emotional intelligence and employee performance (Mokhtar & Krishnan, 2023).

The current study employed an empirical study for a certain generational cohort in a specific sector.

2.2.3 Emotional Intelligence, Occupational Self-efficacy and Work Commitment

Chesnut and Burley (2015) conducted a meta-analysis on self-efficacy as a predictor of commitment to the teaching profession. A total of thirty-three studies were considered in the final meta-analysis that covered 16,222 preservice and in-service teachers from North America, Europe, Asia, and Australia. The findings of the meta-analysis indicated that the preservice and in-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are positively correlated to their commitment to the teaching profession (Chesnut & Burley, 2015). The study which was conducted in the education field used meta-analysis whereas the current study was empirical.

Liu and Huang (2019) conducted a study to examine the impact of occupational self-efficacy on organizational commitment and its influence on work engagement. A total of three hundred and twenty- eight participants were drawn from Master of Business Administration students in China. Occupational self-efficacy was examined using Rigoti et. al's (2008) six item occupational self-efficacy scale whose Cronbach's alpha was 0.87. on the other hand, organizational commitment was measured using Allen and Meyer's 18-item scale comprising of subscales: affective, continuance and normative commitment. The results showed that organizational commitment was positively linked with occupational self-efficacy and work engagement (E. Liu & Huang, 2019).

Orgambídez, Borrego, and Vazquez-Aguado (2019) conducted a study on the mediation role of work engagement between self-efficacy and affective organizational commitment among nursing professionals in Spain. A convenience sample of three hundred and twenty-four participants (52.96% nurses, 47.04% nursing assistants) was selected for the study. The mediating role of work engagement was examined using the structural equation modeling and bootstrapping method. The findings showed that affective organizational commitment was positively predicted by self-efficacy and work engagement. The results give empirical support to the job demands-resources model which raises the moderating role between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment (Orgambídez,

Borrego & Vazquez-Aguado, 2019). The study was conducted in the medical field and the generational cohort of the participants was not put into consideration.

Na-Nan, Kanthong and Joungtrakul conducted a study to investigate the direct and indirect influence of self-efficacy on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) transmitted through employee engagement, organizational commitment and job satisfaction. A number of four hundred employees in the automobile industry were involved in the study. The results revealed that self-efficacy had a direct influence on organizational citizenship behavior with statistical significance. In addition, employee engagement and organizational commitment are mediators in the transmission of effective organizational citizen behavior (Na-Nan, Kanthong & Joungtrakul, 2021).

Orgambídez, Borrego, and Vazquez-Aguado (2019) conducted a study on the mediation role of work engagement between self-efficacy and affective organizational commitment among nursing professionals in Spain. A convenience sample of three hundred and twenty-four participants (52.96% nurses, 47.04% nursing assistants) was selected for the study. The mediating role of work engagement was examined using the structural equation modeling and bootstrapping method. The findings showed that affective organizational commitment was positively predicted by self-efficacy and work engagement. The results give empirical support to the job demands-resources model which raises the moderating role between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment (Orgambídez, Borrego & Vazquez-Aguado, 2019). The study was conducted in the medical field and the generational cohort of the participants was not put into consideration.

2.2.4 Emotional Intelligence, Job Demands-Resources, Occupational Self-efficacy and Work Commitment

Kumar and Devi (2016) conducted a study on the relationship between emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy of secondary school teachers in Haryana, India. A sample of two hundred secondary school teachers was selected through a simple random sampling technique. The result showed that EI is positively correlated with occupational self-efficacy. The emotional intelligence scale (EIS) by Hyde, Pethe, and Dhar and the Occupational self-efficacy scale by Pethe, Chaudhary, and Dhar were used to measure

emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy respectively in the research. The generational cohort of the respondents was not considered in the study. The study used different instruments to measure the variables and there was no moderator to the relationship between the variables. The study was conducted in the education sector, unlike the current study which was conducted in the telecommunication sector (Kumar & Devi 2016).

Balogun and Afolabi (2019) conducted a study on the moderating roles of job demands and resources on the relationship between work engagement and family conflict among working mothers in the banking industry in Nigeria. A sample of 156 respondents aged between 24 and 39 years were selected using purposeful sampling. The findings showed that work engagement was positively correlated to work-family conflict. In addition, job demands and resources were found to significantly moderate the relationship between work engagement and work-family conflict. This shows that organizations can reduce the effect of work engagement on work-family conflict among their employees by identifying the impact of job demands and producing adequate job resources (Balogun & Afolabi, 2019).

Skaalvik (2020) conducted a study to investigate the associations between school principals' self-efficacy for instructional leadership, their perception of job demands and job resources, emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, and motivation to quit in Norway. A sample of 447 principals were selected using random sampling in elementary school and high school with 61% being female and 39% being male to take part in the study. An online tool was used to collect the data from the principals. The results showed that self-efficacy for instructional leadership was negatively associated with the perceptions of the job resources in the study. In addition, the associations between self-efficacy and emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and motivation to quit were indirect, mediated through the perception of job demands and job resources. Practically, the study indicates a need to reduce excessive demands so that school principals can devote time and energy to instructional leadership (Skaalvik, 2020). The current study is in a different sector – telecommunications industry.

Kostic-Bobanovic (2020) conducted a study to investigate the perceived self-efficacy and emotional intelligence among foreign language teachers in Istria, Croatia. A sample of 213

teachers was involved in the study. The results showed that EI and perceived self-efficacy have a positively association among foreign language teachers. In addition, the scores of the self-management and social factors of emotional intelligence were high among the experienced teachers (Kostić-Bobanović, 2020). Hameli and Ordun (2022) conducted a study to examine the mediating role of self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment among employees of different organizations in Kosovo. A sample of one hundred and forty-five respondents was utilized. The findings showed that emotional intelligence is positively correlated to self-efficacy and that self-efficacy is also correlated to organizational commitment (Hameli & Ordun, 2022).

Damayanti, Yahya, Yean, Maasir and Abdullah (2022) conducted a study to examine the role of self-efficacy in mediating the relationship between work values, emotional intelligence, and career commitment among generation Y employees in the banking sector in Indonesia. The survey method was used to collect data from 350 employees. The research findings revealed a significant positive relationship between work values and emotional intelligence with career commitment. The results further showed that self- (Damayanti, Yahya, Yean, Maasir & Abdullah, 2022).

Orgambídez, Borrego, and Vazquez-Aguado (2019) conducted a study on the mediation role of work engagement between self-efficacy and affective organizational commitment among nursing professionals in Spain. A convenience sample of three hundred and twenty-four participants (52.96% nurses, 47.04% nursing assistants) was selected for the study. The mediating role of work engagement was examined using the structural equation modeling and bootstrapping method. The findings showed that affective organizational commitment was positively predicted by self-efficacy and work engagement. The results give empirical support to the job demands-resources model which raises the moderating role between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment (Orgambídez, Borrego & Vazquez-Aguado, 2019). The study was conducted in the medical field and the generational cohort of the participants was not put into consideration.

2.3 Summary of Literature and Research Gap

The sources of the literature examined indicate the different studies and their area of focus on the impact of emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and occupational self-efficacy on the work commitment of millennial employees. Most of the studies reviewed were conducted in different sectors with none in the telecommunications sector. In addition, there is a dearth of research on the aspect of the generational cohort in the workplace specifically the millennial generational cohort. Moreover, none of the studies reviewed combined the mediators and moderators of the relationships between EI and work commitment as has been done in the current study. The findings thereof have brought out research gaps that have guided this study.

Table 1 Summary of Research Gaps

	Researcher	Study	Methodology	Findings	Knowledge gaps	The focus of the current study
1	Mia, Humphrey & Qian (2017)	A meta-analysis involving 119 empirical quantitative studies on the relationship between EI and work attitudes of employees	The study adopted meta-analytical summaries of existing research	The study showed that EI is positively related to organization's commitment of workers	The study used a meta-analysis approach and had only two variables: independent and dependent variables	The current study used a cross-sectional survey and included a mediator and moderator in the study.
2	Navas and Vijayakumar (2018)	A review on studies of the effect of EI on organizational commitment, job satisfaction and job stress.	The study adopted a review of existing research	The review corroborated with earlier studies that EI has a significant positive relationship with the three components of organizational commitment	The study adopted a review of existing research and considered organization commitment.	The current study utilized a cross-sectional survey while using the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test and Morrow's work framework of work commitment.

	Researcher	**Study**	**Methodology**	**Findings**	**Knowledge gaps**	**Focus of the current study**
3.	Balogun & Afolabi (2019)	A study to examine the moderating roles of job demands and resources on the relationship between work engagement and family conflict among working mothers in the banking industry in Nigeria.	The study adopted cross-sectional survey.	The results showed that job demands and resources were found to significantly moderate the relationship between work engagement and work-family conflict.	The study used purposeful sampling that could introduce bias and unrepresentativeness of the sample.	The current study used a sizeable sample to enhance generalizability. Simple random sampling was used to increase representativeness.
4	Baker, Jaaffar, Ibrahim, Hassan and Sallehuddin (2019)	A study to determine the effect of EI on affective commitment among Royal Malaysia police officers.	The study adopted deductive research in the context of a survey research technique.	The results of the study showed that EI has a strong positive relationship with affective commitment	The study used non-probability sampling technique which could introduce bias and lack of representativeness of the sample.	The current study employed simple random sampling to enhance representativeness and minimize biasness while increasing generalization and external validity.

	Researcher	Study	Methodology	Findings	Knowledge gaps	Focus of the current study
5	Njoku (2020)	A study on the link of EI and perceived job stress as predictors of organization commitment among fuel dispensers in Owerri, Nigeria	The study adopted cross-section research using a survey method.	The results of the study showed that both EI and perceived stress are predictors of organization commitment.	The sample size of 4 filling stations and 200 respondents is small to allow for generalizations. The study considered organizational commitment, a subset of work commitment.	The current study used sample whose findings could be generalizable and will be conducted in a different sector.
6	Matheri, Karanja & Namusonge (2020)	A study conducted to examine the impact of emotional intelligence on employee commitment among the SACCO employees in Kenya.	The study adopted cross-section research using a survey method.	The results show that there exists a positive correlation between EI an employee commitment.	The study utilized two variables: EI and employee commitment as the independent and dependent variables respectively. The operationalization of employee commitment is also not clear in the study.	The current study included moderating and mediating variables. In addition, a general framework of work commitment was utilized with clear operationalization of the all the study variables.

	Researcher	Study	Methodology	Findings	Knowledge gaps	The focus of the current study
7.	Rai & Chawla (2022)	A study was conducted to explore the interrelationships among job resources, job demands, work, and organization engagement of junior management grade 1 officers in 27 public sector banks in India.	The study adopted a cross-sectional research design.	The findings showed that job demands moderated the relationship between job resources and work engagement.	The list of variables in job demands and resources is not exhaustive.	The current study took into consideration all the variables in the job demands-resources model.
8	Hameli & Ordun (2022)	A study was conducted to examine the mediating role of self-efficacy and organizational commitment of different organizations in Kosovo.	The study adopted cross-section research using a survey method.	The results showed that EI is positively correlated to self-efficacy and self-efficacy is positively correlated to organization commitment.	The study used the overall mean scores of emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and organizational commitment to test the hypothesis instead of the subdimensions	The current study utilized the four components of emotional intelligence, six components of occupational self-efficacy, and five aspects of work commitment.

	Researcher	Study	Methodology	Findings	Knowledge gaps	The focus of the current study
9	Damayant et.al. (2022)	A study was conducted to examine the moderating role of self-efficacy between work values, EI, and career commitment among Generation Y employees in the banking sector in Indonesia	The study adopted cross-section research using a survey method.	The results showed a significant positive relationship between work values and EI with career commitment. The results further showed that the moderator of self-efficacy significantly moderates the relationship between work values and EI.	The study focused on millennial workers in the banking sector and considered only one component of work commitment – career commitment.	The current study focused on millennial workers in the telecommunication industry and the five components of Morrow's work commitment framework are considered.

2.4 Hypothesis of the Study

A hypothesis is a statement of the researcher's assumption about the prevalence of a phenomenon or about a relationship between variables that are to be tested within the framework of the research. The null hypotheses formulated for the present study are:

i. H_{O1} There is no significant effect of emotional intelligence on work commitment of millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunication sector.
ii. H_{O2} There is no significant moderating effect of job demands-resources on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of the millennial workers in Kenya's telecommunication sector.
iii. H_{O3} There is no significant mediation effect of occupation self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and millennial work commitment in Kenya's telecommunication sector.
iv. H_{O4} There is no significant moderation-mediation effect of job demands-resources and occupation self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in the Kenyan telecommunication sector.

2.5 Conceptual Framework of the Study

A conceptual framework is a model that shows the interactions between the independent variables, the response, or dependent variables as well as the moderating and mediating variables in the problem identified. Emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennials are the independent and dependent variables of the study respectively. On the other hand, job demands -resources, and occupational self-efficacy are the moderating and mediating variables respectively to the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennials in Kenyan telecommunication sector. Figure 1 depicts the conceptual framework for the study.

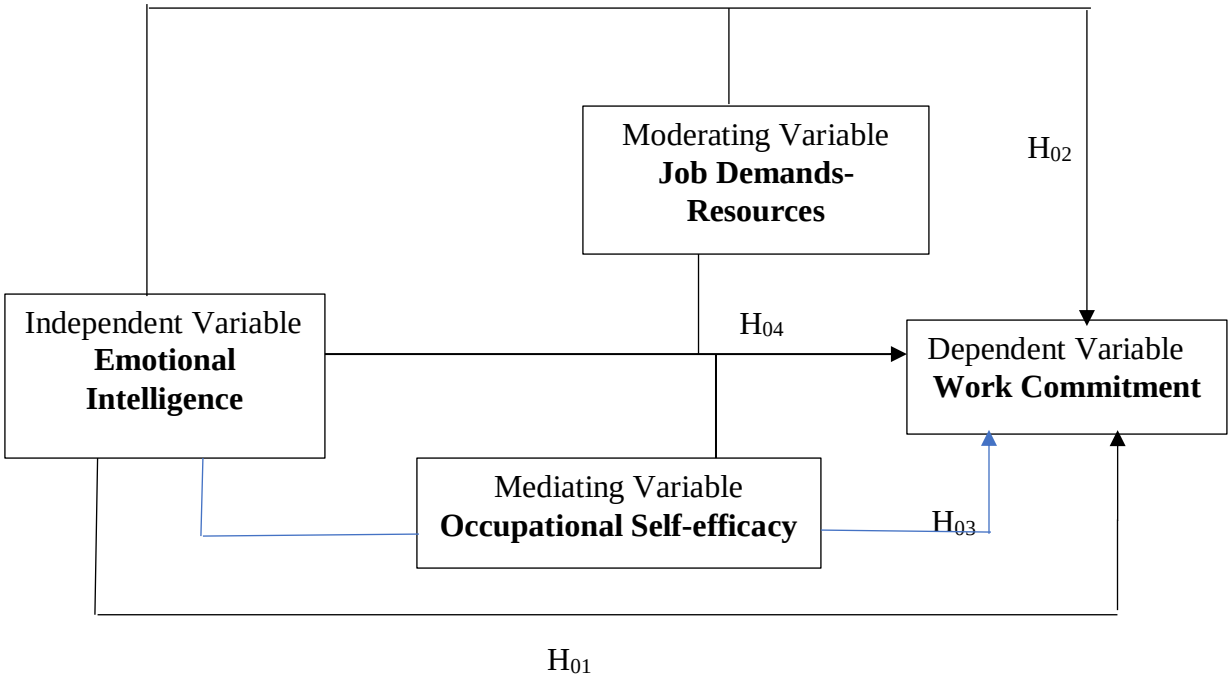


Figure 1: Conceptual framework of the study.

2.6 Operationalization of Variables

Operationalization of variables is the process of converting variables from abstract to concrete dimensions by describing the variables in the specific indicators to be used in the research to manipulate the variable. Table 2 depicts the measurable indicators of the research variables.

Table 2 Operationalization and Measurement of the Research Variables

Study variable	Indicators	Measurement Scale	Section	Tools of Analysis
Emotional intelligence	Perceiving emotion Understanding emotion Facilitating emotion Managing emotion	Ordinal	B	Questionnaire
Job demands-resources	Job demands Workload Time pressure Emotional demands physical demands Role ambiguity work-family conflict. Job insecurity Job resources Autonomy Social support Feedback skill variety Task Significance Job control career opportunities	Ordinal	C	Questionnaire
Occupational self-efficacy	Confidence Command Adaptability Positive attitude Individuality Personal effectiveness	Ordinal	D	Questionnaire
Work commitment	Work ethic endorsement. Career commitment Job involvement Affective organization commitment Continuance organization commitment	Ordinal	E	Questionnaire

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This section of the research describes the research approaches that were employed in the study. The sections include a description of the research philosophy, design of the study, the population, sample and sampling techniques, data collection and data analysis tools and procedures, pilot study, validity and reliability, and ethical considerations.

3.1 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy encompasses the fundamental beliefs and underlying assumptions that guide a researcher's approach to investigation and the methodological strategies employed in the study (Iovino, 2020). Researchers' varying beliefs and assumptions significantly influence their research methodologies and the selection of approaches to address the research problem at hand. Among the myriad of research philosophies, notable ones include pragmatism, positivism, realism, and interpretivism (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill., 2012). Pragmatism is often embraced when the phenomenon under scrutiny elicits diverse viewpoints and interpretations, leading to the emergence of multiple realities. Researchers adopting a pragmatic stance prioritize practicality and utility, seeking to synthesize various perspectives to arrive at pragmatic solutions and actionable insights.

Positivism represents an empirical and quantitative approach to research, characterized by hypothesis testing and the quest for objective, generalizable facts that can be applied to the broader population. Positivist researchers emphasize the importance of rigorous measurement and systematic observation in the pursuit of scientific knowledge. On the other hand, realism posits that entities exist independently of human perception or theoretical constructs about them. Researchers subscribing to realism advocate for an ontological stance that acknowledges the existence of an objective reality external to human cognition, albeit acknowledging the influence of perception on our understanding of reality. Moreover, interpretivism, commonly employed in qualitative research endeavors, prioritizes the exploration and understanding of subjective experiences and contexts. Researchers utilizing interpretivism approaches aim to gather rich, contextualized

data to illuminate the complexities of human behavior and phenomena. Interpretivists recognize the role of social and cultural contexts in shaping individuals' perceptions and interpretations of reality. In essence, the choice of research philosophy profoundly shapes the trajectory of a study, influencing the selection of research methods, data collection techniques, and analytical frameworks. By aligning their research philosophy with the nature of the research problem and objectives, researchers can effectively navigate the complexities inherent in the research process and generate meaningful insights into the phenomena under investigation.

The research philosophy used in the current study was positivism. Positivism is best suited for research that seeks to test hypotheses, measure variables, or identify relationships between variables. In addition, positivism is grounded in the belief that reality is objective and can be understood through empirical observation and data collection The philosophy was thus adopted to enable the systematic collection and analysis of quantifiable data, allowing for objective hypothesis testing and the identification of patterns and relationships. The positivist philosophy does not allow researchers to include their values and biases in the research process (Tombs & Pugsley, 2020). Positivism is a valuable approach to research as it provides a rigorous and systematic method of studying phenomena in the natural and social world. By emphasizing objectivity, generalizability, empirical evidence, scientific rigor, and theory development, positivism allows researchers to produce reliable and trustworthy knowledge that can be applied across different contexts and situations. This minimizes bias and subjectivity in the findings which enhances reliability and validity.

Research methodologies, on the other hand, encompass a diverse array of approaches and techniques employed to investigate and understand phenomena in various fields of study. These methodologies serve as guiding frameworks that researchers utilize to systematically collect, analyze, and interpret data. The methodologies include quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods. Quantitative methods utilize numerical data where research information is collected through surveys and experiments. On the other hand, in qualitative methods, the researchers delve into the depths of human experience through interviews and observations of individual respondents or focus groups. The integration of the two methods

culminates in mixed methods research where the complementary aspects of both quantitative and qualitative approaches are utilized, offering a more holistic understanding of complex phenomena. Each of the three methods offers unique strengths and weaknesses therefore researchers must carefully consider factors such as research questions, epistemological perspectives, ethical considerations, and practical constraints to effectively navigate the challenges of the research process while making decisions (Kothari, 2009). The current study utilized the quantitative approach to investigate the impact of emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and occupational self-efficacy on the work commitment of millennial employees in the Kenyan telecommunication sector. The quantitative approach was chosen because it could provide numerical data that can easily be analyzed and interpreted statistically. Moreover, the approach enables researchers to measure variables objectively hence obtaining more definitive conclusions. In addition, quantitative methods are suitable for investigating relationships between variables, as they employ statistical techniques such as correlation and regression analysis to identify patterns and trends within data. In addition, the information obtained through quantitative approaches can be replicated easily (Saunders; Lewis; Thornhill., 2012).

3.2 Research Design

Research design refers to the plan or strategy that a researcher uses to address a research question or hypothesis. It serves as a blueprint for conducting the study while outlining the overall structure and methodology utilized to address the research questions or objectives. It comprises key decisions regarding the selection of participants, data collection methods, and data analysis techniques. An appropriate research design warrants that the data collected is relevant, reliable, and valid, bringing forth robust conclusions and insights. Research design also involves considerations of ethical principles, feasibility, and practical constraints, helping researchers to navigate the complexities of the research process while minimizing bias and maximizing the validity of findings.

The current quantitative study adopted both descriptive cross-sectional and explanatory research design. Descriptive cross-sectional design was used to capture the current state of emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and occupational self-efficacy and their

relationship to work commitment among millennials in the Kenyan telecommunication sector. This approach allows for a comprehensive description of these variables at a single point in time, without requiring longitudinal tracking. In addition, the explanatory research design – a type of research aimed at understanding and explaining the underlying reasons, causes, or mechanisms behind a particular phenomenon - was employed to test the hypotheses designed for the study (Kothari, 2009). Quantitative data collected was used to address the four research objectives: To examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment among millennial employees in the Kenyan telecommunication sector; To determine the moderating effect of job demands-resources on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in the Kenyan telecommunication sector. To determine the mediation effect of occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in the Kenyan telecommunication sector. To investigate the moderation-mediation effect of job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in the Kenyan telecommunication sector. The data collected was then analyzed regarding the emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, occupational self-efficacy and work commitment of the millennials in the Kenyan telecommunication sector. Cross-sectional and correlational research designs are widely used in social sciences for studying the relationships between variables (Hamaker, 2022). These designs are efficient since they allow researchers to collect a significant amount of data in a relatively short amount of time. In addition, these designs are useful in examining relationships between variables that occur naturally in the real world and testing hypotheses.

3.3 Target Population

According to Kothari (2009), the target population refers to the entire set of objects the researcher is interested in to obtain relevant information for the study. The target population in research refers to the whole group of entities that share common characteristics and from which the researcher intends to draw conclusions from. This population represents the larger group about which conclusions were drawn based on the data collected by the study. Identifying the target population was essential for ensuring the

relevance and applicability of the research findings. In defining the target population, factors such as the objectives and the scope of the study were considered. Additionally, the characteristics and demographics of the target population were assessed to ensure that they aligned with the research focus. The target population of the study comprised of approximately 5234 individuals aged 23-43 years working in IGOs of Kenya's telecommunication sector. The IGO sub-sector comprises organizations in the register of unified licensing framework licensees authorized to manage and operate infrastructure that connects Kenya's telecommunication networks to the global telecommunications network. The IGO subsector of Kenya's telecommunication sector was selected for the study because they comprise the top companies in the sector in terms of size and operations hence they engage a sizeable number of millennial workers who form the unit of analysis for the study (Communications Authority, 2023).

Table 3: Sampling Frame

Organization	**Population (Number of Millennial Employees)**
Airtel Networks Kenya Limited	847
Dimension Data Solutions East Africa Limited	212
Geo-Net Communications Limited	45
Jamii Telecommunications Limited	300
Liquid Telecommunications Kenya Limited	260
Safaricom Plc	2970
Seacom Kenya Limited	250
Wananchi Telecom Limited	350
Total	**5234**

3.4 Sample and Sampling Techniques

The sampling frame for this study consisted of millennials employed in organizations categorized under the IGOs (International Gateway operators) within the unified licensing framework licensees overseen by the Communications Authority of Kenya. There are eleven IGOs but the researcher gained access to only eight companies that formed the sampling frame of the study. The study employed simple random sampling to select 157 participants, who were then randomly distributed across the eight organizations. This sampling method was chosen to ensure the sample's representativeness, reduce bias,

enhance the statistical validity of research findings, and augment transparency, fairness, and ease of implementation while enhancing the generalizability of the study's findings. Furthermore, employing simple random sampling enhanced the statistical validity of the research by facilitating the accurate application of various statistical techniques to analyze the data. Importantly, this sampling technique ensures transparency and fairness, affording every member of the population an equal opportunity to participate in the study. By upholding these principles, the credibility and integrity of the research process are strengthened, instilling confidence in the validity and reliability of the study's outcomes (Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill., 2012; Ahmad, Hussain, Aamir, Khan, Alshahrani & Alqawba, 2022). According to Dell, Holleran, and Ramakrishnan (2002), a simple rule of thumb for sample is as indicated hence for a population of 5234, 3% of the population was used (Mokamba, 2015).

Size of Population **Percent**

- 0-100 100%
- 101-1,000 10%
- 1,001-5,000 5%
- 5,001-10,000 3%
- 10,000+ 1%

The base sample size of 157 respondents was selected for the research out of the 5234 total IGO's millennial worker population. Table 4 presents the sample size of the millennials selected using simple random sampling based on a 3% computation of the population.

Table 4: Sample Size

Organization	Population of millennials	Sample (3% of the Population)
IGOs	5234	157

3.5 Data Collection Procedures and Instruments

Data is information admitted as a fact on which research inference is based. The overall objective of the research was to investigate the effect of emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and occupational self-efficacy on the work commitment of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector. Data collection instruments are critical components of any research study, serving as the means to gather information to address the research objectives. The process of data collection involves systematically collecting, recording, and storing data in a manner that ensures accuracy, reliability, and validity. Researchers employ various instruments and techniques tailored to their specific research designs and objectives, such as surveys, interviews, observations, or secondary data. The researcher develops the instruments to measure the variables of interest accurately and efficiently. Moreover, researchers must consider factors such as the feasibility of data collection, ethical considerations, and the target population's characteristics when designing their data collection methods. Appropriate instruments and techniques are utilized to ensure the quality and integrity of data collected thereby enhancing the credibility and validity of their study findings.

Primary data was collected by using a closed-ended online questionnaire designed using the Kobo Collect platform structured on a five-point interval Likert scale to measure the four categories of variables from the respondents. Closed-ended questions provide consistent answer choices for all respondents, reducing ambiguity and making it easier to standardize data collection across a large sample. This consistency makes it easier to compare responses and identify trends. The use of a 5-point Likert scale allows respondents to express varying degrees of agreement or disagreement with the statements related to emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and work commitment. This approach captures the nuances in participants' perceptions, providing a more detailed and accurate understanding of their experiences. The 5-point Likert scale provides sufficient granularity to capture meaningful differences in attitudes or opinions without overwhelming respondents with too many options. It balances between offering enough response options to measure nuances and keeping the scale simple enough to avoid over-complication. The online survey was shared with the 157 millennial employees sampled for the study. A

questionnaire is an effective tool in reaching out to many individuals within a short time. It also gives the respondents adequate time to respond to the items, with a sense of security and confidentiality. Questionnaires are also useful in descriptive research since they enable the researcher to identify and describe variability in different phenomena (Saunders et al., 2012).

3.6 Pilot Study

A piloting of the research instruments was done before the actual data collection. A pilot study is a preliminary investigation carried out on a small scale to determine the accuracy of the research instruments employed. A pilot study is conducted to assess the feasibility, validity, and potential challenges of a larger research project before full-scale implementation. It helps researchers identify and address any methodological issues, such as unclear questions, data collection difficulties, or logistical problems, which could affect the main study. By conducting a smaller-scale test, researchers can refine their research instruments, confirm the adequacy of resources, and ensure that their approach is practical and effective. This process minimizes risks, saves time and resources, and increases the likelihood of success for the main study by addressing any potential issues early on. It seeks to assess the proposed methodology's feasibility, potential challenges, and effectiveness. Since the pilot study is conducted on a smaller scale, it allows researchers to improve the methodologies, identify shortcomings, and optimize the research instruments before conducting the main study.

The pilot study was also carried out to assess the validity and reliability of the research instruments, refine data collection procedures, and gauge the practicability of the approach before the main study could be conducted. One of the advantages of conducting a pilot study is that it might give a warning about where the main research project could fail, where research protocols may not be followed, and whether methods or instruments are inappropriate. In the current research, the pilot study was conducted to cover 10% of the sample targeted and selected randomly (Saunders et.al., 2012). A total of 16 respondents selected from the sampling frame – millennials working in the eight international gateway operators of the Kenyan telecommunication sector- participated in the pilot study. The

online research tool was sent to the respondents who were then not included in the main study.

3.7 Validity and Reliability

This section covers the validity and reliability of the research instruments.

3.7.1 Validity

The validity of a research instrument is the extent to which it accurately measures what it intends to measure. This is a crucial aspect of research methodology since it determines the credibility and trustworthiness of the findings. To guarantee validity, careful attention was paid to research design, data collection methods, and analysis techniques to minimize bias and maximize the accuracy and reliability of the study's conclusions. Validity refers to the extent to which a study accurately measures what it intends to measure. It is a crucial aspect of research methodology as it determines the credibility and trustworthiness of the findings. There are several types of validity including content, construct, criterion, and external validity. Content validity assesses whether the study covers all the relevant aspects of the topic under investigation. This is achieved by engaging the experts in the field to review the study's content such as survey questions and assess whether they represent the full range of the construct being studied. Construct validity, on the other hand, examines whether the study accurately represents the theoretical concepts it claims to measure. This is measured through convergent validity, discriminant validity, and factor analysis. In this study, construct validity was measured using factor analysis, a statistical technique used to identify the underlying dimensions and how they align with the theoretical constructs. To guarantee validity, careful attention was paid to research design, data collection methods, and analysis techniques to minimize bias and maximize the accuracy and reliability of the study's conclusions. Lastly, external validity refers to the generalizability of the study outcomes to other populations or contexts. It is often assessed through replication studies conducted in different settings (VanderStoep & Johnston, 2009). The questionnaire was subjected to panel of experts including the supervisors to determine its face validity. The researcher also sought expertise on the content validity of the instruments from the research mentors and supervisors. The construct validity was confirmed using confirmatory factor

analysis (CFA). This is a technique that tests a pre-defined measurement based on prior theoretical expectations. CFA provides evidence of convergent validity (items within a construct loading on the same factor) and discriminant validity (items loading more strongly on their intended factor compared to other factors).

3.7.2 Reliability

The reliability of a research instrument is its ability to consistently measure characteristics of interest over time. Reliability, a cornerstone of robust research methodology, elucidates the extent to which a research instrument yields consistent results when measuring desired characteristics over time. Common measures of internal consistency reliability include Cronbach's alpha coefficient, which quantifies the degree of interrelatedness among items, with a threshold of 0.7 often considered indicative of acceptable internal consistency. The utilization of Cronbach's alpha coefficient as a threshold ($\alpha \geq 0.7$) underscores the emphasis on achieving a satisfactory level of internal consistency within the questionnaire, thereby enhancing the reliability of the research instrument and bolstering the credibility of the study findings. In the current study, reliability was tested by measuring the internal consistency of the items within the questionnaire using SPSS. Cronbach alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the items. The threshold of Cronbach alpha (α) was taken to be 0.7 to represent the coefficient or the degree of internal consistency of the questionnaire.

3.8 Data Analysis and Presentation

Data analysis was undertaken to determine if the millennials' emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and occupational self-efficacy significantly predict their work commitment. Descriptive and inferential analysis was used to analyze the data in this study. The data collected was coded and statistical analyses were carried out using the IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software for Windows version 24.0. The dataset was subjected to a comprehensive descriptive analysis. This was used to summarize the datasets to provide basic information about the variables and identify patterns and trends. The fundamental characteristics of the variables were summarized revealing trends and emergent patterns. The relationship between the dependent and independent variables

was assessed through a simple linear regression model. The statistical tool revealed how emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, occupational self-efficacy, and work commitment are connected for millennials.

To examine the mediation effect of occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment, Baron and Kenny's (2006) method was used. Baron and Kenny's (2006) method was employed to examine the hypothesis regarding the mediation effects on the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Multiple regression analyses were conducted to assess the hypotheses concerning the moderating effect on the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Finally, Hayes' Process Model 7 was utilized to examine the moderated-mediated relationship between the dependent and independent variables. This tool helped explore how job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy moderated and mediated the relationship between dependent and independent variables respectively to produce a moderated mediated effect. Through this analysis, valuable insights were gained into the complex dynamics shaping millennials' commitment to their work, including how contextual factors and underlying mechanisms come into play.

The regression models for the study were:

a. The linear regression model to examine the effect of emotional intelligence on work commitment $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1$
b. The multiple regression model examined the moderated effect of job demands-resources to the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment while including the interactive term.

   $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1 . X_2 + \varepsilon$
c. Baron and Kenny's (2006) model was used to examine the mediation effect of occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment.

   Step 1: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon_1$
   Step 2: $X_2 = \beta_0 + \beta_2 X_1 + \varepsilon_2$
   Step 3: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_3 X_2 + \varepsilon_3$
   Step 4: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_4 X_2 + \beta_5 X_2 + \varepsilon_3$

d. Hayes' Process Macro Model of the moderated-mediated effect of job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy to the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment.
    a. Mediation Path (effect of X_1 on X_3, moderated by X_2).
    $X_3 = a_0 + a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 + a_3X_1.X_2 + \varepsilon_1$
    b. Outcome path (effect of X_3 on Y, direct effect of X_1 on Y)
    $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_3 + bX_1 + \varepsilon_2$
    c. Moderated-mediated equation (combination of both the moderated-mediation effect of the X_1 to X_3 and X_3 on Y
    $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (a_0 + a_1X_1 + a_2X_3) + a_3X_1.X_2 + b\,X_1 + \varepsilon_2$

where,

Y = Work commitment

$\beta 0$, a_0 = Intercepts

β_1, β_2, β_3, a_1, a_2, a_3 and b are the coefficients of the regression analyses

X_1 = Emotional intelligence

X_2 = Job demands-resources

X_3 = Occupational self-efficacy

ε = the error Term

The dissemination of the research findings is a multifaceted process aimed at maximizing the impact and reach of the study's outcomes. Firstly, a comprehensive research report was carefully prepared, ensuring that every aspect of the research journey, from the methodology employed to the intricate data analysis conducted, and finally, the key insights explored are captured. This report served as a foundational document and was archived in the university's repository, ensuring long-term accessibility for interested parties, scholars, and future researchers. In addition to the detailed research report, a condensed version was crafted to cater to the needs of different stakeholders. This condensed report succinctly outlined the main findings and their implications, making it more accessible and digestible for policymakers, industry professionals, and other stakeholders. The report was disseminated widely among relevant organizations, including

the Kenyan government agencies overseeing telecommunications, major telecommunication companies operating in Kenya, academic institutions, and industry associations.

Furthermore, the research findings was shared through academic channels to contribute to the scholarly discourse in the field. The results were submitted for publication in peer-reviewed journals, ensuring rigorous scrutiny and validation by the academic community. Additionally, the research team actively sought opportunities to present their findings at academic conferences, seminars, and workshops, both domestically and internationally. These platforms provided avenues for engaging with fellow researchers, exchanging ideas, and receiving feedback on the study's findings. Moreover, recognizing the importance of translating research into actionable insights, the research team developed a series of policy briefs and recommendations based on the research findings. These policy briefs distilled the key findings and their policy implications into accessible formats, tailored to resonate with policymakers and industry stakeholders. Through targeted dissemination efforts, these policy briefs were shared with policymakers, regulatory bodies, and industry leaders to inform policy formulation and decision-making processes in the Kenyan telecommunication sector. Overall, the dissemination strategy was characterized by a concerted effort to reach diverse audiences through various channels, ensuring that the research findings have a tangible impact on policy, practice, and future research directions in the Kenyan telecommunication industry.

3.9 Diagnostic tests

Diagnostic tests are used in hypothesis testing to assess the assumptions and validity of the statistical model. These tests help identify potential issues or violations that may affect the reliability and interpretation of the hypothesis test results. Many statistical tests and models rely on specific assumptions, such as normality of residuals, homoscedasticity, independence of observations, and absence of multicollinearity. Diagnostic tests play a crucial role in research by providing objective measures to assess and evaluate specific characteristics of interest. Additionally, diagnostic tests enable researchers to classify subjects into different categories based on specific criteria, facilitating comparisons and

analyses within and between categories. Overall, the use of diagnostic tests in research enhances the rigor, accuracy, and validity of scientific inquiry, ultimately leading to a deeper understanding of complex phenomena and the development of effective interventions and solutions. The study conducted various diagnostic tests: multicollinearity, heteroscedasticity, linearity, and normality to test whether the measures used are valid and reliable. These tests are designed to identify the presence or absence of a particular attribute within a study population.

The value of diagnostic tests lies in their ability to provide researchers with reliable and valid data, thus supporting the formulation of hypotheses, the validation of theories, and the interpretation of research findings. Additionally, diagnostic tests enable researchers to classify subjects into different categories based on specific criteria, facilitating comparisons and analyses within and between categories. Overall, the use of diagnostic tests in research enhances the rigor, accuracy, and validity of scientific inquiry, ultimately leading to a deeper understanding of complex phenomena and the development of effective interventions and solutions. The study conducted various diagnostic tests: multicollinearity, heteroscedasticity, linearity, and normality to test whether the measures used are valid and reliable. The tests can also help identify errors, outliers, or inconsistencies in the data in addition to assessing the robustness and generalizability of the findings. By conducting diagnostic tests, researchers can verify whether these assumptions hold for their data. The current study conducted the following diagnostic tests: normality, multicollinearity, heteroscedasticity, and linearity tests

3.9.1 Test for Normality

Normality test examines whether the residuals - the differences between the observed and predicted values- in a statistical model follow a normal distribution. The test for normality involves assessing whether the residues follow a normal distribution. The test is critical because statistical methods and tests assume that the residues - differences between the observed values and the predicted values in a regression analysis -are normally distributed. In the current study, Quantile-Quantile (Q-Q) plots were used to assess the normality of the residuals, which is an essential assumption for conducting regression analysis. The Q-

Q plot compares the distribution of the residuals to a theoretical normal distribution by plotting the quantiles of the residuals against the expected quantiles from a normal distribution. If the residuals are normally distributed, the points in the Q-Q plot lie approximately along a straight line. Deviations from this line, especially in the tails of the distribution, indicate departures from normality. By examining the Q-Q plots for the regression models, it was evident that the residuals met the assumption of normality, guiding further steps in the data analysis process.

3.9.2 Test for Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity occurs when there is a strong correlation between two or more predictor variables in the model. It can cause instability in the parameter estimates and affect the interpretation of the coefficients. According to Belsey, Kuh & Welsch (1990), the identification of multicollinearity in a model is paramount in research and is examined by testing the tolerance and the variation inflation factor (VIF) diagnostic factors (Belsley, Kuh & Welsch,1980). The VIF measures the impact of multicollinearity among the variables in a regression model and was used for the current study. Multicollinearity was tested using the variance inflation factor (VIF) and degree of tolerance among the variables. Tolerance is a measure of multicollinearity in regression analysis that indicates the proportion of variance in an independent variable that is not predictable from other independent variables. A tolerance value close to 1 indicates low multicollinearity, meaning that the variable is relatively independent of the other variables in the model. The variance inflation factor, which is the reciprocal of the tolerance, measures how much the variance of an estimated regression coefficient is increased due to multicollinearity. A variance inflation factor value of 1 indicates no multicollinearity, while values greater than 10 are often considered indicative of high multicollinearity.

3.9.3 Heteroscedasticity Test

Heteroscedasticity refers to the assumption that the variances of the residual values tend to cluster together at some values and spread far at some other values. A scatterplot of the residuals against the predicted values using SPSS can provide a visual indication. The

current study utilized scatter plots for the test. Heteroscedasticity could also be described as a situation where the variability of the residuals from a regression model differs across the levels of the independent variables. In a regression analysis, the assumption of constant variance of residuals (homoscedasticity) is critical for the validity of statistical inferences. When heteroscedasticity is present, it can lead to inefficient and biased estimates of the regression coefficients and standard errors may be underestimated or overestimated. To assess the presence of heteroscedasticity in the regression analysis, scatterplots were employed to visually inspect the relationship between the residuals and the predicted values. Scatterplots were generated for each independent variable against the residuals. The scatterplots revealed noticeable patterns, particularly in the scatterplot of residuals against the predicted values. In addition to the visual inspection of the scatter plots, Breusch-Pagan/Cook-Weisberg test was also used in the research. This test involves regressing the squared residuals from the original regression model on the independent variables.

3.9.4 Test of Linearity

Linearity assumes that there's a direct, straight-line connection between predictor variables and the criterion variable. The linearity test aimed to assess whether the relationship between the independent variables (predictor variables) and the dependent variable is linear or nonlinear. This assessment was conducted through a visual examination of scatter plots, where each predictor variable was plotted against the dependent variable. Scatter plots were created for each predictor variable (independent variable) against the dependent variable. In these plots, the values of the predictor variable are plotted on the x-axis, while the values of the dependent variable are plotted on the y-axis. Each data point represents an observation in the dataset. Researchers visually inspected the scatter plots to assess the pattern of the data points. They looked for any discernible linear trend or pattern in the data. A linear relationship between the predictor variables and the dependent variable would be evident if the data points form a roughly straight line or exhibit a clear linear trend. Based on the scatter plots, researchers determined whether the relationship between each predictor variable and the dependent variable appeared to be linear or nonlinear. If the data points exhibit a random or irregular pattern with no clear linear trend, it suggests a lack of linearity in the relationship.

In addition, each data point represents an observation in the dataset. Researchers visually inspected the scatter plots to assess the pattern of the data points. They looked for any discernible linear trend or pattern in the data. A linear relationship between the predictor variables and the dependent variable would be evident if the data points form a roughly straight line or exhibit a clear linear trend. Based on the scatter plots, researchers determined whether the relationship between each predictor variable and the dependent variable appeared to be linear or nonlinear. If the data points exhibit a random or irregular pattern with no clear linear trend, it suggests a lack of linearity in the relationship.

On the other hand, if the data points roughly follow a straight line or show a consistent linear trend, it indicates a linear relationship. The interpretation of the scatter plots informs researchers about the linearity of the relationships between the predictor variables and the dependent variable. If linearity is observed, it suggests that linear regression analysis may be appropriate for modeling the relationships. However, if nonlinear patterns are detected, researchers may need to consider alternative regression techniques or transformations to account for the nonlinear nature of the relationships. Overall, the linearity test provides valuable insights into the nature of the relationships between the predictor variables and the dependent variable, guiding researchers in selecting appropriate regression modeling techniques and ensuring the validity of their analyses. In this study, linearity was evaluated by inspecting scatter plots of all independent variables against the dependent variable, aiming to determine whether such a straight-line relationship exists.

3.10 Ethical Consideration

Ethical concerns in research are very critical. Ethics in research relates to issues of social morals that the researcher will uphold during the process. Ethics also deals with gaining access, data collection, analysis, and reporting the findings morally and responsibly (Saunders et al, 2012). Ethical clearance is a requirement for research by the Government of Kenya through the National Council of Science, Technology & Innovation (NACOSTI). The researcher applied and was granted the research permit before undertaking the data collection.

3.10.1 Informed Consent

The process of obtaining informed consent from participants in a research study is a vital ethical procedure aimed at ensuring transparency, respect for autonomy, and protection of participants' rights throughout the research process. Firstly, the participants were furnished with detailed information about the study: the purpose of the study, its objectives, the procedures involved, the duration of participation, any potential risks, or discomforts that participants may encounter, as well as the benefits they may derive from participating. Additionally, participants were informed about the measures taken to ensure confidentiality and the steps that will be taken to safeguard their privacy.

Participants were given adequate time to review this information and ask any questions they had about the study. They were also assured that their participation is entirely voluntary, and they have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without facing any negative consequences. Furthermore, participants were informed about their rights as research subjects and how their data will be used and stored. Once participants were provided with this information and all their questions addressed satisfactorily, they were asked to provide consent to participate in the study by checking the box for consent, without which the data collection could not progress. This consent may be obtained through written forms, electronic signatures, or verbal agreements, depending on the preferences of the participants and the requirements of the research institution or ethics committee overseeing the study.

3.10.2 Voluntary Participation

Voluntary participation in research is an ethical practice that underlines the value of respecting an individual’s autonomy and choice. This means that individuals can participate in the research voluntarily and that their rights and dignity are upheld. In the study, respondents were only involved without coercion, undue influence, or pressure. They were provided with clear and comprehensive information about the research aims and benefits of the study to enable individuals to make informed decisions about their involvement. The respondents were also informed that they could withdraw from participating in the research at any stage should they decide to discontinue.

3.10.3 Confidentiality

The study addressed the issue of confidentiality by informing the respondents that the information would be used for the study only. In addition, the data collected was handled with a lot of care and was not accessible to third parties.

3.10.4 Privacy

The researcher guaranteed the privacy and security of the information obtained from the respondents by restricting unauthorized parties from accessing the information containing features that could reveal the respondent's identification and data files carefully controlled.

3.10.5 Anonymity

All participant information was treated with strict confidentiality to protect the rights and privacy of those involved in the study. Participants were assured that their responses and any personal information they shared would be handled in a manner that would prevent any potential harm or misuse. The data collected was exclusively for academic purposes, with clear communication that no part of the information provided would be used outside the research context. Participants were also informed that their responses would not be directly linked to them, ensuring that personal identities remained anonymous throughout the study. To uphold these ethical standards, the study adhered to fundamental principles of full disclosure, fair treatment, and respect for privacy, as guided by ethical research frameworks.

Data collected during the study underwent a thorough anonymization process, where personal identifiers were removed to prevent any association between participants and their responses. Identifying information was securely stored in a separate location from the research data, accessible only to a limited number of authorized personnel who were trained in confidentiality practices. In addition, all data was securely stored in compliance with applicable data protection regulations, ensuring protection against unauthorized access, misuse, or data breaches. This multi-layered approach to data security reinforced participants' trust and safeguarded the integrity of the research process.

3.11 Summary of Objectives

This section reviews and presents a summary of the objectives, hypotheses, and analytical methods of the study. Table 5 represents the summary of the study's objectives, hypotheses, analytical technique, model estimation, and interpretation of results.

Table 5: Summary of Objectives

No	Objective	Hypothesis	Analysis technique and Model estimation	Interpretation of results
1	To determine the relationship between EI and work commitment among the millennials employees in Kenyan telecommunication sector.	H_{01}: There is no significant relationship between EI and work commitment of the millennial employees in Kenyan telecommunication sector.	Simple linear regression analysis Work commitment =f (millennials' emotional intelligence) = $Y_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$ Y=work commitment β_0= Constant β_1= beta Coefficient X_1=Emotional Intelligence ε = error term	Coefficient of determination (R^2) was used to show the percentage of the variance of work commitment explained by emotional intelligence; Pearson correlation coefficient, r was used to determine nature and strength of the relationships between the two variables. P-value was used to determine the significance of the relationship between the variables. The F-test was used to assess the overall significance of the model and if it's fit for analysis. T-test was used to assess the significance of the beta coefficient of individual variable at $p < 0.05$

No	Objective	Hypothesis	Analysis technique and Model estimation	Interpretation of results
2	To determine the moderating effect of job demands-resources on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in Kenyan telecommunication sector	H_{02}: There is no significant moderating effect of job demands-resources on the relationship between EI and work commitment of the millennial employees in Kenyan telecommunication sector.	3-step regression analysis – this was done to test the effect of job demands-resources on influence of emotional intelligence and Work commitment. Work commitment = f (emotional intelligence, job demands-resources) Step 1: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$ Step 2: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$ Step 3: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_{1.} X_2 + \varepsilon$ Y = work commitment of millennials X_1 = Emotional Intelligence X_2 = job demands-resources β_0 = Constant β_1, β_2= Beta Coefficients ε = error term	The multiple correlation coefficient R will show the moderation of the Job Demands-Resources to the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. R^2 will be used to show the percentage of variation of work commitment explained by emotional intelligence and job demands-resources. P-value were used to determine the significance of the relationship between the variables. F- Statistics to assess the robustness and overall significance of the regression model. t- statistics assess significance of the individual variables

No	Objective	Hypothesis	Analysis technique and Model estimation	Interpretation of results
3	To determine the mediation effect of occupation self-efficacy to the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in Kenyan telecommunication sector is mediated by occupational self-efficacy.	H_{O3} There is no significant mediation effect of occupational self-efficacy to the relationship between emotional intelligence and millennial work commitment in Kenya's telecommunication sector.	Kenny & Baron regression analysis Step 1: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon_1$ Step 2: $X_2 = \beta_0 + \beta_2 X_1 + \varepsilon_2$ Step 3: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_3 X_2 + \varepsilon_3$ Step 4: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_4 X_2 + \beta_5 X_2 + \varepsilon_3$ Y= work commitment of millennials X_1 = Emotional Intelligence X_2 = Occupational self-efficacy β_0= Constant $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3\ \beta_4\ \beta_5$ = Beta Coefficients ε = error term	The multiple correlation coefficient R will show the relationship between emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy and work commitment. R^2 will be used to show the percentage of variation of work commitment as explained by emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy. F- Statistics to assess the robustness and overall significance of the regression model. t- statistics assess significance of the individual variables
4	To determine the moderation-mediation effect of job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy to the relationship between EI and work commitment of millennial employees in Kenyan telecommunication sector.	H_{O4} There is no moderation-mediation effect of job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy to the relationship between EI and millennial work commitment in Kenya's telecommunication sector.	Regression analysis by Hayes process model 7: a. Mediation Path (effect of X_1 on X_3, moderated by X_2). $X_3 = a_0 + a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2 + a_3 X_1 . X_2 + \varepsilon_1$ b. Outcome path (effect of X_3 on Y, direct effect of X_1 on Y) $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_3 + bX_1 + \varepsilon_2$ c. Moderated-mediated equation (combination of both the moderated-mediation effect of the X_1 to X_3 and X_3 on Y	The multiple correlation coefficient R will show the relationship between emotional intelligence, job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy and work commitment. R^2 will be used to show the percentage of variation of work commitment as explained jointly by dimensions of emotional intelligence, job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy. F- Statistics (Analysis of variance) to assess the robustness and overall significance of the regression model. t- statistics assess significance of the individual variables

			$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (a_0 + a_1X_1 + a_2X_3) + a_3X_1.X_2 + b\,X_1 + \varepsilon_2$ Where: Y= work commitment of millennials $\beta 0$, a_0 = Constants β_1, a_1, a_2, a_3, b = Beta Coefficients X_1- Emotional intelligence X_2 – job demands-resources X_3 – Occupational self-efficacy ε = error term	

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the outcomes of the data analysis, findings, and discussions. The sections comprise the rate of response, descriptive and inferential statistics, as well as the study's limitations and challenges. The study analyzed the interactions among emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, occupational self-efficacy, and work commitment of millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunication sector. The analysis of the response results is discussed in section 4.1 whereas the results of the pilot study are discussed in section 4.2 which includes validity, reliability, and diagnostic tests including factor analysis. The results of the descriptive statistics for the length of service, age of the respondents, level of education, duration of service, emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, occupational self-efficacy, and work commitment are discussed in section 4.3. Moreover, the results of inferential statistics- correlation analysis and hypothesis testing- are discussed in section 4.4. Lastly, the limitations of the study and the summary of the chapter are discussed in sections 4.5 and 4.6 respectively.

4.1 Analysis of Response Rate

The response rate, a fundamental metric in gauging participant engagement, reflects the proportion of individuals who responded to the study compared to those who were invited to participate. It is thus a crucial aspect for shedding light on the pivotal role of ensuring the reliability and validity of research findings. A high response rate not only enhances the representativeness of the sample but also bolsters the generalizability of the study's outcomes to the target population. Conversely, a low response rate can introduce bias and compromise the external validity of the research outcomes. The study sought to reach at least 157 respondents through an online questionnaire administered to millennials working in the IGOs in Kenya's telecommunication sector. The results are as shown in table 6.

Table 6: Response Rate

Category	Administered Questionnaires	Response Rate
Returned	134	85.3.0%
Unreturned	23	14.7.0%
Total	**157**	**100%**

Table 6 shows that 134 respondents successfully filled out the online questionnaires translating to an 85.3 % response rate. The table presents data on the response rate for administered questionnaires. It is divided into two categories: returned and unreturned, indicating the number of questionnaires that were either returned or not returned by the participants. In the "Returned" category, 134 questionnaires were returned, representing 85.3% of the total questionnaires administered. This means that 85.3% of the participants responded to the survey by returning their completed questionnaires. In the unreturned category, 23 questionnaires were not returned, accounting for 14.7% of the total administered questionnaires. This implies that 14.7% of the participants did not respond to the survey by failing to return their questionnaires. The total row provides the sum of both returned and unreturned questionnaires, which equals 157, representing 100% of the total administered questionnaires. In summary, the table indicates a response rate of 85.3% for the administered questionnaires, with 14.7% of participants not responding by failing to return their questionnaires. (Holtom, Baruch, Aguinis & Ballinger, 2022) asserts that a response rate of above 70% on the individual or team levels of analysis is acceptable. Therefore 85.3% is considered very good for the study ensuring a robust dataset for analysis.

4.2 Results of the Pilot Study

Piloting serves as the crucial inaugural phase of assessing research instruments, undertaken to ascertain their practical utility before embarking on the main study. This preliminary investigation, conducted on a smaller scale known as a pilot study, plays a pivotal role in gauging the responsiveness of the instruments to the intended research objectives. In the current research endeavor, the questionnaire underwent rigorous piloting, involving a carefully randomly selected sample comprising 16 participants, strategically chosen to represent 10% of the study population. Through meticulous testing procedures, including

validity and reliability assessments as elaborated upon in subsequent sections, the pilot study provided invaluable insights into the efficacy and robustness of the research instruments, laying a solid foundation for the subsequent phases of the study. The analysis of the data of the pilot study showed that the instruments showed validity and reliability.

4.2.1 Test for Validity

Validity, as elucidated by Sürücü and Maslakçi (2020), encapsulates the essential capacity of study instruments to accurately measure the intended quality or behavior (Sürücü & Maslakçi, 2020). To ensure the accuracy and appropriateness of the questionnaire used in this study, validity tests were conducted. Content and construct validity were assessed to ensure the scales accurately measured the intended constructs. Content validity was evaluated by the supervisors who are subject matter experts. They were requested by the researcher to review the items in the questionnaire to assess whether they adequately covered the various dimensions of the construct being measured. The panel provided feedback on item clarity and relevance, and minor modifications were made to some items based on their suggestions.

Construct validity was assessed through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using IBM SPSS AMOS. The factor loadings obtained represent the strength of the relationship between the observed variables and the latent factors. The loadings range from -1 to 1, with higher absolute values indicating stronger relationships. The factor loadings for all the responses for the four variables were statistically significant and were greater than 0.50 hence showing good construct validity. In addition, criterion validity was examined by evaluating the correlation between the variables. Emotional intelligence was correlated with job demands-resources. A positive correlation of $r = 0.23$, $p < 0.05$ was found, indicating a weak relationship between the constructs. Moreover, emotional intelligence was also correlated with occupational self efficacy resulting in $r = 0.547$, $p < 0.05$, indicating a strong relationship between the two constructs. Lastly, emotional intelligence was correlated to work commitment resulting in $r = 0.16$, $p < 0.05$, indicating a weak relationship between the constructs. For construct validity, the study used Keyser Meyer Olkin (KMO) and test of Sphericity as used by (Koç & Yavuz, 2022). Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test is a measure of how the data is suited data is for factor analysis. The test

measures sampling adequacy for each variable in the model and for the complete model. The statistic is a measure of the proportion of variance among variables that might be common variance. The lower the proportion, the more suited your data is to factor analysis. The average response rate for each variable was used in the test. The rule of thumb is that if the KMO value is more than 0.6 and the p-value of sphericity is less than 0.05, then the statements are valid and measure what it purports to measure. Results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7: KMO and Bartlett's Test

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.731
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	114.957
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

The results in Table 7 indicate that the sampling adequacy for the four variables of the study – emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, occupational self-efficacy, and work commitment showed adequacy in the respective samples with all values showing at least 0.6 (KMO = 0.731, Chi-square (χ) = 114.957, df = 6 and sig. level = 0.000). While the KMO measure suggests the data is adequate for factor analysis, Bartlett's Test confirms that there are significant correlations between the variables, supporting the appropriateness of conducting factor analysis on this dataset.

4.2.2 Test for Reliability

To ensure the internal consistency of the scales used in the survey, Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each construct. Cronbach's alpha is a measure of scale reliability, assessing how well a set of items measures a single latent construct. It is widely used to assess the internal consistency of multi-item scales in social science research. A summary of the reliability coefficients is provided in Table 8.

Table 8: Reliability Test

Variable	Items	Cronbach Alpha	Remark
Emotional Intelligence	20	0.971	Reliable
Job Demands-Resources	27	0.933	Reliable
Occupational Self Efficacy	20	0.977	Reliable
Work Commitment	36	0.966	Reliable

The reliability analysis showed that the Cronbach's alpha for the emotional intelligence was 0.97, indicating good internal consistency among the 20 items. In addition, the job demands-resources had an Cronbach alpha of 0.93, which is acceptable for psychological constructs. Moreover, the occupational self-efficacy had a Cronbach alpha of 0.98 while the work commitment scale had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.97, reflecting excellent reliability. This robust coefficient underscores the reliability of the measurement instrument, affirming its efficacy in capturing the nuances of emotional intelligence with precision and consistency. Collectively, the strong reliability demonstrated by all four variables, as indicated by their respective Cronbach's Alpha coefficients, reaffirms the consistency and dependability of the measurement instruments utilized. These findings lend credence to the suitability of the instruments for accurately assessing the constructs under investigation, thereby bolstering the overall integrity of the study outcomes

4.3 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics serve as a fundamental tool in data analysis, offering researchers a comprehensive overview of key attributes within a dataset. By furnishing summaries of vital features such as mean, median, mode, measures of central tendency, variability, and distribution, descriptive statistics empower researchers to delve into the intricacies of their data, unveiling patterns, and pinpointing outliers or anomalies warranting closer scrutiny. Within this section, a detailed descriptive analysis is presented, meticulously scrutinizing

the data about emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, occupational self-efficacy, and work commitment among millennials engaged in Kenya's dynamic telecommunication sector. Through an exhaustive exploration of these variables, researchers gain invaluable insights into the nuanced characteristics and dynamics prevalent within the workforce, thereby facilitating a deeper understanding of the factors influencing employee behavior, performance, and organizational dynamics. By elucidating the central tendencies, dispersion, and distribution of each variable, this analysis offers a holistic perspective on the dataset, enabling researchers to discern prevailing trends, variations, and potential areas of concern. Moreover, by systematically unraveling the intricacies of the data, researchers are better equipped to identify underlying patterns and correlations, thereby paving the way for informed decision-making and targeted interventions aimed at enhancing organizational effectiveness and employee well-being within the telecommunication sector.

4.3.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Demographics serve as vital descriptors of a population, furnishing researchers with essential personal information about study participants. These demographic attributes are pivotal in assessing the representativeness and generalizability of the sample to broader populations. In the context of this study, demographic characteristics such as age, level of education, and years of tenure within their respective organizations were considered. These attributes offer valuable insights into the composition and dynamics of the sample, enabling researchers to gauge the extent to which the study participants mirror the broader population they represent. By scrutinizing demographic variables, researchers gain a nuanced understanding of the diverse backgrounds and experiences of study participants, thereby enhancing the interpretability and applicability of research findings. Moreover, tracking changes in demographic profiles over time facilitates a deeper comprehension of population dynamics, thereby informing the trajectory of future research endeavors and organizational interventions.

4.3.1.1 Age of Respondents

The data presented in Table 9 offers a breakdown of study participants across different age ranges, providing valuable insights into the demographic composition of the sample. The age group between 23 -26 years comprises the largest proportion of participants, with a frequency of 55 individuals, accounting for approximately 41% of the total sample. This is closely followed by the age group between 27 - 30 Years which included 29 participants, constituting approximately 21% of the total sample. The data shows that 22 individuals fell within the age bracket between 31-34 years representing around 16.4% of the total sample. Moreover, the age bracket between 35 – 38 years comprised 10 participants accounting for 7.5% of the sample. Lastly, the data indicates that 18 participants belonged to the age range between 39 – 43 years accounting for 13.4% of the total sample size. In summary, most participants fell within the younger age categories of 23 - 26 Years and 27 - 30 years, collectively representing over 60% of the total sample. Meanwhile, the older age categories, particularly 35 - 38 years and 39 - 43 years, comprise smaller proportions of the sample. This distribution sheds light on the age diversity within the study cohort, offering valuable insights for understanding the demographic makeup of the research population.

Table 9: Age of the Respondents

Category	Frequency	Percent
23 - 26 Years	55	41
27 – 30 Years	29	21
31 – 34 Years	22	16.4
35 – 38 Years	10	7.5
39 – 43 Years	18	13.4
Total	**134**	**100.0**

The study findings unveiled a diverse age distribution among participating millennials, with distinct proportions represented across various age categories. Notably, the age group of 23-26 years emerged as the largest segment, comprising 41% of the study participants, followed closely by individuals aged 27-30 years, constituting 21% of the sample. Furthermore, participants aged 31-34 years and 39-43 years accounted for 16.4% and

13.4% of the total sample, respectively. Conversely, the age range of 35-38 years exhibited the smallest proportion, with only 7.5% of participants falling within this category. These findings underscore the successful attainment of a representative sample spanning the targeted age spectrum of 23 to 43 years, effectively capturing the diverse age demographics prevalent among millennials. By encompassing a broad age range, the study ensures inclusivity and comprehensiveness in its examination of millennial experiences and perspectives within the telecommunication sector. Overall, the study's ability to procure a well-balanced and representative sample across various age groups not only enhances the robustness and reliability of its findings but also facilitates a comprehensive understanding of the dynamics shaping the millennial workforce in Kenya's telecommunication industry.

4.3.1.2 Level of Education

Table 10 presents the distribution of participants based on their highest level of educational attainment, reflecting the diverse educational backgrounds within the study population. Here's an interpretation. The holders of the post-secondary certificate category represent participants with education beyond high school but below the level of a diploma or degree. Participants with diploma certificates have completed a diploma program, typically indicating a level of specialized training beyond secondary education. The category of participants with higher national diplomas have completed a higher-level diploma program, often associated with technical or vocational education. Moreover, participants with bachelor's degrees have attained an undergraduate level of education typically obtained from a university. in addition, the postgraduate diploma category consists of participants who have completed specialized diploma programs following their bachelor's degree, providing advanced training in a specific field. Participants with a master’s degree have obtained a graduate-level qualification typically earned after completing a bachelor's degree. Lastly, participants with a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) have achieved the highest level of academic qualification, indicating the completion of doctoral studies and original research culminating in a Ph.D. degree. In categorizing participants according to their highest level of educational attainment, Table 10 offers valuable insights into the educational diversity within the study population. This breakdown enables researchers to assess the breadth and depth of participants' educational backgrounds, providing a

comprehensive understanding of the educational landscape within the telecommunication sector in Kenya.

Table 10: Level of Education of the Respondents

Demographic Profiles	Frequency	Percent
Post-Secondary Certificate	2	1.5
Diploma	6	6.0
Higher National Diploma	1	0.7
Bachelor's Degree	100	74.6
Postgraduate Diploma	3	2.2
Master's Degree	18	13.4
Doctorate or PhD	2	1.5
Total	**134**	**100.0**

Table 10 provides an insightful breakdown of the educational attainment levels among the study participants, allowing for a nuanced analysis of the educational landscape within the telecommunication sector in Kenya. The results show that the post-secondary certificate comprises individuals who have completed some form of post-secondary education or vocational training beyond high school, yet below the level of a diploma or degree. Representing a minor proportion of the sample at 1.5%, these participants likely bring specialized skills or certifications to the workforce, contributing to the diversity of expertise within the industry.

In addition, participants with diploma certificates constitute a modest percentage of the sample, comprising 6.0% of the total. These individuals have completed specialized training programs, typically in technical or vocational fields, equipping them with practical skills and knowledge relevant to their roles within the telecommunication sector. Moreover, participants in the higher national diploma category represent a minimal proportion of the sample, accounting for 0.7%. Participants with higher national diplomas bring advanced technical expertise and specialized training to the workforce, contributing to the depth of skills and competencies within the industry. Participants holding bachelor's degrees form the largest segment of the sample, comprising a significant proportion at 74.6%. These individuals have obtained undergraduate-level qualifications from colleges or universities, bringing a broad academic foundation and theoretical understanding to their

roles within the telecommunication sector. Moreover, participants with postgraduate diplomas represent a smaller subset of the sample, constituting 2.2%. These individuals have pursued advanced training beyond the undergraduate level, focusing on specialized areas of study to enhance their skills and career prospects within the telecommunication industry.

Another notable segment of the sample includes individuals with master's degrees, comprising 13.4%. These participants have attained graduate-level qualifications, signifying a high level of expertise and specialization within their respective fields. Participants holding doctorate or Ph.D. degrees represent a minor proportion of the sample, accounting for 1.5%. These individuals have achieved the highest level of academic qualification, indicating expertise in research and advanced knowledge in their chosen field. In summary, the data illustrates a diverse educational landscape within the telecommunication sector, with participants possessing varying levels of educational attainment, from post-secondary certificates to doctoral degrees. This diversity of educational backgrounds enriches the skillset and expertise within the workforce, contributing to innovation, problem-solving, and overall industry advancement.

Higher education could be associated with better emotional intelligence because education typically enhances self-awareness, empathy, and emotional regulation skills. Therefore, it could be hypothesized that respondents with higher levels of education may display higher emotional intelligence, which in turn influences their work commitment. In addition, employees with higher levels of education might perceive job demands differently and have more access to job resources, such as autonomy or decision-making power. This may influence how they balance job demands and resources, affecting their work commitment. Moreover, higher education levels are often linked to greater self-efficacy due to increased knowledge, skills, and confidence in performing tasks. Those with higher education may feel more capable in their roles, which could enhance their work commitment. Lastly, educational attainment may affect work commitment directly, as more educated employees might have stronger professional goals, career aspirations, and a greater sense of obligation or attachment to their organization.

4.3.1.3 Duration of Service

Table 11 presents the distribution of study participants based on the duration of their employment within their respective organizations. This breakdown allows for an assessment of participants' accumulated experience in the field, providing insights into the workforce dynamics within the telecommunication sector in Kenya. The category between 0 – 3 years includes participants who are relatively new to their roles, with tenure ranging from 0 to 3 years. These individuals are in the early stages of their careers within the telecommunication industry, bringing fresh perspectives and enthusiasm to their roles. Participants falling within the 4 – 6 years category have accumulated moderate experience in the field, with tenure spanning from 4 to 6 years. They have gained a foothold in their respective roles and may have started to take on additional responsibilities or pursue career advancement opportunities within their organizations. The category between 7 - 9 years comprised individuals with considerable experience in the telecommunication sector, with employment duration ranging from 7 to 9 years. They have likely established themselves as seasoned professionals within their organizations, demonstrating a deep understanding of industry trends and best practices. Participants in the more than 9 years category represent the most experienced segment of the sample, with tenure exceeding 9 years.

The category between 7 - 9 years comprised individuals with considerable experience in the telecommunication sector, with employment duration ranging from 7 to 9 years. They have likely established themselves as seasoned professionals within their organizations, demonstrating a deep understanding of industry trends and best practices. Participants in the more than 9 years category represent the most experienced segment of the sample, with tenure exceeding 9 years. These individuals bring extensive knowledge and expertise to their roles, serving as valuable resources within their organizations and contributing to the overall advancement and success of the telecommunication sector. By categorizing participants based on the duration of their employment, Table 11 provides a comprehensive overview of workforce dynamics, highlighting the distribution of experience levels within the telecommunication industry. This breakdown enables researchers to assess the depth and breadth of participants' professional backgrounds, facilitating a deeper understanding of industry trends, career trajectories, and organizational dynamics. Additionally,

analyzing the frequency of responses across different tenure ranges offers valuable insights into workforce retention, career progression, and talent management strategies within the sector.

Table 11: Length of Employment

Length of Employment	Frequency	Percent
0 - 3 years	86	64.2
4 - 6 years	13	9.7
7 - 9 Years	14	10.4
More than 9 years	21	15.7
Total	**134**	**100.0**

Table 11 provides a comprehensive breakdown of study participants based on the duration of their employment within their respective organizations, offering valuable insights into the accumulated experience of the workforce in the telecommunication sector. In addition, the data reveals that the majority of the respondents had 0 - 3 years of service in the respective International Gateway Operators, representing 86%, followed by those with more than 9 years of length of employment being 21%. Those between 7 and 9 years of service were 14% while those who had served their organizations between 4 – 6 years were 13%. This data reveals a varied allocation of employees across different lengths of employment, with the majority being relatively new to the organizations. However, there are also significant proportions of employees who have been with the organizations for moderate to extended periods, reflecting a mix of experience levels and potential for stability and culture.

The data paints a picture of a workforce with a predominant presence of relatively new employees, with 86% having 0 - 3 years of service in the respective IGOs. This influx of new talent suggests a dynamic environment, potentially influenced by factors such as recent recruitment drives, organizational expansion, or turnover rates. Despite the high proportion of new employees, the data also reveals a significant segment of the workforce with moderate to extensive lengths of service. Approximately 21% of respondents have been with the organizations for more than 9 years, indicating a stable core of experienced

employees who have likely developed deep institutional knowledge and expertise over time.

Moreover, 14% of respondents have served between 7 and 9 years, while 13% have served between 4 and 6 years, reflecting a substantial portion of employees with a mid-range tenure. This diversity in experience levels suggests a healthy mix of both seasoned veterans and employees who have gained considerable experience but may still be evolving in their roles. The presence of employees with varying lengths of service presents both opportunities and challenges for the IGOs. New employees bring fresh perspectives, energy, and potentially innovative ideas to the table, invigorating the organizational culture and contributing to its adaptability. On the other hand, longer-tenured employees offer stability,expertise, institutional knowledge and memory, and mentorship opportunities, which are invaluable for maintaining continuity and preserving organizational knowledge.

To capitalize on this diversity and foster a cohesive and productive work environment, IGOs may consider implementing strategies such as mentorship programs, cross-generational knowledge-sharing initiatives, and leadership development opportunities. By leveraging the strengths of both new and experienced employees, IGOs can enhance organizational resilience, innovation, and overall effectiveness in pursuing their missions and objectives. Long-serving employees may have had more opportunities to develop emotional intelligence through experience, exposure to various challenges, and working with diverse teams. In addition, they are also likely to understand their job demands better while having access to more resources such as mentorship, professional networks, and organizational knowledge, which can help them cope with job stressors and maintain high levels of commitment.

Long-serving employees may have had more opportunities to develop emotional intelligence through experience, exposure to various challenges, and working with diverse teams. In addition, they are also likely to understand their job demands better while having access to more resources such as mentorship, professional networks, and organizational knowledge, which can help them cope with job stressors and maintain high levels of commitment. Moreover, employees with longer tenure tend to have greater occupational

self-efficacy, as they have accumulated more skills, knowledge, and experience with time. This enhanced self-efficacy may lead to greater work commitment. Lastly, a longer duration of service is often associated with increased work commitment due to higher organizational attachment, stronger relationships, and greater investment in the company's success.

4.3.1.4 Terms of Employment

Table 12 presents the distribution of study participants based on their terms of employment within Kenya's telecommunication sector. This breakdown provides insights into the contractual arrangements and employment status prevalent among millennials working in this industry. There are three categories of these contractual categories: permanent and pensionable, contractual terms, and casual engagements. First, the permanent and pensionable category includes participants who hold permanent positions within their organizations and are entitled to pension benefits. Permanent and pensionable employment typically offers long-term stability and security, with individuals enjoying job permanence and retirement benefits. Participants falling within this category are likely to constitute a significant portion of the workforce, reflecting the traditional employment model prevalent in many sectors. Secondly, those on contractual terms who are engaged under contractual terms likely hold employment contracts with specified durations or terms. Contractual employment arrangements offer flexibility for both employers and employees, allowing for short-term or project-based engagements. Individuals in this category may include consultants, project managers, or specialists hired on a contractual basis to fulfill specific organizational needs. The proportion of participants in this category may vary depending on organizational requirements and industry trends.

Individuals in this category may include consultants, project managers, or specialists hired on a contractual basis to fulfill specific organizational needs. The proportion of participants in this category may vary depending on organizational requirements and industry trends. Lastly, those in casual engagements comprise participants engaged in temporary or part-time positions within the telecommunication sector. Casual employment arrangements are characterized by short-term engagements with limited benefits and job security.

Participants in this category may include interns, seasonal workers, or individuals engaged on an ad-hoc basis to meet fluctuating work demands. While casual engagements offer flexibility, they may lack the stability and benefits associated with permanent or contractual employment. In analyzing the distribution of participants across different terms of employment, Table 12 offers insights into the employment landscape within Kenya's telecommunication sector. This breakdown enables researchers to assess the prevalence of different employment arrangements and understand the implications for workforce management, organizational culture, and employee well-being. Additionally, understanding the terms of employment among millennials in the telecommunication sector informs discussions on labor practices, regulatory frameworks, and strategies for talent acquisition and retention within the industry.

Table 12: Terms of Employment

Employment Terms	Frequency	Percent
Permanent and Pensionable	65	48.5
Contract	59	44.0
Casual	10	7.5

Table 12 shows that the majority of the participants were engaged as permanent and pensionable staff (48.5%) followed closely by those on contractual terms (44%) and the least were engaged as casual workers (7.5%). The data provides a comprehensive breakdown of study participants based on their terms of employment within Kenya's telecommunication sector. Most participants, accounting for 48.5% of the total sample, are employed under permanent and pensionable terms. This indicates a significant portion of the workforce enjoying job permanence and retirement benefits, reflecting a traditional employment model prevalent in many sectors. Individuals in this category likely have long-term stability and security in their roles, with the assurance of pension benefits upon retirement. Participants categorized under contract terms represent a substantial proportion of the sample, comprising 44.0%. Contractual employment arrangements offer flexibility for both employers and employees, allowing for short-term or project-based engagements. Individuals in this category may include consultants, project managers, or specialists hired on a contractual basis to fulfill specific organizational needs. The prevalence of contractual

employment suggests a dynamic and adaptable workforce within the telecommunication sector, capable of responding to changing business demands. A smaller subset of participants, constituting 7.5% of the total sample, are engaged in casual employment within the telecommunication sector. Casual engagements typically involve temporary or part-time positions with limited benefits and job security. Individuals in this category may include interns, seasonal workers, or individuals engaged on an ad-hoc basis to meet fluctuating work demands. While casual engagements offer flexibility, they may lack the stability and benefits associated with permanent or contractual employment.

Casual engagements typically involve temporary or part-time positions with limited benefits and job security. Individuals in this category may include interns, seasonal workers, or individuals engaged on an ad-hoc basis to meet fluctuating work demands. While casual engagements offer flexibility, they may lack the stability and benefits associated with permanent or contractual employment. Overall, the data illustrates a diverse range of employment terms prevalent among millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector. By analyzing the distribution of participants across different employment categories, researchers gain insights into the workforce dynamics, organizational practices, and regulatory frameworks shaping employment arrangements within the industry. Additionally, understanding the prevalence of different employment terms informs discussions on labor practices, employee rights, and strategies for talent management and retention within the sector.

Correlations were done to verify if the terms of employment influenced the work commitment of the millennials engaged in Kenya’s telecommunication sector. The outcome of the study showed that a substantial proportion of the respondents were engaged as permanent and pensionable staff (48.5%) suggesting that this type of employment is prevalent within the sector. These permanent positions typically offer job security, retirement benefits, and other perks, which may attract employees seeking stability and long-term career prospects. Moreover, the dominance of permanent staff could indicate a focus on building a core workforce with a commitment to the organization’s long-term goals. In addition, a sizeable percentage of respondents under contractual terms (44.0%) highlights the importance of flexible employment arrangements within the sector. These

contractual positions offer flexibility for both employers and employees allowing for short-term projects, specialized expertise, and cost-effective staffing solutions. The high proportion of contractual staff may reflect the sector's need for specialized skills, temporary projects, or fluctuations in demand.

The study also showed that there is a relatively low representation of casual workers in the sector suggesting a short-term or irregular employment arrangements are less common within the sector. Casual work engagements are often devoid of benefits and stability associated with permanent and contractual positions which may make them less facourable to employees. The research findings underscore the importance of recognizing and accommodating the diversity of employment arrangements within the sector to effectively manage and engage the workforce. Moreover, understanding these variations in employment status is crucial for workforce planning, talent management, and organizational strategy development. Organizations may also need to tailor their recruitment, retention, and engagement strategies to accommodate the different needs and preferences of employees across various employment statuses.

Permanent employees may have more opportunities to develop and apply emotional intelligence due to job stability and longer exposure to organizational culture and interactions. On the other hand, contract and casual employees may face more uncertainty and stress, which could impact their emotional intelligence levels and how they use it in the workplace. In addition, permanent employees may have more access to job resources such as training, support, and career development opportunities, and contract and casual employees may experience fewer resources and higher job demands, affecting their ability to balance these factors and maintain work commitment. Moreover, permanent employees might develop higher occupational self-efficacy due to greater job security, opportunities for skill development, and feedback from supervisors. Contract or casual workers might have fewer opportunities to build self-efficacy, affecting their work commitment. The terms of employment could directly influence work commitment, as permanent employees are likely to feel more attached and invested in the organization compared to contract or casual workers, who may experience lower organizational commitment due to the temporary nature of their jobs.

Moreover, permanent employees might develop higher occupational self-efficacy due to greater job security, opportunities for skill development, and feedback from supervisors. Contract or casual workers might have fewer opportunities to build self-efficacy, affecting their work commitment. The terms of employment could directly influence work commitment, as permanent employees are likely to feel more attached and invested in the organization compared to contract or casual workers, who may experience lower organizational commitment due to the temporary nature of their jobs.

4.3.2 Descriptive Statistics for Emotional Intelligence

The emotional intelligence of the millennials working in the telecommunication sector was the independent variable for the study. The study measured four dimensions of emotional intelligence: perceiving emotion**,** understanding emotion**,** utilizing/facilitating emotion**,** and managing emotion, using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree). The descriptive statistics for the components are represented in Table 13.

Table 13: Descriptive Statistics for Emotional Intelligence

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Perceiving Emotion	134	4.18	.686
Understanding Emotion	134	4.00	.767
Utilizing/facilitating Emotion	134	3.83	.853
Managing Emotion	134	4.03	.690

The results in Table 13 indicate that respondents generally scored high across all dimensions of emotional intelligence. The average score of 4.18 for perceiving emotion is quite high, indicating that respondents tend to agree (close to strongly agree) with statements related to perceiving emotion. This suggests they feel confident in their ability to perceive emotions in themselves or others. a standard deviation of 0.686 is relatively low, indicating that responses are not widely spread out that is, most respondents answered similarly. The second component of emotional intelligence, understanding emotion had a mean of 4.0. This means that the respondents generally agree that they understand emotions, indicating a positive perception of their ability to comprehend emotional experiences. The standard deviation of 0.767 suggests a moderate spread in responses,

meaning that there is some variability in how people rated their understanding of emotion, though the consensus is still quite positive.

For the third component of EI, utilizing/facilitating emotion, a mean of 3.83 indicates that, on average, respondents agree but not as strongly as with the first two variables. This suggests that utilizing or facilitating emotion is seen as slightly more challenging for respondents compared to perceiving or understanding emotion. In addition, a standard deviation of 0.853 is higher than for other variables, indicating greater variability in responses. Some respondents may find it easier to utilize emotions, while others might find it more difficult. Lastly for managing emotions, a mean of 4.03 suggests that respondents tend to agree that they are good at managing emotions. This reflects a generally positive perception of their emotional regulation skills. A standard deviation of 0.69 indicates that most respondents had similar views on their ability to manage emotions, with limited variability in responses.

4.3.3 Descriptive Statistics for Job Demand-Resources

Job demands-resources, a framework that suggests that every job involves certain demands and resources, and the balance between these factors influences employee well-being, motivation, and performance was the moderating variable for the study. The construct was operationalized in two categories: job demands and job resources. Table 14 presents the descriptive statistics for the two dimensions of job demands-resources: Job Demands and Job Resources, as measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree).

Table 14: Descriptive Statistics for Job Demands-Resources

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Job Demands	134	2.99	0.665
Job resources	134	3.94	0.527

The results in Table 14 indicate the perception of the respondents on their job demands and resources. A mean of 2.99 for job demands is close to the neutral point on a 5-point Likert scale, suggesting that average respondents perceive job demands as neither too high nor

too low. They may feel that the demands placed on them are moderate. In addition, a standard deviation of 0.665 indicates some variability in responses, meaning that some respondents may experience higher or lower job demands. Still, overall, there isn't extreme variation in the perception of job demands. On the other hand, job resources had a mean of 3.94. This mean score is very close to the "Agree" category on the Likert scale, indicating that respondents generally perceive that they have adequate resources available to perform their jobs effectively. The standard deviation of 0.527 is relatively low, indicating that respondents have consistent views about the availability of job resources.

4.3.4 Descriptive Statistics for Occupational Self-Efficacy

In the study, occupational self-efficacy served as the mediating variable, playing a crucial role in understanding the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment levels among participants in Kenya's telecommunication sector. Occupational self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief in their ability to achieve desired levels of performance in their work roles. Table 15 presents the descriptive statistics for the four dimensions of occupational self-efficacy**:** confidence**,** command**,** adaptability**,** and positive attitude, as measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree).

Table 15: Descriptive Statistics for Occupational Self-Efficacy

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Confidence	134	4.33	.546
Command	134	4.24	.592
Adaptability	134	4.29	.582
Positive Attitude	134	4.40	.569

The results in Table 15 show that respondents perceive themselves to have high levels of occupational self-efficacy across all dimensions. The first component of occupational self-efficacy is confidence. A mean of 4.33 for confidence indicates that respondents strongly agree they are confident in their abilities at work. This high mean suggests that in terms of confidence, occupational self-efficacy is perceived positively. In addition, a standard deviation of 0.546 shows that responses were fairly consistent, with most respondents reporting high confidence in their work abilities. The second component of occupational self-efficacy, command, had a mean of 4.24 indicating that they have command or control

over their work-related tasks. This reflects strong feelings of capability and authority in job performance. Command had a standard deviation of 0.592 which is slightly higher, indicating more variability in how respondents perceive their command or control in work situations, however, the general perception is still positive.

The third component of occupational self-efficacy, adaptability, had a mean of 4.29 suggesting that the respondents believe they are adaptable at work, agreeing that they can adjust to changing demands or circumstances. A standard deviation of 0.582 shows a moderate spread in responses, but most of the respondents agree that they are flexible and can handle changes well. Positive attitude is the fourth component of occupational self-efficacy. A mean of 4.4 for the positive attitude indicates that respondents strongly agree that they maintain a positive attitude toward their work, reflecting a high level of optimism and constructive outlook. The standard deviation of 0.569 indicates consistency in responses, suggesting that most respondents share a positive view of their work.

4.3.5 Descriptive Statistics for Work Commitment

In the study, work commitment served as the dependent variable, representing a fundamental aspect of employee behavior and organizational psychology within Kenya's telecommunication sector. Work commitment is defined as the propensity and dedication to persist in a chosen course of action related to one's job or organizational role. This construct was operationalized using five key components based on Morrow's work commitment model: job involvement, affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment, career commitment, and protestant work ethic (Cohen, 1999). Table 16 shows the descriptive statistics for the five dimensions of work commitment as measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree).

Table 16: Descriptive Statistics for Work Commitment

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Job Involvement	134	2.97	0.864
Affective Organizational commitment	134	3.15	.900

Continuance Organizational Commitment	134	3.15	.900
Career Commitment	134	3.57	.807
Protestant Work Ethic	134	3.51	.631

Table 16 shows the mean and standard deviation of the five components of Morrow's work commitment model. A mean of 2.97 for job involvement is close to neutral on a 5-point Likert scale, suggesting that respondents, on average, feel only moderately involved in their jobs. It reflects neither high nor low job involvement. A relatively large standard deviation of 0.864 indicates significant variability in responses. Some respondents might feel highly involved in their jobs, while others might not be as engaged. A mean of 3.15 for affective organizational commitment suggests that respondents are slightly positive about their emotional attachment or identification with their organization, reflecting some level of loyalty and connection. The standard deviation of 0.900 indicates a wide range of responses, suggesting that some respondents feel more emotionally committed to their organization than others.

The same mean of 3.15 for continuance commitment suggests that respondents feel moderately committed to staying with their organization due to the perceived costs of leaving. This type of commitment reflects practical or financial reasons rather than emotional attachment. The standard deviation of 0.900 shows that perceptions of continuance commitment vary widely, with some respondents feeling more tied to their organization than others. A mean of 3.57 for career commitment indicates that respondents tend to agree that they are committed to their career, showing a relatively strong sense of career loyalty and involvement. The standard deviation of 0.807 suggests moderate variability in responses, with most respondents feeling positive about their career commitment, but some variation in the strength of that commitment.

Moreover, a mean of 3.57 for career commitment indicates that respondents tend to agree that they are committed to their career, showing a relatively strong sense of career loyalty and involvement. The standard deviation of 0.807 suggests moderate variability in responses, with most respondents feeling positive about their career commitment, but some variation in the strength of that commitment. A mean of 3.51 reflects that respondents

generally agree with values associated with the Protestant Work Ethic, such as hard work, responsibility, and diligenceA mean of 3.51 reflects that respondents generally agree with values associated with the Protestant Work Ethic, such as hard work, responsibility, and diligence. A standard deviation of 0.631 indicates that most respondents share fairly similar views on this ethic, with a moderate level of agreement.

4.4 Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics are the foundation of data analysis, enabling researchers to draw meaningful conclusions and make informed decisions based on sample data that extend to broader populations or phenomena. Inferential statistics are useful in drawing meaningful conclusions from data, testing hypotheses, and making predictions while informing decision-making processes in research. It provides a rigorous and systematic framework for analyzing and interpreting data, thereby enhancing the credibility and reliability of research findings. In addition, inferential statistics allow researchers to generalize about a population based on data collected from a sample. Inferential statistics also provide tools for hypothesis testing about relationships, differences, or effects within a population. This is achieved by comparing sample data to theoretical distributions thereby evaluating whether the observed differences or effects are statistically significant. Inferential statistics also enable researchers to develop predictive models by identifying patterns and relationships in data. These models can be utilized to make forecasts about future outcomes based on observed data (Kothari, 2009).

Inferential statistics enable researchers to develop predictive models by identifying patterns and relationships in data. By analyzing historical data and identifying predictive variables, researchers can construct models that forecast future outcomes based on observed data, thereby aiding decision-making processes and strategic planning.In addition, inferential statistics allow researchers to generalize about a population based on data collected from a sample. Inferential statistics also provide tools for hypothesis testing about relationships, differences, or effects within a population. This is achieved by comparing sample data to theoretical distributions thereby evaluating whether the observed differences or effects are statistically significant. Inferential statistics also enable researchers to develop predictive

models by identifying patterns and relationships in data. Inferential statistics form the cornerstone of data analysis, allowing researchers to derive meaningful insights and conclusions from sample data that can be generalized to broader populations or phenomena. By employing inferential techniques, researchers can extrapolate findings from a subset of data to make inferences about the larger population. Inferential statistics facilitate the process of drawing meaningful conclusions from data by testing hypotheses, making predictions, and informing decision-making processes in research. Through rigorous analysis and interpretation of sample data, researchers can gain insights into underlying patterns, relationships, and trends within the population. Inferential statistics provide a systematic framework for analyzing and interpreting data, thereby enhancing the credibility and reliability of research findings. By employing standardized statistical methods, researchers can ensure the validity and robustness of their analyses, leading to more reliable conclusions. One of the key functions of inferential statistics is to enable researchers to generalize findings from sample data to the broader population. By selecting representative samples and applying inferential techniques, researchers can make inferences about population parameters with a certain degree of confidence (Saunders; Lewis; Thornhill., 2012).

In addition, Inferential statistics offer tools for hypothesis testing, allowing researchers to assess the significance of observed differences or effects within a population. By comparing sample data to theoretical distributions and establishing confidence intervals, researchers can evaluate whether observed results are statistically significant and draw conclusions accordingly. Inferential statistics enable researchers to develop predictive models by identifying patterns and relationships in data. By analyzing historical data and identifying predictive variables, researchers can construct models that forecast future outcomes based on observed data, thereby aiding decision-making processes and strategic planning. In summary, inferential statistics play a crucial role in research by providing a systematic framework for analyzing data, drawing meaningful conclusions, and making informed decisions. By employing inferential techniques, researchers can unlock valuable insights into complex phenomena, inform evidence-based practices, and drive innovation

in various fields of study. Different aspects of inferential statistics are described in the subsequent sections (Kothari, 2009).

4.4.1 Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was conducted to ascertain the relationships between the variables: emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, occupational self-efficacy, and work commitment of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector. The extent of dependence between a pair of variables was calculated using Pearson's correlation coefficient r at a 95% level of confidence (at a significance level α of 0.05). The Pearson correlation coefficient is a statistical measure of the strength of the linear relationship between two continuous variables. It ranges from -1 to 1. Negative 1 indicates a perfect negative linear relationship whereas a positive 1 value of r indicates a positive linear relationship and 0 implies no linear relationship between the variables of interest. A Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.8 between two variables indicates a strong positive linear relationship, meaning that as one variable increases, the other tends to increase as well. Conversely, a coefficient of -0.6 suggests a strong negative linear relationship, indicating that as one variable increases, the other tends to decrease. However, it's important to note that correlation does not imply causation, and other factors may influence the relationship between variables.

A Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to assess the relationship between emotional Intelligence and work commitment among the respondents (N = 134). Table 17 depicts the results of the correlation analysis of the variables.

Table 17: Correlations Matrix

Correlations

		Emotional Intelligence	Work Commitment
Emotional Intelligence	Pearson Correlation	1	.160
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.045
	N	134	134
Work Commitment	Pearson Correlation	.160	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.045	
	N	134	134

Table 17 reveal the correlation between the independent variable, emotional intelligence and the dependent variable, work commitment. the results show a weak positive correlation between emotional intelligence and work commitment ($r = 0.16$, $p = 0.045<0.05$). This indicates that individuals with higher emotional intelligence tend to have slightly higher levels of work commitment. The correlation was statistically significant at the 0.05 level, suggesting that the observed relationship is unlikely to be due to chance.

4.4.2 Diagnostic Tests

Diagnostic tests play a crucial role in research by providing objective measures to assess and evaluate specific characteristics of interest. These tests are designed to identify the presence or absence of a particular attribute within a study population. Diagnostic tests enable researchers to classify subjects into different categories based on specific criteria, facilitating comparisons and analyses within and between categories. Overall, the use of diagnostic tests in research enhances the rigor, accuracy, and validity of scientific inquiry, ultimately leading to a deeper understanding of complex phenomena and the development of effective interventions and solutions.The value of diagnostic tests lies in their ability to provide researchers with reliable and valid data, thus supporting the formulation of hypotheses, the validation of theories, and the interpretation of research findings.

Additionally, diagnostic tests enable researchers to classify subjects into different categories based on specific criteria, facilitating comparisons and analyses within and between categories. Overall, the use of diagnostic tests in research enhances the rigor, accuracy, and validity of scientific inquiry, ultimately leading to a deeper understanding of complex phenomena and the development of effective interventions and solutions. The study conducted various diagnostic tests: multicollinearity, heteroscedasticity, linearity, and normality to test whether the measures used are valid and reliable. The tests can also help identify errors, outliers, or inconsistencies in the data while assessing the robustness and generalizability of the findings. Each test is discussed in subsequent sections.

4.4.2.1 Test of Multicollinearity

In the current study, multicollinearity was tested using the variance inflation factor (VIF) and degree of tolerance among the variables. Tolerance is a measure of multicollinearity in regression analysis that indicates the proportion of variance in an independent variable that is not predictable from other independent variables. A tolerance value close to 1 indicates low multicollinearity, meaning that the variable is relatively independent of the other variables in the model. On the other hand, a high tolerance value indicates that the variable contributes unique information to the regression model and is not redundant with other variables. The findings of the multicollinearity test for the study are presented in Table 18.

Table 18: Test of Multicollinearity

Variable	Tolerance	VIF
Emotional Intelligence	0.7	1.428
Job Demands-Resources	0.849	1.178
Occupational Self Efficacy	0.628	1.592

Dependent Variable: Work Commitment

Table 18 shows the tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) values for independent variables in the regression analysis, with the dependent variable being work commitment. While emotional intelligence had a tolerance degree of 0.7 and a variance inflation factor of 1.428, job demands-resources had a tolerance value of 0.849 and a variance inflation factor of 1.178. Occupational self-efficacy on the other hand, had a tolerance value of 0.628 and a variance inflation factor of 1.592. The tolerance and VIF values support the validity of the regression model and provide confidence in interpreting the relationships between the independent variables (emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and occupational self-efficacy) and work commitment. The tolerance value of 0.7 indicates that emotional intelligence explains approximately 70% of the variation in work commitment not explained by the other independent variables.

The tolerance and VIF values support the validity of the regression model and provide confidence in interpreting the relationships between the independent variables (emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and occupational self-efficacy) and work commitment. The tolerance value of 0.7 indicates that emotional intelligence explains approximately 70% of the variation in work commitment not explained by the other independent variables. The VIF of 1.428 suggests that there is minimal multicollinearity between EI and the other independent variables, as the VIF is close to 1. This indicates that emotional intelligence contributes unique information to the regression model without redundancy. In addition, the tolerance value of 0.849 indicates that job demands-resources explain approximately 84.9% of the variation in work commitment not explained by the other independent variables. The VIF of 1.178 suggests low multicollinearity between job demands-resources and the other independent variables, indicating that it also contributes unique information to the regression model.

Moreover, the tolerance value of 0.628 indicates that occupational self-efficacy explains approximately 62.8% of the variation in work commitment not explained by the other independent variables. The VIF of 1.592 suggests low multicollinearity between occupational self-efficacy and the other independent variables, indicating that it also contributes unique information to the regression model. Based on the tolerance and VIF values, there is no evidence of multicollinearity among the independent variables in the regression model. The tolerance values are above the commonly accepted threshold of 0.1, and the VIF values are below the threshold of 10. This indicates that each independent variable makes a unique contribution to explaining the variation in work commitment without being excessively influenced by collinearity with other variables. The absence of multicollinearity is a positive indicator for the validity of the regression analysis, suggesting that the relationships between the independent variables and work commitment can be reliably interpreted without concern for inflated standard errors or biased coefficient estimates due to multicollinearity.

4.4.2.2 Test of Heteroscedasticity

Heteroscedasticity refers to the situation where the variability of the residuals from a regression model differs across the levels of the independent variables. In a regression analysis, the assumption of constant variance of residuals (homoscedasticity) is critical for the validity of statistical inferences. When heteroscedasticity is present, it can lead to inefficient and biased estimates of the regression coefficients, and standard errors may be underestimated or overestimated. To assess the presence of heteroscedasticity in the regression analysis, scatterplots were employed to visually inspect the relationship between the residuals and the predicted values.

In addition, when heteroscedasticity is present, it can lead to inefficient and biased estimates of the regression coefficients, and standard errors may be underestimated or overestimated. To assess the presence of heteroscedasticity in the regression analysis, scatterplots were employed to visually inspect the relationship between the residuals and the predicted values.As depicted in Figure 2, scatterplots were generated for each independent variable against the residuals. The scatterplots revealed noticeable patterns, particularly in the scatterplot of residuals against the predicted values. In addition to visual inspection of the scatter plots, Breusch-Pagan/Cook-Weisberg test was also used and the results are represented in Table 18. The latter test involves regressing the squared residuals from the original regression model on the independent variables. The hypothesis was;

H_0: Data is not Homoscedastic.

H_1: Data is Homoscedastic.

If the p-value is less than 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected indicating the presence of heteroscedasticity. Results are presented in figure 2 and table 18.

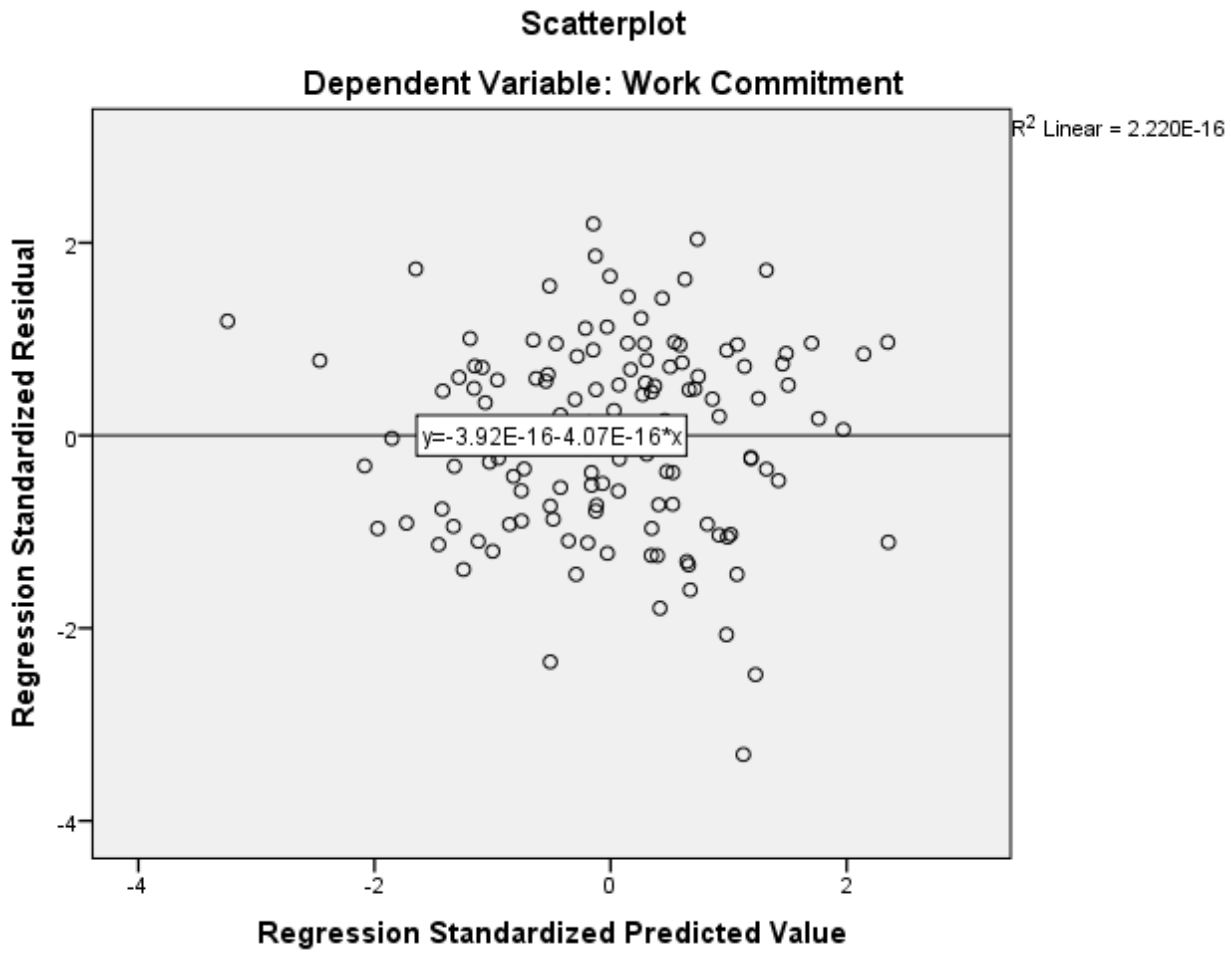


Figure 2: Test for Heteroscedasticity using Scatterplot.

Table 19: Test of Heteroscedasticity

ANOVA[a]						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.442	3	.481	3.188	.026[b]
	Residual	19.603	130	.151		
	Total	21.045	133			

a. Dependent Variable: sq_resid

b. Predictors: (Constant), Occupational Self Efficacy, Job Demands-Resources, Emotional Intelligence

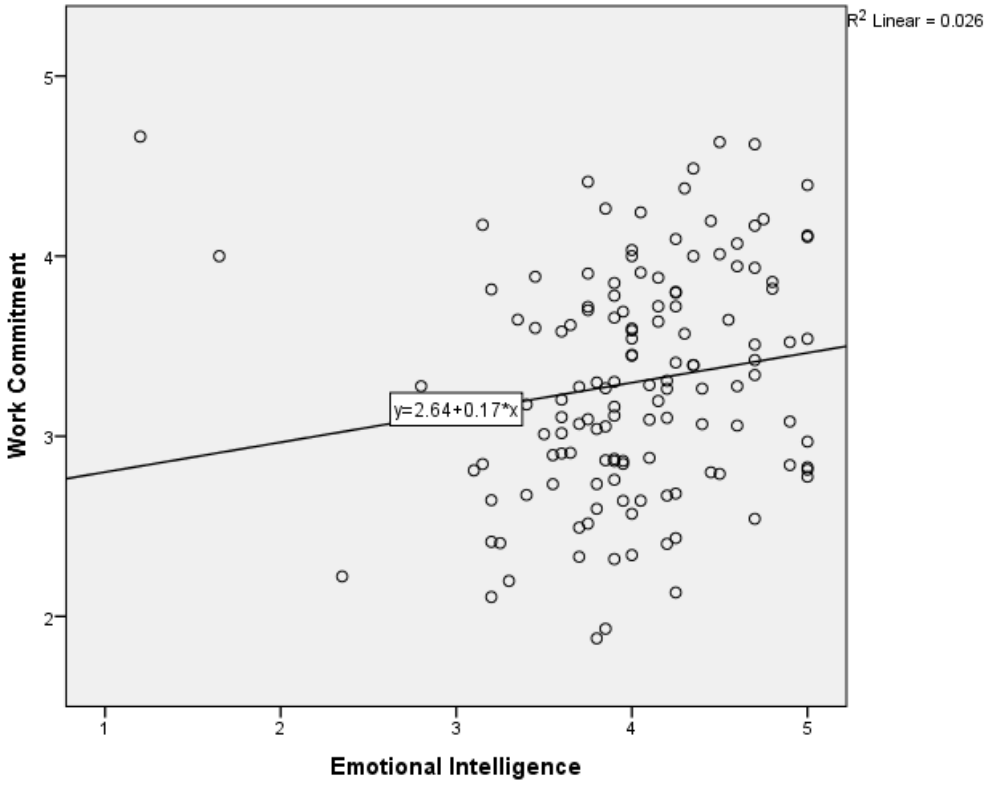
Figure 2 shows a constant variance of residuals across the range of predicted values or independent variables indicating homoscedasticity. This is confirmed by the results in Table 19 that the p-value of the ANOVA for the square of the residues against the independent variables is greater than 0.05 hence the null hypothesis is rejected.

4.4.2.3 Test of Linearity

The linearity test aimed to assess whether the relationship between the independent variables (predictor variables) and the dependent variable is linear or nonlinear. This assessment was conducted by visually examining scatter plots, where each predictor variable was plotted against the dependent variable. Scatter plots were created for each predictor variable (independent variable) against the dependent variable. In these plots, the values of the predictor variable were plotted on the x-axis, while the values of the dependent variable were plotted on the y-axis. On the other hand, if the data points roughly follow a straight line or show a consistent linear trend, it indicates a linear relationship. The interpretation of the scatter plots informs researchers about the linearity of the relationships between the predictor variables and the dependent variable. If linearity is observed, it suggests that linear regression analysis may be appropriate for modeling the relationships. However, if nonlinear patterns are detected, researchers may need to consider alternative regression techniques or transformations to account for the nonlinear nature of the relationship.

Each data point represents an observation in the dataset. Researchers visually inspected the scatter plots to assess the pattern of the data points. They looked for any discernible linear trend or pattern in the data. A linear relationship between the predictor variables and the dependent variable would be evident if the data points form a roughly straight line or exhibit a clear linear trend. Based on the scatter plots, researchers determined whether the relationship between each predictor variable and the dependent variable appeared to be linear or nonlinear. If the data points exhibit a random or irregular pattern with no clear linear trend, it suggests a lack of linearity in the relationship.

On the other hand, if the data points roughly follow a straight line or show a consistent linear trend, it indicates a linear relationship. The interpretation of the scatter plots informs researchers about the linearity of the relationships between the predictor variables and the dependent variable. If linearity is observed, it suggests that linear regression analysis may be appropriate for modeling the relationships. However, if nonlinear patterns are detected, researchers may need to consider alternative regression techniques or transformations to account for the nonlinear nature of the relationships. Overall, the linearity test provides valuable insights into the nature of the relationships between the predictor variables and the dependent variable, guiding researchers in selecting appropriate regression modeling techniques and ensuring the validity of their analyses. Figure 3 shows the results of the tests.



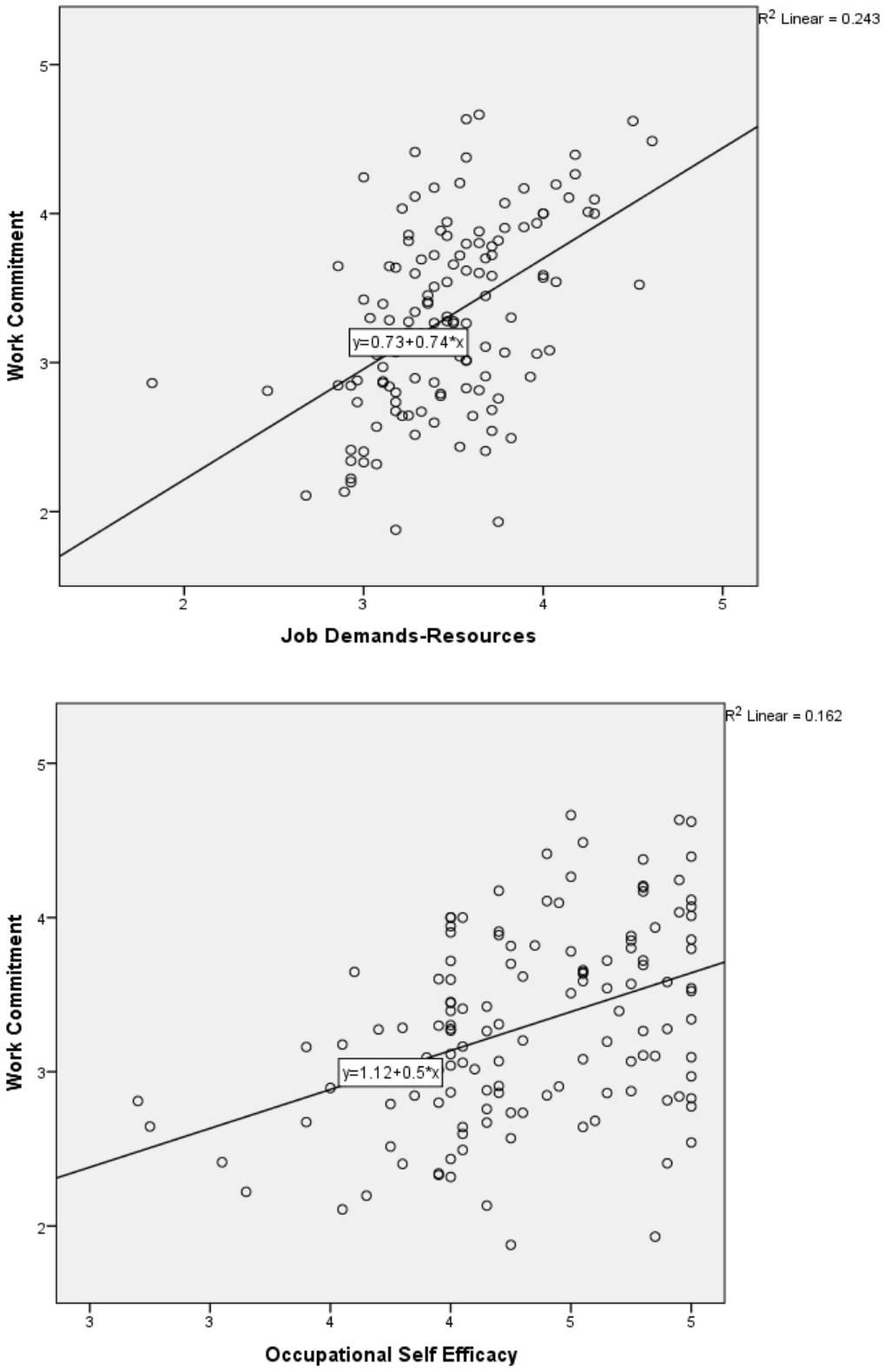


Figure 3: Scatter Diagrams

The scatter diagrams in Figure 3 show that the predictor variables: emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and occupational self-efficacy formed a straight-line relationship with the dependent variable work commitment of millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunication sector. In addition, the R-squared showed the proportion of the variance explained by the independent variables in the regression model where the values were 2.6%, 24.3%, and 16.2% for emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and occupational self-efficacy respectively. These results show that the relationships between emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and occupational self-efficacy with work commitment are linear. This suggests that as the values of these independent variables change, the dependent variable (work commitment) changes proportionally, following a straight-line pattern. The R-squared values indicate the proportion of variance in the dependent variable (work commitment) that is explained by each independent variable in the regression model. The R-squared value of 2.6% for emotional intelligence suggests that approximately 2.6% of the variance in work commitment can be explained by emotional intelligence alone. Moreover, the R-squared value of 24.3% for job demands-resources indicates that approximately 24.3% of the variance in work commitment can be explained by job demands-resources alone.

In addition, the R-squared value of 16.2% for occupational self-efficacy suggests that approximately 16.2% of the variance in work commitment can be explained by occupational self-efficacy alone. Overall, these R-squared values indicate the proportion of variability in work commitment that is accounted for by each independent variable individually within the regression model. The results suggest that job demands-resources have the highest explanatory power for work commitment among the three independent variables, as indicated by the highest R-squared value of 24.3%. This suggests that job demands-resources play a significant role in influencing work commitment among millennial employees in the telecommunication sector. On the other hand, emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy also contribute to explaining variability in work commitment, but to a lesser extent compared to job demands-resources. While these independent variables explain a portion of the variance in work commitment individually, it's important to consider their combined effect and interaction within the regression model to fully understand their impact on work commitment. The linear relationships between the

independent variables and work commitment, along with the R-squared values, provide valuable insights into the factors influencing work commitment among millennial employees in the telecommunication sector in Kenya.

4.4.2.4 Test of Normality

The test for normality is a crucial step in statistical analysis as it assesses whether the residuals follow a normal distribution, which is often assumed by many statistical methods and tests. The normality of residuals using Quantile-Quantile (Q-Q) plots. The Q-Q plots were generated by plotting the quantiles of the residuals against the expected quantiles from a normal distribution. Figure 4 shows the q-q plots for the residues For each model, the residuals closely followed the reference line, indicating that they were approximately normally distributed. Minor deviations observed in the tails of the distribution did not significantly affect the overall normality assumption. Therefore, the residuals were deemed sufficiently normal to proceed with the regression analysis.

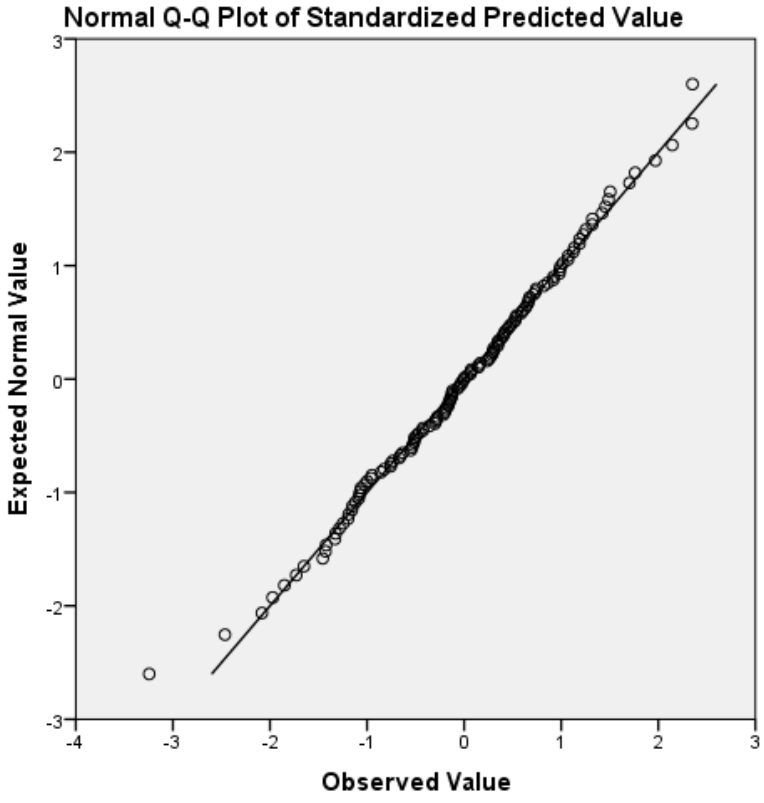


Figure 4: Q-Q Plots for the residuals

Figure 4 shows the Q-Q plot of the residuals that compares the observed values of the standardized residuals to the expected values from a normal distribution for the study. The points in the plot closely follow the diagonal reference line, indicating that the residuals are approximately normally distributed. There are, however, a few minor deviations at the extreme ends (tails), but these are not substantial enough to suggest a significant departure from normality. Since most of the points lie along a straight line, the assumption of normality for the residuals appears to hold for this model.

4.4.2.5 Factor Analysis

The factor analysis approach involves condensing information contained in several variables into a smaller set of dimensions (factors) with a minimum loss of information. Confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) are used in research when developing measuring models for Social Science research. The analysis evaluates whether the assumed relationships among the manifest indicators and latent factors are in line with empirical data. This is done by testing whether the model implied covariance structure resembles a strongly empirical covariance matrix. The CFA was conducted to reduce the data to a meaningful and manageable set of factors. In addition, eigenvalues are important since they allow for the reduction of factors to a linear operation to separate simpler problems. The factor analysis assumptions are that there are no outliers in data, no perfect multicollinearity, linearity, and the data is in interval which were all met under diagnostic tests.

In this study, using dimension reduction in SPSS, factor analysis was used to measure variables that cannot be measured directly(Hurley, Lambert, January & D'Angelo, 2017). Factor loading with Eigen values (total variance) greater than 0.5 should be extracted and coefficients below 0.49 deleted from the matrix since they are not important (Goretzko, Siemund & Sterner, 2024). The CFA was conducted to reduce the data to a meaningful and manageable set of factors. In addition, eigenvalues are important since they allow for the reduction of factors to a linear operation to separate simpler problems. The factor analysis assumptions are that there are no outliers in data, no perfect multicollinearity, linearity, and

the data is in interval which were all met under diagnostic tests. In the subsequent sections, the factor analysis for each variable is discussed.

4.4.2.5.1 Factor Analysis for Emotional Intelligence

Factor analysis was undertaken on the questionnaire items of emotional intelligence. This was achieved by subjecting the statement to dimension reduction in SPSS with a cutoff mark of 0.5 and above. The results are shown in Table 20.

Table 20: Factor Loading for Emotional Intelligence

Perceiving Emotion	**Extraction**
I am aware of the emotions as I experience them.	.812
I am aware of how my emotions affect my thoughts and behavior.	.723
I am able to recognize emotions in others based on their facial expression.	.769
I am able to recognize emotions in others based on their tone of voice.	.792
I can tell when someone is upset even when they do not say anything.	.923
Understanding Emotions	
I understand the relationship between my emotions and my thoughts.	.754
I am able to recognize the complex mix of emotions that can be present in given situation.	.765
I understand how other people's emotions can influence their behavior.	.923
I am aware of how cultural differences can affect emotional expression and interpretation.	.744
I can describe the emotions I am feeling accurately.	.722
Utilizing/Facilitating Emotion	
I am able to use my emotions to motivate myself to take action.	.760
I am able to use my emotions to connect with others and build relationships.	.775
I am able to use my emotions to communicate effectively with others.	.790

I am able to create a positive emotional atmosphere in my interactions with others.	.791
Managing Emotion	
I am able to express my emotions in appropriate ways.	.715
I am able to regulate my emotions when I need to.	.813
I am able to manage my stress levels effectively.	.814
I am able to recover quickly from negative emotions.	.776
I am able to recover quickly from negative emotions.	.768
I am able to remain calm and focused under pressure	.718

The theoretical backing of factor loading suggests that eigenvalues greater than 0.5 should be extracted and those below 0.5 not be considered in the study. Under emotional intelligence, all the sub-variables were adopted as they had values greater than 0.5. The factor loadings for items related to emotional intelligence range from 0.715 to 0.923, indicating strong associations with the underlying factor of emotional intelligence. These results of the factor analysis for emotional intelligence suggest that the questionnaire items effectively capture the underlying constructs of emotional intelligence. The items related to perceiving emotion such as awareness of one's own emotions, recognizing emotions in others based on facial expressions and tone of voice, and sensitivity to others' emotions even when not explicitly expressed, all show strong associations with the underlying factor of perceiving emotion. This indicates that individuals who score higher on these items are likely to possess a strong ability to perceive and understand emotions, both in themselves and others. the items related to understanding emotions, including recognizing the complex mix of emotions in different situations, understanding the influence of emotions on thoughts and behavior, and awareness of cultural differences in emotional expression and interpretation, demonstrate strong relationships with the underlying factor of understanding emotions. This suggests that individuals who score higher on these items have a greater capacity to comprehend and navigate the complexities of emotional experiences.

Moreover, the items related to utilizing and facilitating emotion, such as using emotions to motivate oneself, connect with others, communicate effectively, and create positive emotional atmospheres, all exhibit strong associations with the underlying factor of utilizing/facilitating emotion. This implies that individuals who score higher on these items are adept at leveraging emotions to enhance personal and interpersonal functioning in various contexts. The items related to perceiving emotion such as awareness of one's own emotions, recognizing emotions in others based on facial expressions and tone of voice, and sensitivity to others' emotions even when not explicitly expressed, all show strong associations with the underlying factor of perceiving emotion. Lastly, the items related to managing emotion, including expressing emotions appropriately, regulating emotions, managing stress levels effectively, and quickly recovering from negative emotions, show strong relationships with the underlying factor of managing emotion. This indicates that individuals who score higher on these items possess strong emotional regulation skills and resilience in handling challenging emotional situations.

4.4.2.5.2 Factor Analysis for Job Demands-Resources

The factor analysis was also carried out on the questionnaire items of job demands-resources by subjecting the statement to dimension reduction in SPSS with a cutoff mark of 0.5 and above. The results are shown in Table 21.

Table 21 Factor Loading for Emotional Intelligence

Job Demands	Extraction
I often have too much work to do in the time available.	.790
I often have to work at a fast pace to keep up with my workload.	.817
I often have to work to tight deadlines	.757
I often have to rush to complete my work	.835
I often have to deal with angry or upset customers/clients.	.751
I often have to suppress my emotions at work.	.731
I often have to lift heavy objects at work	.791

I often have to work in uncomfortable or physically demanding positions	.870
I often feel uncertain about what is expected of me at work.	.755
I often receive conflicting information from my supervisor and /or colleagues	.845
I often have my work demands interfere with my family and/or personal life	.791
I often have my family or personal responsibilities interfere with my work demands.	.849
I often worry about losing my job.	.829
I often feel that my job is at risk.	.864
Job Resources	
I have control over my work tasks.	.758
I have discretion in making decisions at work.	.765
I often receive support from my supervisor	.797
I often receive support from my colleagues	.774
I often receive feedback on my performance from my superiors and peers.	.807
The feedback I receive from my superiors and peers is useful.	.822
I often use a range of different skills in my job.	.791
I often have to repeat the same tasks over and over.	.685
I often feel that my work is meaningful and significant	.787
I often feel that my work has a positive impact on others.	.817
I often have control over my work schedule	.768
I often have control over my work environment	.752
I often have control over my work schedule	.779
I often receive support for career development from my supervisor or organization	.814

The theoretical backing of factor loading suggests that eigen values greater than 0.5 should be extracted and those below 0.5 not be considered in the study. Under job demands-resources, all the sub-variables were adopted as they had values greater than 0.5. The factor analysis results indicate that the questionnaire items effectively capture the multidimensional nature of job demands and job resources within the surveyed population. The factor loadings for items related to job demands range from 0.731 to 0.870, indicating strong associations with the underlying factor of job demands. High factor loadings suggest that individuals who report higher levels of these job demands experience significant pressure and challenges in their work environment. Specific job demands highlighted in the items include workload, time pressure, dealing with difficult situations or customers, physical demands, uncertainty about expectations, and concerns about job security. These findings suggest that addressing these job demands is crucial for managing stress, promoting well-being, and enhancing job satisfaction among employees. Conversely, the factor loadings for items related to job resources range from 0.752 to 0.822, indicating strong associations with the underlying factor of job resources. High factor loadings suggest that individuals who perceive higher levels of these job resources experience greater support, autonomy, and fulfillment in their work environment. Key job resources highlighted in the items include autonomy, support from supervisors and colleagues, feedback, skill variety, meaningfulness of work, and control over work schedule and environment. These findings suggest that enhancing these job resources can contribute to improving employee well-being, job satisfaction, and overall organizational effectiveness.

4.4.2.5.3 Factor Analysis for Occupational Self-Efficacy

The factor analysis was also carried out on the questionnaire items of occupational self-efficacy by subjecting the statement to dimension reduction in SPSS with a cutoff mark of 0.5 and above. The results are shown in Table 22.

Table 22 Factor Loading for Occupational Self-Efficacy

Confidence	Extraction
I can successfully learn and use new skills at work.	.834
I can handle new or unexpected situations at work	.747

I can solve problems that arise in my work.	.832
I can set priorities and manage my work effectively.	.832
I can handle criticism or negative feedback from others at work.	.752
command	
I can clearly and effectively communicate my ideas and opinions at work.	.820
I can effectively influence others in my workplace.	.846
I can effectively manage or supervise others in my workplace.	.724
I can effectively work in teams in my workplace.	.791
I can effectively negotiate with others in my workplace.	.782
Adaptability	
I can adjust to changes in my work environment or job duties.	.806
I can work effectively with people from diverse backgrounds.	.785
I can work effectively in a rapidly changing environment.	.751
I can learn from my mistakes or failures in my work.	.808
I can manage my emotions and stress levels effectively at work.	.805
Positive Attitude	
I believe that I can accomplish my work goals and objectives	.804
I am optimistic about my future prospects in my work.	.828
I am motivated to succeed in my work.	.799
I am confident that I can overcome obstacles or challenges in my work.	.817
I am positive about my work and my ability to contribute to my organization.	.809

The theoretical backing of factor loading suggests that eigenvalues greater than 0.5 should be extracted and those below 0.5 not be considered in the study. Under occupational self-efficacy, all the sub-variables were adopted as they had values greater than 0.5. Table 22

presents the factor loadings for items related to occupational self-efficacy, categorized into confidence, command, adaptability, and positive attitude. The factor loadings for items related to confidence range from 0.747 to 0.834, indicating strong associations with the underlying factor of confidence. High factor loadings suggest that individuals who possess higher levels of confidence believe in their abilities to learn new skills, handle unexpected situations, solve problems, set priorities, and manage their work effectively. These findings suggest that confidence plays a crucial role in enabling individuals to navigate various challenges and tasks in the workplace with self-assurance and resilience.

Similarly, the factor loadings for items related to command range from 0.724 to 0846, indicating strong associations with the underlying factor of command. High factor loadings suggest that individuals who exhibit higher levels of command feel confident in communicating ideas, influencing others, managing or supervising teams, working effectively in teams, and negotiating with colleagues. These findings suggest that individuals with strong command abilities are likely to be effective communicators and leaders within their workplace.

Moreover, the factor loadings for items related to adaptability range from 0.751 to 0.808, indicating strong associations with the underlying factor of adaptability. High factor loadings suggest that individuals who demonstrate higher levels of adaptability are adept at adjusting to changes in the work environment, working effectively with diverse teams, coping with rapid changes, learning from mistakes, and managing emotions and stress levels effectively. These findings highlight the importance of adaptability in enabling individuals to thrive in dynamic and evolving work environments.

Lastly, the factor loadings for items related to positive attitude range from 0.799 to 0.828, indicating strong associations with the underlying factor of positive attitude. High factor loadings suggest that individuals who maintain a positive attitude believe in their ability to accomplish work goals, are optimistic about prospects, are motivated to succeed, have confidence in overcoming obstacles, and have a positive outlook on their work and contributions to the organization. These findings emphasize the significance of maintaining a positive mindset in fostering resilience, motivation, and engagement in the workplace.

4.4.2.5.4 Factor Analysis for Work Commitment

The factor analysis was also carried out on the questionnaire items of Work commitment by subjecting the statement to dimension reduction in SPSS with a cutoff mark of 0.5 and above. The results are shown in Table 23.

Table 23 Factor Loading for Work Commitment

Job Involvement	**Extraction**
I feel miserable when I have less work to do.	.771
I get depressed when I am not working.	.830
Irrespective of what happens, I always attend to my work first.	.751
I often do extra work in my job which is not really required of me.	.756
For the sake of my work, I can give up what I consider important.	.778
While at work, I seldom think of anything other than my work.	.668
While away on leave, I keep on worrying that my work is suffering.	.792
While on the job, I check and recheck my watch wondering when the day will end.	.724
I am not willing to devote my free time to my job and I feel relieved when it is time to go home.	.837
I wait patiently for the holidays	.737
Organizational Commitment	
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this department.	.701
If I had not already put so much of myself into this department, I might consider working somewhere else	.783
I feel like part of the family in this department.	.831
This organization deserves my loyalty, and I would feel guilty	.810
I feel emotionally attached to this department	.845
This department has a great deal of personal meaning for me	.839

One of the few negative consequences of leaving this department would be scarcity of available alternatives	.763
I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this department.	.815
Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my department.	.782
Career Commitment	
If I could get another job different from the current one and paying the same amount, I would take it.	.813
I want to build a career in my current job.	.712
If I could do it all over again, I would choose to work in my current field.	.782
If I had all the money, I needed without working, I would still continue working in my current field.	.763
I like this vocation too well to give up.	.797
This is ideal vocation for a life work.	.821
I am disappointed that I ever entered this profession	.809
I spend significant amount of time reading books and journals related to my field.	.795
Protestant Work Ethic	
Anyone who is able and willing to work hard has a good chance of succeeding.	.805
Our society would have fewer problems if people had less leisure time.	.763
I feel uneasy when there is little work for me to do.	.807
There are few satisfactions equal to the realization that one has done one's best at a job.	.789
The self-made person is likely to be more ethical than someone who is born to wealth.	.813
Hard work offers little guarantee of success	.763

If one works hard enough, they are likely to make a good life for themselves.	.809
A distaste for hard work usually reflects a weakness of character	.727
Most people spend time in unprofitable amusement	.670

The theoretical backing of factor loading suggests that eigen values greater than 0.5 should be extracted and those below 0.5 not be considered in the study. Under work commitment, all the sub-variables were adopted as they had values greater than 0.5. Table 23 displays the factor loadings for items related to work commitment, categorized into job involvement, organizational commitment, career commitment, and Protestant work ethic. The factor loadings for items related to job involvement range from 0.668 to 0.837, indicating strong associations with the underlying factor of job involvement. High factor loadings suggest that individuals who exhibit higher levels of job involvement feel a strong sense of attachment and dedication to their work. Specific aspects highlighted in the items include feeling miserable when not working, prioritizing work over personal matters, feeling anxious when away from work, and reluctance to devote free time to non-work activities. Similarly, the factor loadings for items related to organizational commitment range from 0.701 to 0.845, indicating strong associations with the underlying factor of organizational commitment. High factor loadings suggest that individuals who report higher levels of organizational commitment feel emotionally attached to their department, perceive personal meaning in their work, and exhibit loyalty and dedication to their organization. Specific aspects highlighted in the items include feelings of loyalty, emotional attachment, and personal significance associated with the department or organization.

The factor loadings for items related to career commitment range from 0.712 to 0.821, indicating strong associations with the underlying factor of career commitment. High factor loadings suggest that individuals who demonstrate higher levels of career commitment express a desire to build a career in their current field, value their vocation as a life's work, and exhibit dedication to their profession. Specific aspects highlighted in the items include preferences for the current field, willingness to continue working even without financial

necessity, and disappointment at the thought of leaving the profession. Specific aspects highlighted in the items include feeling miserable when not working, prioritizing work over personal matters, feeling anxious when away from work, and reluctance to devote free time to non-work activities. Similarly, the factor loadings for items related to organizational commitment range from 0.701 to 0.845, indicating strong associations with the underlying factor of organizational commitment. High factor loadings suggest that individuals who report higher levels of organizational commitment feel emotionally attached to their department, perceive personal meaning in their work, and exhibit loyalty and dedication to their organization.

Lastly, the factor loadings for items related to Protestant work ethic range from 0.670 to 0.813, indicating strong associations with the underlying factor of Protestant work ethic. High factor loadings suggest that individuals who endorse the Protestant work ethic exhibit beliefs in the virtues of hard work, ethical conduct, and the correlation between hard work and success. Specific aspects highlighted in the items include beliefs about the value of hard work, the relationship between hard work and success, and the ethical implications of hard work

4.4.3 Hypothesis Tests

This section outlines the findings of hypothesis testing in the study, which aimed to explore the relationships between variables as outlined in the conceptual framework. Regression analysis was utilized to test these hypotheses, allowing for the examination of direct and interactive effects among the variables of interest. The subsequent sections provide detailed discussions of the findings from each hypothesis test, shedding light on the dynamics of the relationships between emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, occupational self-efficacy, and work commitment among millennial workers in Kenya's telecommunication sector.

4.4.3.1 Emotional Intelligence and Work Commitment of Millennials in Kenya's Telecommunication Sector

The first objective of the study was to evaluate the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector. The following hypothesis was developed to address this objective:

H_{01}: There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunication sector.

The hypothesis was tested using simple linear regression analysis with emotional intelligence as the independent variable and work commitment as the dependent variable. The results are presented in Table 24.

Table 24: The Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Work Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.160[a]	.026	.018	.622

a. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.341	1	1.341	3.471	.045[b]
	Residual	51.001	132	.386		
	Total	52.343	133			

a. Dependent Variable: Work Commitment
b. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t
1	(Constant)	2.636	.360		7.315
	Emotional Intelligence	.166	.089	.160	1.863

Model		Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	.000	1.923	3.348
	Emotional Intelligence	.045	-.010	.341

The results in Table 24 show the output of a regression analysis examining the impact of emotional intelligence on work commitment. The model's R-squared value is 0.026, indicating that approximately 2.6% of the variance in work commitment can be explained by EI. The adjusted R-squared value, which adjusts for the number of predictors in the model, is 0.018. The standard error of the estimate is 0.622, representing the average deviation of observed values from the regression line. The ANOVA table indicates that the regression model is statistically significant, as the F-statistic (3.471) is greater than 1, and the associated p-value (0.045) is less than the significance level ($p < 0.05$). This suggests that EI has a significant overall effect on work commitment. The coefficient for EI is 0.166, indicating that for every unit increase in EI, there is a corresponding increase of 0.166 units in work commitment. The regression analysis suggests that emotional intelligence has a statistically significant, positive effect on work commitment. While emotional intelligence accounts for a small proportion of the variance in work commitment, the results indicate that it does have a measurable impact. However, other factors not included in the model may also contribute to work commitment. The fitted model from the result in Table 24 is;

$Y = 2.636 + 0.166\,X_1$ where Y is the work commitment and X_1 represents the emotional intelligence of millennials

This implies that emotional intelligence increased the work commitment of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector at a rate of 0.166 units. The H_{01} states there is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunication sector. Since the p-value ($0.045 < 0.05$) the study rejects the null hypothesis. Thus, emotional intelligence has a significant relationship with the work commitment of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector. In addition, the effect of emotional intelligence on different components of work commitment was examined. Tables 25, 26, 27, 28 and 29 depicts the results.

Table 25: The Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Affective Organizational Commitment

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.091[a]	.008	.001	.899

a. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence
b. Dependent Variable: Affective Organizational Commitment

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.896	1	.896	1.108	.295[b]
	Residual	106.739	132	.809		
	Total	107.635	133			

a. Dependent Variable: Affective Organizational Commitment
b. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t
1	(Constant)	2.603	.521		4.994
	Emotional Intelligence	.135	.129	.091	1.052

Model		Sig.
1	(Constant)	.000
	Emotional Intelligence	.295

a. Dependent Variable: Affective Organizational Commitment

Table 25 shows the results of the linear regression between emotional intelligence and affective organization commitment. the Pearson correlation coefficient is 0.91 showing a positive but very weak correlation between the variables. The model's R-squared value is

0.008, indicating that approximately 0.8% of the variance in affective organizational commitment can be explained by emotional intelligence. The adjusted R-squared value is 0.001, which suggests that the model does not fit the data well after adjusting for the number of predictors. The standard error of the estimate is 0.899, representing the average deviation of observed values from the regression line. The ANOVA table indicates that the regression model is not statistically significant, as the F-statistic (1.108) is not substantially greater than 1, and the associated p-value (0.295) is greater than the significance level (usually 0.05). This suggests that emotional intelligence does not have a significant overall effect on affective organizational commitment. The model's R-squared value is 0.008, indicating that approximately 0.8% of the variance in affective organizational commitment can be explained by emotional intelligence. The adjusted R-squared value is 0.001, which suggests that the model does not fit the data well after adjusting for the number of predictors. The standard error of the estimate is 0.899, representing the average deviation of observed values from the regression line. The ANOVA table indicates that the regression model is not statistically significant, as the F-statistic (1.108) is not substantially greater than 1, and the associated p-value (0.295) is greater than the significance level (usually 0.05). This suggests that emotional intelligence does not have a significant overall effect on affective organizational commitment.

The model summary and ANOVA table provide insights into the regression analysis conducted to examine the relationship between the predictor variable - emotional intelligence and the dependent variable (affective organizational commitment). The correlation coefficient (R) between the predictor variable and the dependent variable is 0.091. This value indicates a very weak positive linear relationship between the two variables. The coefficient of determination (R Square) is 0.008, which means that approximately 0.8% of the variance in affective Organizational commitment can be explained by the predictor variable. The adjusted R Square is 0.001 after accounting for the number of predictors in the model. This adjusted value suggests that the model does not fit the data well, as it explains very little of the variability observed in affective organizational commitment.

The standard error of the estimate is 0.899, representing the average deviation of observed values from the regression line. This value indicates the accuracy of the predictions made by the regression model. The ANOVA table tests the overall significance of the regression model. The regression sum of squares is 0.896, and the corresponding mean square is also 0.896. The F-statistic is 1.108, with a p-value of 0.295. Since the p-value is greater than the typical significance level of 0.05, the regression model is not statistically significant. This suggests that the predictor variable does not have a significant overall effect on Affective Organizational Commitment. Based on the model summary and ANOVA table, the regression model does not provide strong evidence to support a significant relationship between the predictor variable and Affective Organizational Commitment. The weak correlation coefficient, low R Square value, and non-significant F-statistic indicate that the predictor variable may not be a meaningful predictor of affective organizational commitment in this context.

Additional research may be needed to explore other factors that could better explain variability in Affective Organizational Commitment. Based on these results, emotional intelligence does not appear to be a significant predictor of affective organizational commitment in this analysis. This suggests that the predictor variable does not have a significant overall effect on Affective Organizational Commitment. Based on the model summary and ANOVA table, the regression model does not provide strong evidence to support a significant relationship between the predictor variable and Affective Organizational Commitment. The weak correlation coefficient, low R Square value, and non-significant F-statistic indicate that the predictor variable may not be a meaningful predictor of Affective Organizational Commitment in this context. The model does not explain much of the variance in affective organizational commitment, and the regression coefficients are not statistically significant. Other factors not included in the model may be more substantial in determining affective organizational commitment.

Table 26: The Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Continuance Organizational Commitment

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate

1	.091[a]	.008	.001	.899

a. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence
b. Dependent Variable: Continuance Organizational Commitment

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.896	1	.896	1.108	.295[b]
	Residual	106.739	132	.809		
	Total	107.635	133			

a. Dependent Variable: Continuance Organizational Commitment
b. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t
1	(Constant)	2.603	.521		4.994
	Emotional Intelligence	.135	.129	.091	1.052

Model		Sig.
1	(Constant)	.000
	Emotional Intelligence	.295

a. Dependent Variable: Continuance Organizational Commitment

The results in Table 26 show the model summary and ANOVA table displays the results of a regression analysis examining the relationship between EI and the continuance organizational commitment. The model's R-squared value is 0.008, indicating that approximately 0.8% of the variance in continuance of organizational commitment can be explained by emotional intelligence. The adjusted R-squared value is 0.001, suggesting that the model does not fit the data well after adjusting for the number of predictors. The standard error of the estimate is 0.899, representing the average deviation of observed values from the regression line. The ANOVA table indicates that the regression model is

not statistically significant, as the F-statistic (1.108) is not substantially greater than 1, and the associated p-value (0.295) is greater than the significance level (usually 0.05). This suggests that emotional intelligence does not have a significant overall effect on the continuance of organizational commitment. Based on these results, emotional intelligence does not appear to be an important predictor of the continuance of organizational commitment in this analysis. The ANOVA table indicates that the regression model is not statistically significant, as the F-statistic (1.108) is not substantially greater than 1, and the associated p-value (0.295) is greater than the significance level (usually 0.05). This suggests that emotional intelligence does not have a significant overall effect on the continuance of organizational commitment. The model does not explain much of the variance in the continuance organizational commitment, and the regression coefficients are not statistically significant. Other factors not included in the model may be more substantial in determining the continuance organizational commitment.

Table 27: The Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Job Involvement

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.062[a]	.004	-.004	.866

a. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence
b. Dependent Variable: Job Involvement

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.378	1	.378	.504	.479[b]
	Residual	98.950	132	.750		
	Total	99.328	133			

a. Dependent Variable: Job Involvement
b. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence

Coefficients[a]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	t

		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	2.620	.502		5.221
	Emotional Intelligence	.088	.124	.062	.710

Coefficients[a]

Model		Sig.
1	(Constant)	.000
	Emotional Intelligence	.479

a. Dependent Variable: Job Involvement

The results in Table 27 shows the model summary and ANOVA table displays the results of a regression analysis examining the relationship between EI and job involvement. The analysis indicates that emotional intelligence does not significantly predict job involvement among the study participants in the telecommunication sector. The R-squared value of 0.004 suggests that only approximately 0.4% of the variance in job involvement can be explained by emotional intelligence. This indicates a very weak relationship between emotional intelligence and job involvement. The adjusted R-squared value of -0.004, after adjusting for the number of predictors, suggests that the model does not fit the data well. This implies that emotional intelligence alone does not adequately explain the variability observed in job involvement. The standard error of the estimate, which is 0.866, represents the average deviation of observed values from the regression line. This value indicates the accuracy of the predictions made by the regression model. The ANOVA table indicates that the regression model is not statistically significant. The F-statistic (0.504) is less than 1, and the associated p-value (0.479) is greater than the typical significance level (0.05). This suggests that emotional intelligence does not have a significant overall effect on job involvement. Based on these results, emotional intelligence does not appear to be a significant predictor of job involvement in this analysis. The model does not explain much of the variance in job involvement, and the regression coefficients are not statistically significant. It's possible that other factors, not included in the model, may play a more substantial role in determining job involvement among millennial workers in the telecommunication sector. The findings suggest that while emotional intelligence may

have some influence on job involvement, it is not a significant predictor when considered in isolation from other factors. Further research may be needed to explore additional variables that could better explain variations in job involvement among this population.

Table 28: The Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Career Commitment

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.206[a]	.043	.035	.793

a. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence
b. Dependent Variable: Career Commitment

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square
1	Regression	3.694	1	3.694
	Residual	83.000	132	.629
	Total	86.694	133	

a. Dependent Variable: Career Commitment
b. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients	
		B	Std. Error
1	(Constant)	2.472	.460
	Emotional Intelligence	.275	.113

Coefficients[a]

Model	
1	(Constant)
	Emotional Intelligence

a. Dependent Variable: Career Commitment

Table 28 shows the results of a regression examining the relationship between emotional intelligence and career commitment. The model's R-squared value is 0.043, indicating that approximately 4.3% of the variance in career commitment can be explained by emotional intelligence. The adjusted R-squared value is 0.035, which suggests that the model fits the data slightly better after adjusting for the number of predictors. The standard error of the estimate is 0.793, representing the average deviation of observed values from the regression line. The ANOVA table indicates that the regression model is statistically significant, as the F-statistic (5.876) is greater than 1, and the associated p-value (0.017) is less than the significance level ($p < 0.05$). This suggests that emotional intelligence has a significant impact on career commitment. The adjusted R-squared value is 0.035, which suggests that the model fits the data slightly better after adjusting for the number of predictors. The standard error of the estimate is 0.793, representing the average deviation of observed values from the regression line.

Table 29: The Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Protestant Work Ethic

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.158[a]	.025	.018	.625

a. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence
b. Dependent Variable: Protestant Work Ethic

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.321	1	1.321	3.378	.068[b]
	Residual	51.630	132	.391		
	Total	52.951	133			

a. Dependent Variable: Protestant Work Ethic
b. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence

Coefficients[a]

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t
1	(Constant)	2.848	.363		7.855
	Emotional Intelligence	.164	.089	.158	1.838

Coefficients[a]

Model		Sig.
1	(Constant)	.000
	Emotional Intelligence	.068

a. Dependent Variable: Protestant Work Ethic

Table 29 represents a regression analysis examining the relationship between EI and adherence to the protestant work ethic. The model's R-squared value is 0.025, indicating that approximately 2.5% of the variance in Protestant work ethic can be explained by emotional intelligence. The adjusted R-squared value is 0.018, which suggests that the model fits the data slightly better after adjusting for the number of predictors. The standard error of the estimate is 0.625, representing the average deviation of observed values from the regression line. The ANOVA table indicates that the regression model is not statistically significant, as the F-statistic (3.378) is not substantially greater than 1, and the associated p-value (0.068) is greater than the significance level (usually 0.05). This suggests that emotional intelligence does not have a significant overall effect on the Protestant work ethic.

The findings of the study showed that when emotional intelligence is held constant, the work commitment of the millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunication sector remained at 2.64 units. In addition, emotional intelligence increased the work commitment of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector at a rate of 0.166 units. Since the p-value ($0.045 < 0.05$) the study rejects the null hypothesis. Thus, emotional intelligence has a significant relationship with the work commitment of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector. These findings showed that emotional intelligence and organizational commitment had a significant, moderate, and positive relationship with each other. This implies that millennial workers in Kenya's telecommunication sector are more likely to be attached and bonded to their organizations. Therefore, managers in this sector should invest in developing the emotional intelligence of the millennials, providing them with training and development to enhance their knowledge and skills in managing their

emotions. In addition, the management should support the workers in mitigating stress that might arise from emotional labor, especially for workers in the call centers for effectiveness (Kozlowski, Hutchinson, Hurley, Rowley & Sutherland, 2017). Moreover, there should be efforts to improve the quality of millennial work environment within the telecommunication sector because emotional intelligence and work commitment are context-based and good working conditions can contribute to effectiveness.

The findings agree with a study conducted by Baker, Shosha, Al-Oweidat & Nashwan (2023) to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment among nurses working in government hospitals in Jordan. The results showed that the respondents had high levels of emotional intelligence and moderate levels of organizational commitment. Moreover, emotional intelligence was found to have a significant, moderately strong positive relationship with organizational commitment ($r = 0.53, p = 0.000 < 0.05$) (Al-Oweidat et al., 2023).

The findings of this study corroborate the results of another study conducted by Setiawan (2020) on the effect of emotional intelligence on organizational commitment of health officers in Indonesia. The study showed that there is a significant direct influence between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment as measured using knowledge sharing, team conflict and team performance (Setiawan, 2020). The study results agree with a study conducted to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and work engagement of automobile sector employees in Chennai, South India. The results showed a strong correlation between work engagement and emotional intelligence (Selvi & Aiswarya, 2023). The current study agrees with another one conducted by Nasir, Bamber and Mahmood (2023) to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among higher education sector employees in Saudi Arabia. The research findings revealed a positive relationship between the faculties' four components of emotional intelligence: self-emotions appraisal (SEA), others' emotions' appraisal (OEA), use of emotions (UOE) and regulation of emotions (ROE) and job performance (Nasir, Bamber and Mahmood, 2023).

Moreover, a study conducted in Nigeria by George, Okon and Akaighe (2022) on the role of emotional intelligence and work engagement of public officers in Nigeria. The study drew on the cognitive -motivational-reactional theory of emotion and conservation of resources theory in exploring the serial explanatory pathways between emotional intelligence and work engagement. The findings showed that emotional intelligence was positively related to work engagement (George, Okon and Akaighe., 2022). The study also agrees with a study conducted by Shafiq and Rana (2016) to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment of college teachers in Punjab colleges in Pakistan (Shafiq & Akram Rana, 2016).. The results showed a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and affective organizational commitment and weak relationship between emotional intelligence and continuance commitment. The study did not consider the age and the gender of the participants in the analysis. There were no moderators to the relationship in the study which as considered in the current study.

The study also agreed with the results of a meta-analysis conducted by Miao, Humphrey and Qian (2017) involving 119 empirical quantitative studies on the relationship between EI and work attitudes of employees. The study revealed that the emotional intelligence of the workers was found to be positively correlated to their organizational commitment. The results of the study also corroborated with a study conducted by Navas and Vijayakumar (2018) to determine the impact of emotional intelligence on organizational commitment, job satisfaction and job stress. The review corroborated with earlier studies that emotional intelligence has a significant positive correlation with the three components of organizational commitment which are pointed as effective, continuance and normative commitment (Sharfras, Navas & Vijayakumar, 2018).

The study also agrees with a study undertaken by Baker, Jaaffar, Ibrahim, Hassan and Sallehuddin (2019) to determine the effect of emotional intelligence on affective commitment among Royal Malaysia police officers. The study used four dimensions of ability model of emotional intelligence – self-emotional appraisal, other's emotional appraisal, use of emotions, and regulation of emotions. The results of the study showed

that emotional intelligence has a strong positive relationship with affective commitment (Baker, Jaaffar, Ibrahim, Hassan & Sallehuddin, 2019).

The current study agrees with a study conducted by Njoku (2020) to examine the link between emotional intelligence and perceived job stress as predictors of organizational commitment – a key component of work commitment- among fuel dispensers in Owerri, Nigeria.. The results indicated that both emotional intelligence and perceived job stress are predictors of organizational commitment. (Njoku, 2020). The study also agrees with a study conducted by Matheri, Karanja and Namusonge to examine the impact of emotional intelligence on employee commitment in savings and credit cooperative societies (SACCOs) in Kenya. The findings showed that there exists a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and employee commitment that confirms the results in other studies (Matheri, Karanja & Namusonge, 2020). The study also agrees with a study conducted by Ahad, Mustafa, Mohamed, Abdullah & Nordin (2021) to study on work attitudes, organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence of Malaysian vocational college teachers. A sample of 300 participants were involved in the study. The results showed that positive work attitudes were positively correlated to emotional intelligence (Ahad, Mustafa, Mohamed, Abdullah & Nordin, 2021).

4.4.3.2 Moderating Effect of Job Demands-Resources

The second specific objective of the study was to assess the moderating effect of job demands-resources on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in the Kenyan telecommunication sector. The following hypothesis was developed to address this objective.

H_{O2} There is no significant moderating effect of job demands-resources to the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of the millennial workers in Kenya's telecommunication sector.

This hypothesis was tested using stepwise (three steps) regression analysis. In step one, the criterion and predictor variables were work commitment and emotional intelligence respectively. In step two the criterion variable was work commitment while the predictor variables were emotional intelligence and job demands-resources. In step three, multiple

regression was used where work commitment was regressed on emotional intelligence, job demand-resources, and the interaction term (emotional intelligence*job demands-resources).

Step 1: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$ where Y is work commitment, X_1 is emotional intelligence, β_0 is constant, β_1 is the coefficient of X_1 , and ε is the error term.

This model produced the results presented in Table 30.

Table 30: The Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Work Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.160[a]	.026	.018	.622

a. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.341	1	1.341	3.471	.045[b]
	Residual	51.001	132	.386		
	Total	52.343	133			

a. Dependent Variable: Work Commitment
b. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t
1	(Constant)	2.636	.360		7.315
	Emotional Intelligence	.166	.089	.160	1.863

Model		Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	.000	1.923	3.348
	Emotional Intelligence	.045	-.010	.341

Table 30 shows the regression analysis for the effect of Emotional Intelligence (EI) on work commitment. The coefficient of determination (R-squared) for Model 1 is 0.026, indicating that approximately 2.6% of the variance in Work Commitment is explained by Emotional Intelligence. The adjusted R-squared, which considers the number of predictors, is 0.018. The standard error of the estimate is 0.622, representing the average distance that the observed values fall from the regression line. The Durbin-Watson statistic is 2.167, which tests for the presence of autocorrelation in the residuals. A value close to 2 suggests no significant autocorrelation. The ANOVA table indicates that the regression model is statistically significant (p = 0.045), with an F-statistic of 3.471 and associated degrees of freedom (df) of 1 for regression and 132 for residual. The intercept coefficient is 2.636 with a standard error of 0.360. The coefficient for EI is 0.166 with a standard error of 0.089. It is statistically significant (p = 0.045) and has a standardized coefficient (Beta) of 0.160, indicating a small positive effect on work commitment. Overall, the model suggests that emotional intelligence has a statistically significant but small positive effect on work commitment, explaining about 2.6% of the variance in Work Commitment. Based on these results, the predictive model can be constituted as follows:

$Y = 2.636 + 0.166X_1 + \varepsilon$ where Y is work commitment, X_1 is the emotional intelligence and ε is the error term.

Step 2: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$ where X_1 is emotional intelligence, X_2 is job demands-resources, β_0 is a constant, β_1 is the coefficient of X_1 and ε is error term.

Step two of the regression analysis tested the effect of emotional intelligence and Job demands-resources on work commitment. The findings are presented in Table 31.

Table 31: Result of Regression Analysis for the Effect of Emotional Intelligence and Job Demands-Resources on Work Commitment

Model Summary						
					Change Statistics	
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	
1	.495[a]	.245	.234	.549	.245	
ANOVA[a]						

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	12.830	2	6.415	21.267	.000[b]
	Residual	39.513	131	.302		
	Total	52.343	133			

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
2	(Constant)	.586	.460		1.273	.000
	Emotional Intelligence	.051	.081	.049	.633	.004
	Job Demands-Resources	.725	.117	.481	6.172	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Job Demands-Resources, Emotional Intelligence

b. Dependent Variable: Work Commitment

The regression analysis results for the effect of emotional intelligence and job demands-resources on work commitment are presented in Table 31. The coefficient of determination (R-squared) for the model is 0.245, indicating that approximately 24.5% of the variance in work commitment is explained by the predictors, emotional intelligence, and job demands-resources. The adjusted R-squared, which considers the number of predictors, is 0.234 while the standard error of the estimate is 0.549, representing the average distance that the observed values fall from the regression line. The ANOVA table indicates that the regression model is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$), with an F-statistic of 21.267 and associated degrees of freedom (df) of 2 for regression and 131 for residual. The intercept coefficient is 0.586 with a standard error of 0.460. The coefficient for emotional intelligence is 0.051 with a standard error of 0.081. The coefficient for job demands-resources is 0.725 with a standard error of 0.117. It is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) and has a standardized coefficient (Beta) of 0.481, indicating a moderate positive effect on Work Commitment. Overall, the model suggests that job demands-resources have a statistically significant positive effect on work commitment, while emotional intelligence does not have a statistically significant effect. Moreover, emotional intelligence and job demands-resources explain approximately 24.5% of the variance in Work Commitment. Using these results, the predictive model can be substituted as follows:

$Y = 0.586 + 0.051X_1 + 0.725X_2 + \varepsilon$; where Y is work commitment, X_1 is emotional intelligence, X_2 is job demands-resources and ε is the error term.

Step 3: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1 * X_2 + \varepsilon$ where X_1 is emotional intelligence, X_2 is job demands-resources, β_0 is a constant, β_1 , β_2 and β_3 are coefficients of emotional intelligence, job demands-resources and the interactive term respectively and ε is the error term.

The third step of the regression analysis involved incorporating the interaction term in the regression equation and the findings are presented in Table 32.

Table 32: Results of Regression Analysis for Moderating Effect of Job Demands-Resources on the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Work Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.160[a]	.026	.018	.622
2	.495[b]	.245	.234	.549
3	.499[c]	.249	.231	.550

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.341	1	1.341	3.471	.045[b]
	Residual	51.001	132	.386		
	Total	52.343	133			
2	Regression	12.830	2	6.415	21.267	.000[c]
	Residual	39.513	131	.302		
	Total	52.343	133			
3	Regression	13.022	3	4.341	14.351	.000[d]
	Residual	39.321	130	.302		
	Total	52.343	133			

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	2.636	.360		7.315	.000
	Emotional Intelligence	.166	.089	.160	1.863	.045
2	(Constant)	.586	.460		1.273	.205
	Emotional Intelligence	.051	.081	.049	.633	.528

	Job Demands-Resources	.725	.117	.481	6.172	.000
3	(Constant)	-1.345	2.465		-.546	.586
	Emotional Intelligence	.539	.618	.522	.873	.003
	Job Demands-Resources	1.267	.690	.842	1.835	.069
	Interaction (EI*JDR)	-.137	.171	-.660	-.798	.004

a. Dependent Variable: Work Commitment
b. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence
c. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence, Job Demands-Resources
d. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence, Job Demands-Resources, Interaction (EI *JDR)

The results presented in Table 32 outline the findings of a regression analysis investigating the moderating effect of job demands-resources on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. In model 1, emotional intelligence alone accounts for a very small proportion of the variance in work commitment (R-squared = 0.026). The adjusted R-squared is 0.018, suggesting minimal improvement in model fit after accounting for the number of predictors. In model 2, after introducing job demands-resources into the model, there is a significant increase in the R-squared value to 0.245, indicating that the inclusion of job demands-resources substantially improves the explanatory power of the model. The adjusted R-squared also increases to 0.234. In model 3, adding the interaction term (emotional intelligence * job demands-resources) further improves the model's explanatory power, with the R-squared increasing to 0.249 and the adjusted R-squared to 0.231. This shows that job demands-resources moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial workers in Kenyan's telecommunication sector.

The ANOVA tables indicate the overall significance of each model. In all three models, the regression is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$), suggesting that the predictors collectively explain a significant amount of variance in work commitment. The F-statistics for Models 2 and 3 are substantially higher than those for Model 1, indicating better model fit with the inclusion of job demands-resources and the interaction term. As far as the coefficients are concerned, in Model 1, emotional intelligence has a significant positive effect on work commitment ($p = 0.045$), with a standardized coefficient (beta) of 0.160. In Model 2, both emotional intelligence and job demands-resources have significant positive

effects on work commitment ($p < 0.05$ for both), with standardized coefficients of 0.049 and 0.481, respectively. In Model 3, emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and their interaction term are all significant predictors of work commitment ($p < 0.05$ for all). The interaction term indicates that the effect of emotional intelligence on work commitment is moderated by job demands-resources. Thus, the null hypothesis H_{02} is rejected to imply that there is a significant moderating effect of job demands-resources to the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of the millennial workers in the Kenya's telecommunication sector. The predictive model can be substituted from the results as follows:

$Y = -1.345 + 0.539X_1 + 1.267X_2 - 0.137X_1 * X_2 + \varepsilon$ where Y is work commitment, X_1 is emotional intelligence, X_2 is job demands-resources and ε is the error term.

The results of the study corroborate with those of another study by Krishna (2023) who conducted a meta-analysis on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job demands on employee performance which a function of work commitment. The results showed that emotional intelligence impacted positively on employee performance. In addition, job demands were found to explain the relationship between emotional intelligence and employee performance (Mokhtar & Krishnan, 2023).

In addition, the results of the study agreed with another study conducted by Herr, Vianen, Bosle and Fischer (2021) to examine the patterns of associations of job demands and resources with work engagement and mental health. The sample was drawn from the institute for Employment Establishment Panel using stratified sampling. The findings showed that job demands and job resources influenced work engagement and mental health negatively and positively respectively (Herr, Vianen, Bosle & Fischer, 2021)

Moreover, the study also agreed with another study conducted by Rai and Chawla (2022) to explore the interrelationships among job resources, job demands, work and organization engagement of junior management grade 1 officers in 27 public sector banks in India. The findings showed that job demands moderated the relationship between job resources and work engagement (Rai & Chawla, 2022). The results also agreed with the results of a study conducted by Lambert, Qureshi, Holbrook, Frank and Hines (2022) to examine the effect

of workplace variables on organizational commitment using job demands-resources model. The findings showed that job demands have no significant effect on organizational commitment. Conversely, the components of job resources considered in the study were found to be positively and significantly associated with organizational commitment (Lambert, Qureshi, Holbrook, Frank & Hines, 2022).

The study also agreed with a study conducted by Patience, De Braine and Dhanpat (2020) to investigate the impact of job demands and job resources on work engagement of public and private sector nurses in Johannesburg, South Africa. The results showed that meaningful work contributed the largest variance in work engagement among nurses in both public and private sector. In addition, career advancement was associated with work engagement for both public and private sector nurses. While emotional demands imparted negatively on the engagement levels of public sector nurses, the study found that the nurses' perceptions of meaningful work, leader-member exchange and career advancement enhanced their work engagement. (Patience, De Braine and Dhanpa, 2020).

The study also agrees with a similar study conducted by Hameli and Ordun (2022) to explore the mediating influence of self-efficacy on the connection between Emotional Intelligence (EI) and work commitment among employees from various organizations in Kosovo. They utilized a sample of one hundred and forty-five respondents. The results indicated a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy, as well as a correlation between self-efficacy and organizational commitment (Hameli & Ordun, 2022).

The findings of the current study also corroborated with a study conducted by Balogun and Afolabi (2019) to explore the moderating roles of job demands and resources on the relationship between work engagement and family conflict among working mothers in the banking industry in Nigeria. The findings of the study revealed that work engagement exhibited a positive correlation with work-family conflict among the participants. Furthermore, the study identified that job demands and resources played a significant moderating role in the relationship between work engagement and work-family conflict (Balogun & Afolabi, 2019).

4.4.3.3 Mediating Effect of Occupational Self-Efficacy

The second objective of the study was to establish whether occupational self-efficacy mediated the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in Kenyan telecommunication sector. The following hypothesis was developed to address this objective:

H_{O3} There is no significant mediation effect of occupation self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and millennial work commitment in Kenya's telecommunication sector.

The hypothesis was tested by using path analysis proposed by (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Simple linear regressions were used in step one, two and three. In step one, work commitment was regressed against emotional intelligence. In step two, the predictor variable was emotional intelligence while occupational self-efficacy was the criterion variable. In step three, work commitment and occupational self-efficacy constituted the criterion and predictor variable respectively. Multiple linear regression analysis was used in step four where work commitment was regressed on emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy. Mediation by occupational self-efficacy, the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment can either be full, partial, or none. Full mediation occurs when the statistical tests in all the first three steps are significant and in addition, results in step four show a main significant effect for occupational self-efficacy (a mediator) and an insignificant effect for emotional intelligence (independent variable). Partial mediation, on the other hand, is inferred when all or any of the results in the first three steps are significant or when in step four, the effect of emotional intelligence (independent variable) on work commitment is not significant in the presence of occupational self-efficacy (mediator) but the value of the effect is above zero. The results of hypothesis two are presented in tables 33,34 and 35.

Step 1: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$ where Y is work commitment, X_1 is emotional intelligence, β_0 is constant, β_1 is the coefficient of X_1 , and ε is the error term.

In step one, emotional intelligence was regressed against work commitment, and the results are presented in Table 33.

Table 33: Regression Results for the Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Work Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.160[a]	.026	.018	.622	2.167

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.341	1	1.341	3.471	.045[b]
	Residual	51.001	132	.386		
	Total	52.343	133			

Coefficients

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	2.636	.360		7.315	.000
	Emotional Intelligence	.166	.089	.160	1.863	.045

a. Dependent Variable: Work Commitment
b. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence
p = 0.05

Results presented in Table 33, indicate that emotional intelligence had a significant effect on the work commitment of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector ($r = 0.16$, $R^2 = 0.26$, $F = 3.471$ $P = 0.045 < 0.05$). The model thus indicates a weak positive correlation between the variables and that emotional intelligence explains 2.6% of the variation in work commitment of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector. This implies that the independent variable explained only a small portion of the variability observed in the dependent variable. The low R-Square value suggests that other variables beyond those accounted for in the linear regression model may play a significant role in influencing the dependent variable.

The ANOVA results revealed a marginally significant effect of emotional intelligence on work commitment, $F(1, 132) = 3.471$, $p = .045$). The regression model accounted for 1.341 units of the total variance in the outcome variable, which was statistically significant at the margin level ($p = .045$). The remaining variance (51.001 units) was unexplained by the model. The model in step 1 is thus;

$$Y = 2.363 + 0.166X_1 + \varepsilon,$$

where Y is the work commitment and X_1 is emotional intelligence and ε is the error term.

Step 2: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$ where Y is occupational self-efficacy, X_1 is emotional intelligence, β_0 is constant, β_1 is the coefficient of X_1 and ε is the error term.

In step two, occupational self-efficacy was regressed against emotional intelligence and the results are represented in Table 34.

Table 34: Regression Results for the Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Occupational Self-Efficacy

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.547[a]	.299	.294	.421	1.830

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9.994	1	9.994	56.420	.000[b]
	Residual	23.383	132	.177		
	Total	33.377	133			

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients
		B	Std. Error	Beta
1	(Constant)	2.510	.244	
	Emotional Intelligence	.452	.060	.547

a. Dependent Variable: Occupational Self-Efficacy
b. Independent Variable: Emotional Intelligence
P = 0.05

The results of Table 34 show the regression analysis results for the effect of EI on occupational self-efficacy. The coefficient of determination (R-squared) is 0.299, indicating that emotional intelligence, explains approximately 29.9% of the variance in occupational self-efficacy. The adjusted R-squared, which considers the number of predictors, is 0.294. The standard error of the estimate is 0.421, representing the average distance that the observed values fall from the regression line. The Durbin-Watson statistic

is 1.830, suggesting no significant autocorrelation in the residuals. The ANOVA table indicates that the regression model is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$), with an F-statistic of 56.420 and associated degrees of freedom (df) of 1 for regression and 132 for residual. The intercept coefficient is 2.510 with a standard error of 0.244. The coefficient for EI is 0.452 with a standard error of 0.060. The standardized coefficient (Beta) is 0.547, indicating a moderate positive effect of emotional intelligence on occupational self-efficacy. Overall, the model suggests that Emotional Intelligence has a statistically significant positive effect on Occupational Self-Efficacy, explaining approximately 29.9% of the variance in Occupational Self-Efficacy scores. The model in this step is given by:

$$\boldsymbol{Y = 2.51 + 0.452X_1 + \varepsilon,}$$

where Y is the occupational self-efficacy and X_1 is emotional intelligence and ε is the error term

Step 3: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$ where Y is work commitment, X_1 occupational self-efficacy, β_0 is constant, β_1 is the coefficient of X_1 and ε is the error term.

In step three, work commitment was regressed against occupational self-efficacy. The result of the linear regression is expressed in Table 35.

Table 35: Regression Results for the Effect of Occupational Self-Efficacy on Work Commitment

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.402[a]	.162	.156	.576	2.292

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8.479	1	8.479	25.514	.000[b]
	Residual	43.864	132	.332		
	Total	52.343	133			

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients
		B	Std. Error	Beta
1	(Constant)	1.121	.434	
	Occupational Self Efficacy	.504	.100	.402

Dependent Variable: Work Commitment
Predictors: (Constant), Occupational Self Efficacy
p = 0.05

The results in Table 35 show the regression analysis for the effect of occupational self-efficacy on work commitment. The coefficient of determination (R-squared) is 0.162, indicating that approximately 16.2% of the variance in Work Commitment is explained by the predictor, Occupational Self-Efficacy. The adjusted R-squared, which considers the number of predictors, is 0.156. The standard error of the estimate is 0.576, representing the average distance that the observed values fall from the regression line. The Durbin-Watson statistic is 2.292, suggesting no significant autocorrelation in the residuals. The ANOVA table indicates that the regression model is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$), with an F-statistic of 25.514 and associated degrees of freedom (df) of 1 for regression and 132 for residual. For the model coefficients, the intercept coefficient is 1.121 with a standard error of 0.434. The coefficient for occupational self-efficacy is 0.504 with a standard error of 0.100. The standardized coefficient (Beta) is 0.402, indicating a moderate positive effect of occupational self-efficacy on work commitment. Overall, the model suggests that occupational self-efficacy has a statistically significant positive effect on Work Commitment, explaining approximately 16.2% of the variance in Work Commitment scores. The model in this step is given by:

$$\boldsymbol{Y = 1.121 + 0.504X_1 + \varepsilon,}$$

where Y is the work commitment and X_1 is occupational self-efficacy and ε is the error term

Step 4: $\boldsymbol{Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon}$ where Y is work commitment, $\boldsymbol{X_1}$ is emotional intelligence, $\boldsymbol{X_2}$ occupational self-efficacy, $\boldsymbol{\beta_0}$ is constant, $\boldsymbol{\beta_1}$ and $\boldsymbol{\beta_2}$ is the coefficient of $\boldsymbol{X_1}$ $\boldsymbol{and}$ $\boldsymbol{X_2}$ respectively and ε is error term.

In step four, a multiple regression is conducted on work commitment against emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy. The results are presented in Table 36.

Table 36: Multiple Regression Results for the Effect of EI and OSE on Work Commitment

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.409[a]	.167	.154	.577	2.324

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8.749	2	4.374	13.145	.000[b]
	Residual	43.594	131	.333		
	Total	52.343	133			

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients
		B	Std. Error	Beta
1	(Constant)	1.223	.449	
	Occupational Self Efficacy	.563	.119	.449
	Emotional Intelligence	.089	.098	.086

a. Dependent Variable: Work Commitment
b. Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence, Occupational Self efficacy

The results in Table 36 show the regression analysis for the effect of emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy on work commitment. The coefficient of determination (R-squared) is 0.167, indicating that the predictors in the model explain approximately 16.7% of the variance in work commitment. The adjusted R-squared, which considers the number of predictors, is 0.154. The standard error of the estimate is 0.577, representing the average distance that the observed values fall from the regression line. The Durbin-Watson statistic is 2.324, suggesting no significant autocorrelation in the residuals. The ANOVA table indicates that the regression model is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$), with an F-statistic of 13.145 and associated degrees of freedom (df) of 2 for regression and 131 for residual. For the model coefficients, the intercept coefficient is 1.223 with a standard error of 0.449 while the coefficient for occupational self-efficacy is 0.563 with a standard error of 0.119. The standardized coefficient (Beta) is 0.449, indicating a moderate positive effect of occupational self-efficacy on work commitment. The coefficient for emotional intelligence is 0.089 with a standard error of 0.098. The standardized coefficient (Beta) is 0.086, indicating a weak positive effect of emotional intelligence on work commitment.

To test for mediation, three conditions were assessed. First, path A requires that emotional intelligence significantly predicts occupational self-efficacy. Secondly, path B, examines whether occupational self-efficacy significantly predicts work commitment. Thirdly, path C inspects whether emotional intelligence significantly predicts work commitment without considering the mediator, occupational self-efficacy. Finally, path D tests the effect of emotional intelligence on work commitment when occupation self-efficient is included in the model. If the effect of emotional intelligence decreases or becomes non-significant when occupational self-efficacy is accounted for, it indicates full or partial mediation, respectively.

In the current study, for path B, occupational self-efficacy significantly predicts work commitment **(**B = 0.563, p = 0.000**),** indicating a strong positive relationship. This fulfills one of the conditions for mediation. For path D, the direct effect of emotional intelligence on work commitment when occupational self-efficacy is included in the model becomes non-significant **(**B = 0.089, p = 0.363**).** This suggests that the effect of emotional intelligence on work commitment is not statistically significant when occupational self-efficacy is considered, implying the possibility of mediation. The null hypothesis for this test states that there is no mediating effect of occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment**.** However, based on the results of the study, occupational self-efficacy significantly predicts work commitment, and emotional intelligence does not significantly predict work commitment when occupational self-efficacy was included in the model. Since occupational self-efficacy significantly predicts work commitment, and the direct effect of emotional intelligence on work commitment becomes non-significant when occupational self-efficacy is included in the model. Thus, the null hypothesis H_{03} is rejected to imply that there is a significant mediating effect of occupational self-efficacy to the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of the millennial workers in Kenya's telecommunication sector. This implies that occupational self-efficacy mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. Thus, while occupational self-efficacy mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment, there may still be some

unexplained direct effect of emotional intelligence on work commitment, leading to partial mediation.

The predictive model can be substituted from the results as follows:

$$\boldsymbol{Y = 1.223 + 0.563X_1 - 0.089X_2 + \varepsilon}$$

where Y is the work commitment, X_1 is occupational self-efficacy, X_2 is emotional intelligence and ε is the error term.

The results of the study corroborated with another study conducted by Chesnut and Burley (2015) conducted a meta-analysis on self-efficacy as a predictor of commitment to the teaching profession. A total of 33 studies were considered in the final analysis. The findings suggested that the teachers' self-efficacy influence their commitment to the teaching profession (Chesnut & Burley, 2015)**.** Liu and Huang (2019) conducted a study to examine the impact of occupational self-efficacy on organization commitment and its influence on work engagement. The results showed that occupational self-efficacy had a positive correlation with organization commitment (E. Liu & Huang, 2019). The study also agreed with a study conducted by Orgambídez, Borrego and Vazquez-Aguado (2019) on the mediation role of work engagement between self-efficacy and affective organizational commitment among nursing professionals in Spain. A convenience sample of 324 participants was selected for the study. The results showed that affective organizational commitment was positively predicted by self-efficacy and work engagement (Orgambídez, Borrego & Vazquez-Aguado, 2019). In addition, the current study also agreed with another study conducted by Na-Nan, Kanthong and Joungtrakul to investigate the direct and indirect influence of self-efficacy on organizational citizenship behavior transmitted through employee engagement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. The results revealed that self-efficacy had a direct influence on organizational citizenship behavior with statistical significance. In addition, employee engagement and organizational commitment are mediators in the transmission of effective organizational citizen behavior (Na-Nan, Kanthong & Joungtrakul, 2021).

The findings of the study agree with a study conducted by Black, Kim, Rhee, Wang and Sakchutchawan (2019) to examine the effect of emotional intelligence on team cohesiveness of 35 teams of Business university students in USA. The study assessed the mediation effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and team cohesion. High emotional intelligence was found to promote self-efficacy resulting in increased team cohesion, team performance and participation. Self-efficacy was found to mediate the relationship between emotional intelligence and team cohesion. (Black, Kim, Rhee, Wang and Sakchutchawan, 2019)

4.4.3.4 Moderation-Mediation Effect

The fourth objective of the study was to investigate the moderation-mediation effect of job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in the Kenyan telecommunication sector. The following null hypothesis was developed to address this objective:

H_{O4} There is no significant moderation-mediation effect of job demands-resources and occupation self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in the Kenyan telecommunication sector.

Hayes process Macro SPSS model 7 was used to test this hypothesis and the results are presented in Tables 37, 38, 39, and 40.

Table 37: Regression Results (Process Model) for the Direct Relationship Between EI and OSE as moderated by JD-R

OUTCOME VARIABLE: Occupational Self-Efficacy (OSE)

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.6533	.4268	.1472	32.2632	3.0000	130.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.3460	.0339	128.3836	.0000	4.2790	4.4130
EI	.4458	.0579	7.7052	.0000	.3313	.5602
JDR	.3150	.0822	3.8332	.0002	.1524	.4776
Int_1	-.4221	.1196	-3.5301	.0006	-.6586	-.1855

Product terms key:

Int_1	:	EI	x	JDR

EI: Emotional Intelligence
JDR: Job Demands-Resources

The results in Table 37 show the regression results for the direct relationship between EI and occupational self-efficacy as moderated by job demands-resource. The coefficient of determination (R-squared) is 0.4268, indicating that approximately 42.68% of the variance in Occupational Self-Efficacy (OSE) is explained by the predictors in the model. The Mean Squared Error (MSE) is 0.1472. The F-statistic is 32.2632 with associated degrees of freedom (df1 = 3, df2 = 130) and a significant p-value (< .05), indicating that the overall model is statistically significant. For the model coefficients, the intercept coefficient is 4.3460 with a standard error of 0.0339. The t-value is very high at 128.3836, indicating a significant intercept (p < .05). The coefficient for emotional intelligence is 0.4458 with a standard error of 0.0579 and a high t-value of 7.7052 (p < .05, suggesting a significant positive relationship between EI and OSE. The coefficient for JDR is 0.3150 with a standard error of 0.0822 and a significant t-value of 3.8332 (p = .0002), indicating a significant positive relationship between JDR and OSE. The coefficient for the interaction term Int_1 is -0.4221 with a standard error of 0.1196. The t-value is -3.5301 with a significant p-value of .0006, suggesting that the interaction between EI and JDR has a significant effect on OSE. The negative coefficient for the interaction term indicates that the relationship between EI and OSE is moderated by JDR. Specifically, the relationship between EI and occupational self-efficacy becomes weaker (or even negative) at higher levels of JDR, as evidenced by the negative coefficient of the interaction term.

The model is represented by the equation:

$$Y = 4.346 + 0.4458X_1 + 0.315X_2 - 0.422X_3 + e$$

Where Y represents occupational self-efficacy, X_1 represents emotional intelligence, X_2 represents job demands-resources, X_3 represents the interactive term (EI * JDR) while e represents the error term.

Table 38: Regression Results (Process Model) for the Direct Relationship EI Work commitment as Mediated by OSE

OUTCOME VARIABLE: Work Commitment (WC)

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.4088	.1671	.3328	13.1453	2.0000	131.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	.8671	.5180	1.6741	.0965	-.1575	1.8918
EI	.0888	.0985	.9014	.045	-.2836	-.1061
OSE	.5628	.1193	4.7181	.0000	.3269	.7988

EI: Emotional Intelligence

OSE: Occupational Self-Efficacy

Table 38 represents the regression results for the direct relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and Work Commitment as mediated by Occupational Self-Efficacy. The coefficient of determination (R-squared) is 0.1671, indicating that approximately 16.71% of the variance in Work Commitment is explained by the predictors in the model. The Mean Squared Error (MSE) is 0.3328. The F-statistic is 13.1453 with associated degrees of freedom (df1 = 2, df2 = 131) and a significant p-value (< .005), indicating that the overall model is statistically significant. For the model coefficients, the intercept coefficient is 0.8671 with a standard error of 0.5180. The t-value is 1.6741 with a non-significant p-value of .0965. The coefficient for EI is 0.0888 with a standard error of 0.0985 and a t-value of 0.9014 (p = .045), suggesting a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. The coefficient for OSE is 0.5628 with a standard error of 0.1193 and a high t-value of 4.7181 (p < .05), indicating a significant positive relationship between occupational self-efficacy and work commitment. The results suggest that emotional Intelligence has a significant positive direct effect on work commitment. Additionally, Occupational Self-Efficacy also has a significant positive direct effect on work commitment. This implies that both emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy independently contribute to higher levels of work commitment among individuals. The model is represented by the equation:

$$Y = 0.8671 - 0.0888X_1 + 0.5628X_2 + e$$

Where Y represents work commitment, X_1 represent emotional intelligence, X_2 represents occupational self-efficacy, while e represents the error term.

Table 39: Regression Results (Process Model) for the Direct and indirect Relationship EI on Work commitment when Moderated by JD-R

Direct effect of EI on WC

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.0888	.0985	.9014	0.045	-.2836	-.1061

Indirect Effect: Conditional indirect effects of EI on WC

EI -> OSE -> WC

JDR	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
-.4167	.3499	.0844	.1819	.5170
.0000	.2509	.0648	.1227	.3792
.4167	.1519	.0664	.0112	.2724

In Table 39, the regression results for the direct and indirect relationship between EI and work commitment when moderated by job demands-resources are presented. The direct effect coefficient of emotional intelligence on work commitment is 0.0888, with a standard error of 0.0985 and a t-value of 0.9014 at p = 0.045 < 0.05. The 95% confidence interval for the direct effect ranges from -0.2836 to - 0.1061. The conditional indirect effects of emotional intelligence on work commitment through occupational self-efficacy at different levels of job demands-resources are as follows. When job demands-resources = -0.4167, the conditional indirect effect of EI on WC via OSE is 0.3499, with a bootstrap standard error (BootSE) of 0.0844. The 95% confidence interval for this effect ranges from 0.1819 to 0.5170. When JDR = 0, the conditional indirect effect of EI on WC via OSE is 0.2509, with a bootstrap standard error (BootSE) of 0.0648. The 95% confidence interval for this effect ranges from 0.1227 to 0.3792. When JDR = 0.4167, the conditional indirect effect of EI on WC via OSE is 0.1519, with a bootstrap standard error (BootSE) of 0.0664. The 95% confidence interval for this effect ranges from 0.0112 to 0.2724. These results suggest a significant positive direct effect of EI on WC (p = 0.045) and conditional indirect effects of EI on WC via OSE, which vary at different levels of JDR. Higher levels of JDR appear to strengthen the indirect effect of EI on WC via OSE.

Table 40: Regression Results (Process Model) for the Index of Moderated Mediation

	Index of moderated mediation			
	Index	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
JDR	-.2376	.0951	-.4670	-.0943

In Table 40, the regression results for the index of moderated mediation are presented. The index of moderated mediation for Job Demands-Resources (JDR) is calculated as -0.2376. The bootstrap standard error (BootSE) for this index is 0.0951. The 95% bootstrap confidence interval for the index ranges from -0.4670 to -0.0943. This index indicates the strength and direction of the moderation effect of JDR on the indirect relationship between EI and work commitment through occupational self-efficacy. The negative value of the index suggests that higher levels of JDR weaken the indirect effect of EI on WC through OSE, indicating a moderated mediation effect. Thus, the null hypothesis H_{04} is rejected to imply that there is a significant moderated mediation effect of job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of the millennial workers in Kenya's telecommunication sector.

The results of the study agreed with another study conducted on the impact of emotional intelligence, increasing job demands behavior and subjective well-being on teachers' performance. In addition, increasing job demands behavior had a moderating effect on the relationship between emotional intelligence and teachers' performance (Amirian, Amirian and Kousavi, 2023)

The study also agreed with the results of a study conducted by Skaalvik (2020) to investigate the associations between the school principals' self-efficacy for instructional leadership, their perception of job demands and job resources, emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and motivation to quit in Norway. The results showed that self-efficacy for instructional leadership was negatively associated with the perceptions of the job resources in the study. In addition, the associations between self-efficacy and emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and motivation to quit were indirect, mediated through the perception of job demands and job resources. Practically, the study indicates a need to reduce excessive

demands so that school principals can devote time and energy to instructional leadership (Skaalvik, 2020). The current study is in a different sector – telecommunications industry.

In addition, the results of the study agreed with those of a study conducted by Kumar and Devi (2016) on the relationship between emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy of secondary school teachers of Haryana in India. The result showed that emotional intelligence is positively correlated with occupational self-efficacy. Emotional intelligence scale by Hyde, Pethe and Dhar and Occupational self-efficacy scale by Pethe, Chaudhary and Dhar were used to measure emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy respectively in the study. (Kumar & Devi 2016). The results also agreed with those of a study conducted by Balogun and Afolabi (2019) on the moderating roles of job demands and resources on the relationship between work engagement and family conflict among working mothers in the banking industry in Nigeria. The findings showed that work engagement was positively correlated to work-family conflict. In addition, job demands and resources were found to significantly moderate the relationship between work engagement and work-family conflict. This shows that organizations can reduce the effect of work engagement on work-family conflict among their employees by identifying the impact of job demands and producing adequate job resources (Balogun & Afolabi, 2019).

The results of the study also agreed with those of a study conducted by Kostic-Bobanovic (2020) to investigate the perceived self-efficacy and emotional intelligence among foreign language teachers in Istria, Croatia. The results showed that emotional intelligence and perceived self-efficacy are positively correlated among the foreign language teachers. In addition, the scores of the self-management and social factors of emotional intelligence were high among the experienced teachers (Kostić-Bobanović, 2020). In addition, the results of the study agreed with another study conducted by Hameli and Ordun (2022) to examine the mediating role of self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment among employees of different organizations in Kosovo (Hameli & Ordun, 2022).

The results of the study also agreed with those of another study conducted by Damayanti, Yahya, Yean, Maasir and Abdullah (2022) to examine the role of self-efficacy in mediating the relationship between work values, emotional intelligence, and career commitment

among generation Y employees in the banking sector in Indonesia. The results of the study showed a significant positive relationship between work values and emotional intelligence with career commitment. The results further showed that self-efficacy moderates the relationship between work values and emotional intelligence (Damayanti, Yahya, Yean, Maasir & Abdullah, 2022).

4.5 Limitations of the Study

The current study, while contributing valuable insights, also encountered several limitations inherent in the research process. Limitations in research, as defined by Kumar (2011), encompass structural challenges and methodological constraints that may impact the validity and generalizability of study findings. Firstly, the research was confined to the telecommunication sector, representing a single industry. While this focused approach facilitated in-depth exploration within a specific context, it may restrict the generalizability of the results to millennial employees in other sectors. Future research endeavors may adopt a multi-sectoral approach, encompassing diverse industries, to compare the relationships among emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, occupational self-efficacy, and work commitment among millennials across different organizational settings. Moreover, the utilization of a cross-sectional research design poses limitations regarding the establishment of causality. While this design facilitated data collection at a single point in time, it precludes the assessment of temporal relationships and causal effects over time. To address this limitation, future research initiatives may adopt a longitudinal design, enabling the examination of dynamic changes and causal pathways unfolding over an extended period. Such longitudinal studies would provide valuable insights into the temporal dynamics of the hypothesized relationships, thus enhancing our understanding of the underlying mechanisms driving millennial work commitment.

Furthermore, the reliance on self-reported data may introduce biases and inaccuracies into the research findings. Participants' subjective interpretations and perceptions of their emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, occupational self-efficacy, and work commitment may influence the validity and reliability of the results. To mitigate this

limitation, future studies could employ complementary assessment methods, such as the 360-degree feedback approach, which incorporates multiple perspectives from peers, supervisors, and subordinates to provide a more comprehensive and balanced evaluation. Lastly, while the current study focused on job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy as moderator and mediator variables, respectively, in the relationship between emotional intelligence and millennial work commitment, it is essential to acknowledge the potential existence of additional moderators and mediators that were not examined within the scope of this study. Future research endeavors may explore alternative factors and variables that could exert influence on the relationships under investigation, thereby enriching our understanding of the complex interplay between individual and contextual factors shaping millennial work commitment.

4.6 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presented the analysis of the data collected and a discussion of the findings. The study utilized descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and regression analysis using the IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software for Windows version 24. including Hayes process model 7 for the moderate-mediated relationship. In addition, the chapter presented the findings and summary of the four hypotheses of the study. Correlation and regression analysis results confirmed a significant relationship between EI and the work commitment of millennial employees in the Kenyan telecommunication sector. In addition, the study confirmed that job demands-resources moderated the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. Moreover, the study confirmed that occupational self-efficacy offered partial mediation to the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector. Lastly, the moderated-mediated effect of job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment was confirmed.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter is crafted to discuss the findings of the study. The sections are organized to explore the results regarding the effect of emotional intelligence and work commitment among millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunications sector. Furthermore, it delves into the moderating effect of job demands-resources and the mediating effect of occupational self-efficacy to the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment. The discussions entail interpreting the findings and juxtaposing them with existing literature to highlight areas of agreement and divergence.

5.1 Summary of the Findings

This study sets out with the aim of assessing four objectives. Four hypotheses were set out to address each hypothesis. The discussion revolves around the research findings, particularly from the tests of the hypotheses. Various statistical techniques were used to test the hypotheses. The statistical techniques comprise of first, simple linear regression to test the relationship between EI and work commitment. In addition, stepwise regression analysis by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used to test the moderating and the mediating relationship of job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy respectively between emotional and work commitment. Lastly, the Hayes Macro process model 7 for SPSS was used to test the moderated-mediated relationship of job demand-resources and occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees working in Kenyan telecommunication sector. The discussion is structured along the research objectives in subsequent sections.

5.1.1. Emotional Intelligence and Work Commitment

The first objective of the study was to establish the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in Kenya’s telecommunication

sector. A simple regression model was used to test the statistical significance of the independent variable (emotional intelligence) on the dependent variable (work commitment) of millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunication sector. The first hypothesis stated in the null form that there is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunication sector. This hypothesis was tested by regressing the emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunication sector.

In testing the first hypothesis H_{01}, the results of the regression analysis are presented in the Model Summary and ANOVA tables. The R^2 value of 2.6% indicates that emotional intelligence accounts for only a small portion of the variance in work commitment. This suggests that 97.4% of the variance remains unexplained, which reflects the model's low explanatory power. There are several possible explanations for this result. First, emotional intelligence, while significant, may not be the most dominant factor influencing work commitment. Work commitment is likely shaped by a range of other variables, such as job satisfaction, organizational culture, leadership style, and personal values, which were not included in the model. The addition of other predictors, as seen in Model 2 with Job Demands-Resources (JDR), significantly improves the model's explanatory power, raising the R^2 to 24.5%. This suggests that emotional intelligence alone may be insufficient to explain the complex dynamics of work commitment.

In addition, contextual factors, such as organizational policies or industry-specific characteristics, could moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment, potentially reducing the explanatory power of the model. Therefore, while emotional intelligence plays a role in predicting work commitment, the low R^2 indicates that additional factors should be considered to explain fully the variations in work commitment. Future research could benefit from including a broader range of predictors to improve the model's ability to capture the complexity of this outcome.

5.1.2 Emotional Intelligence, Job Demands-Resources and Work Commitment

The second objective of the study was to determine the moderating effect of job demands-resources on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunication sector. The second hypothesis of the study was stated in the null form was that there is no significant moderating effect of job demands-resources on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of the millennial employees in the Kenyan telecommunication sector. Stepwise regression analysis was used to test the hypothesis. The moderating effect of job demands-resources on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment was assessed, and results explained using coefficient of determination (R-Square), Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and the regression coefficients. Hierarchical regression analysis was performed with an interaction term (a product of emotional intelligence and job demands-resources) introduced as an additional predictor. Results indicate that the p value of the interaction term (EI * JD-R) is $p = 0.000 < 0.05$ and the R square increased from 2.6%, to 24.9% after the interaction term was included in the model and thus, job demands-resources moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunication sector. The study thus rejected the null hypothesis and adopted the alternative hypothesis that there is a significant moderating effect of job demands-resources on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunication sector. These findings highlight the importance of job demands-resources in shaping the impact of emotional intelligence on work commitment, suggesting that the balance between job demands and available resources plays a critical role in how emotional intelligence influences employees' commitment to their work.

5.1.3 Emotional Intelligence, Occupational Self-Efficacy and Work Commitment

The third objective of the study was to examine the mediating effect of occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunication sector. The null hypothesis was stated as; there is no significant mediation effect of occupational self-efficacy on the relationship

between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector. This hypothesis was tested using Baron & Kenny (1986) stepwise analysis. Steps one, two and three were used to establish the direct relationships among the variables: emotional intelligence, occupational self-efficacy and work commitment. In step one, work commitment was regressed against emotional intelligence. In step two, occupational self-efficacy was regressed against emotional intelligence. In step three, work commitment was regressed against occupational self-efficacy. Multiple linear regression analysis was used in step four where work commitment was regressed on emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy. Mediation can be full, partial or none. Full mediation occurs when the direct effect of the independent variable on the independent variable is insignificant while the indirect effect through the mediator is significant. The results of mediation were expressed using the coefficient of determination (R-Square), Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and the regression coefficients. Steps 1, 2 and 3 had p-values below 0.1. In addition, in step 4 the p value for multiple linear regression was also below 0.1. Therefore, this indicate that there was a partial mediation effect of occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial workers in Kenya's telecommunication sector.

5.1.4 Emotional Intelligence, Job Demands-Resources, Occupational Self-Efficacy and Work Commitment

The fourth objective of the study was to determine the moderation-mediation effect of job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy to the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunication sector. The null hypothesis was developed to address this objective and stated as; there is no moderation-mediation effect of job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy to the relationship between emotional intelligence and millennial work commitment in Kenya's telecommunication sector. Hayes process Macro SPSS model 7 was used to test this hypothesis (Hayes & Rockwood, 2020). The effect was assessed, and results explained using the model parameters, direct effect of emotional on work commitment moderated by job demands-resources, index of moderated-mediation and bootstrap results for regression model parameters. The index of moderated-mediated relationship shows that the effect is

significant for the model. This is because the bootstrapping upper and lower limits of the confidence intervals are negative. Therefore, the study rejected the null hypothesis and adopted the alternative hypothesis that there is a significant moderation-mediation effect of job demands-resources (moderator) and occupational self-efficacy (mediator) on the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector.

5.1.5 Summary of Research Findings

Table 41: Summary of Research Findings

Objectives	Hypotheses	Hypotheses Test Results
Objective 1		
To establish the relationship between emotional intelligence and millennial work commitment in Kenya's telecommunication sector.	**H_{01}:** There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and millennial work commitment in Kenya's telecommunication sector.	Rejected
Objective 2		
To establish the moderating effect of job demands-resources on the relationship between emotional intelligence and millennial work commitment in Kenya's telecommunication sector.	**H_{02}:** There is no significant moderating effect of job demands-resources on the relationship between emotional intelligence and millennial work commitment in Kenya's telecommunication sector	Rejected
Objective 3		
To determine the mediating effect of occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and millennial work commitment in Kenya's telecommunication sector	**H_{03}:** There is no significant of job demands-resources on the relationship between emotional intelligence and millennial work commitment in Kenya's telecommunication sector	Rejected

Objectives	Hypotheses	Hypotheses Test Results
Objective 4		
To determine moderation - mediation effect of job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and millennial work commitment in Kenya's telecommunication sector	**$H0_4$**: There is no significant mediation – moderator effect of job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional intelligence and millennial work commitment in Kenya's telecommunication sector	Rejected

5.2 The Optimal Model

The results of the investigation were used to inform the model optimization. The goal of model optimization was to direct the development of the final model, which includes the significant variables of the study for objectivity. Different analyses were used to obtain the results. Upon analyzing the data and testing the hypothesis, the optimal model of the study is presented in Figure 4.

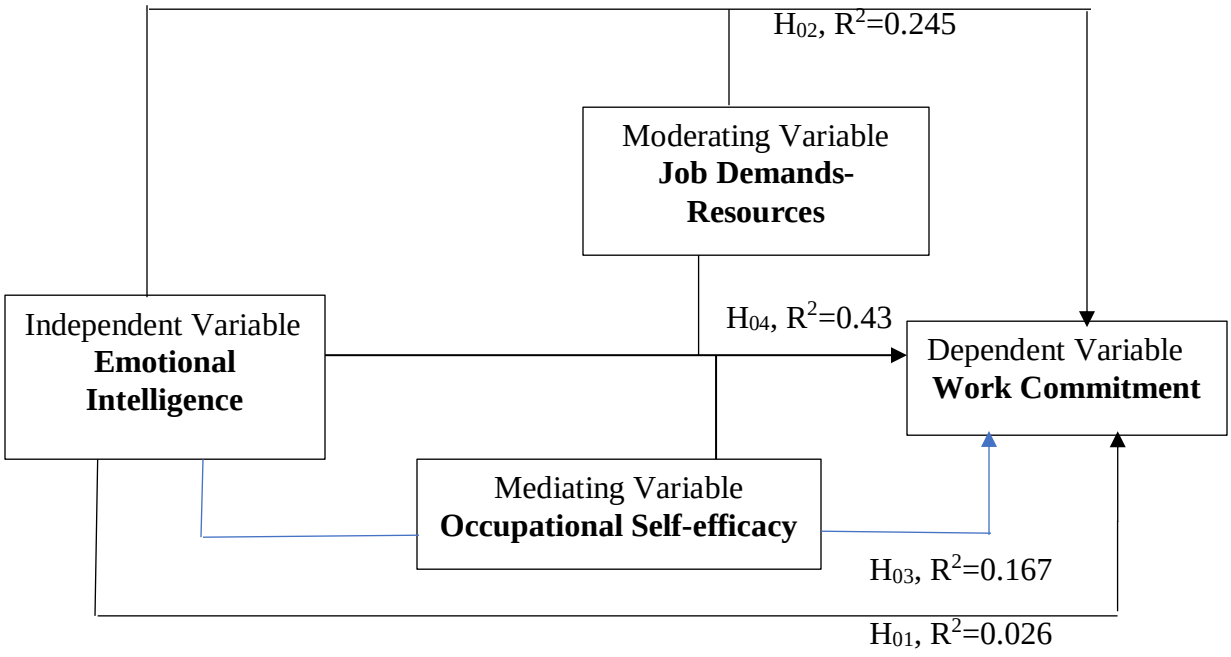


Figure 5: The Optimal Model

The model in Figure 4 indicates that no variable was dropped since all null hypotheses of the study were rejected and the model was accepted as conceptualized and is therefore the optimal model.

5.3 Conclusions

The study's findings strongly supported the theoretical framework, since all the hypothesized relationships exhibited statistically significant path coefficients. The research investigated the complex interplay between emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, occupational self-efficacy, and their impact on the millennial work commitment within the context of Kenya's telecommunication sector. Through a comprehensive analysis of survey data collected from employees in this sector, several key insights have been established that contribute to both theoretical understanding and practical implications. The findings of the study provide robust support for the hypothesized relationships. Firstly, it was established that emotional intelligence is a significant predictor of millennial work commitment. This highlights the importance of individuals' ability to understand and regulate their own emotions as well as those of others in fostering commitment to their work roles. It is worth noting that emotional intelligence skills can be developed through training and practice.

Secondly, the analysis revealed that job demands-resources have a moderating effect in shaping the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment among millennials. Precisely, favorable job demands, and adequate resources were found to enhance the positive impact of emotional intelligence on work commitment, emphasizing the importance of organizational support and conducive work environments. Organizational leadership ought to put emphasis on job analysis, systematically gathering information about a job by analyzing its tasks, duties, responsibilities, and requirements seek feedback from the employees with the aim of identifying the job demands and resources. The baseline of the job demands, and job resources established will offer the foundation for action.

Thirdly, the study concluded that occupational self-efficacy offered a partial mediation to the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment, suggesting that individuals' confidence in their ability to perform job tasks effectively mediates the influence of emotional intelligence on their commitment to their work roles. Since occupational self-efficacy can be enhanced through the provision of training and development opportunities, organizations should invest in such training programs.

Lastly the study showed the existence of a moderated-mediated effect of job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy to the relationship between emotional intelligence and work commitment of millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector.

5.4 Implications of the Current Study

The findings obtained from this study carry profound implications that extend beyond academia, permeating into the practical domains of organizational management and policymaking within Kenya's telecommunication sector. These implications can be categorized into three overarching domains: theoretical contributions, organizational practices, and policymaking. Each implication is discussed in subsequent sections.

5.4.1 Theoretical Contributions

The findings of this study may contribute to the growing body of literature on emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and occupational self-efficacy by providing empirical evidence within the unique context of the telecommunication sector in Kenya. The study contributes to the existing body of literature on emotional intelligence by highlighting its positive impact on work commitment among millennials working in Kenya's telecommunication sector. The study also highlights the positive impact of understanding how job demands-resources affect work outcomes. Moreover, the positive impact of occupational self-efficacy on individual work outcomes is also highlighted.

In addition, the findings furnish insights that can facilitate the refinement and enhancement of theoretical models elucidating the dynamics of employee engagement, retention, and organizational attachment within the context of the telecommunication industry. These

refined models can serve as valuable tools for researchers and practitioners alike in further understanding and conceptualizing the intricacies of workforce management. In addition, by integrating these constructs within a comprehensive moderated-mediated model, the study has advanced theoretical understanding of the complex interplay among emotional intelligence, job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy with individual outcomes such as work commitment thereby enriching existing theoretical frameworks and models. Lastly, the study has contributed to the advancement of generation research. The study focused on millennials in Kenya's telecommunication sector and hence advancing knowledge on the unique characteristics of the generational cohort attitudes, perceptions, perspectives and behavior in the workplace.

5.4.2 Organizational Practice implications

The study has significant implications for organizational practice within Kenya's telecommunication sector. Organizations can leverage on the insights gained from the study to develop targeted interventions aimed at enhancing millennial work commitment. These may include training programs designed to enhance employees' emotional intelligence skills such as self-awareness, self-regulation, empathy, and social skills. This can lead to increased work commitment and improved performance. Embracing and advancing these training programs may lead to increased engagement and commitment to employee work roles. In addition, organizations can utilize the findings of the study to optimize job designs by redesigning job roles and resource allocation strategies. This will ensure that job demands are fitting and that employees have adequate resources and support thereby enhancing a positive work environment that fosters employee well-being and commitment. Lastly, organizations may utilize the findings of the study to design and implement mentorship programs and provision of support mechanisms that can help the millennials develop occupational self-efficacy, which in turn can improve the overall job satisfaction thereby strengthening their work commitment.

5.4.3 Policy Implications

Policymakers and regulatory bodies within Kenya's telecommunication sector can utilize the study's findings to inform the formulation of regulatory frameworks that prioritize employee welfare and organizational effectiveness. This may entail incentivizing telecommunication companies to invest in employee development initiatives and adhere to best practices in human resource management. The findings can serve as foundational pillars for the establishment of industry-wide guidelines and standards aimed at promoting employee engagement, retention, and organizational commitment within the telecommunication sector. By fostering a conducive work environment that values and nurtures employee well-being, policymakers can contribute to the sustainable growth and competitiveness of the sector. In essence, the findings of this study hold the potential to catalyze transformative changes in organizational practices and policymaking within Kenya's telecommunication sector, fostering a symbiotic relationship between employee well-being, organizational effectiveness, and sustainable growth. By embracing these implications, stakeholders can chart a course toward fostering a vibrant and resilient telecommunication ecosystem that thrives on the foundation of engaged and committed millennial workforce.

Moreover, organizational policies can be informed by the research findings to better support millennial employees in the telecommunication sector. The findings of the study can contribute to the enhancement of policies in Kenya’s telecommunication sector by integrating emotional intelligence development initiatives into the human resource practices and policies. This may include inculcating training programs and utilizing emotional intelligence assessments into recruitment and performance evaluation processes. In addition, recruitment and selection processes can be tailored to identify candidates with high emotional intelligence and strong occupational self-efficacy which are positively associated with work commitment. In addition, performance appraisal systems can be adjusted to recognize and reward employees who demonstrate high levels of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy in their work. Moreover, the findings can inform talent management strategies aimed at developing millennial employees within telecommunication sector. The findings can inform talent management strategies aimed at

retaining and developing millennial employees within the telecommunication sector. By understanding the factors that contribute to work commitment among millennials, organizations can implement targeted retention initiatives, career development programs, and succession planning efforts to nurture and retain top talent.

The findings of the study can be used to enhance employee wellness initiatives by recognizing the significance of job demands and job resources in shaping individual employees' and team's experiences. Leaders can thus advocate for policies that enhance healthy work environments while promoting equitable resources and support systems for employees especially millennials. Moreover, organizations can collaborate with education institutions and industry stakeholders to ensure that curriculum and training programs equip millennials with soft skills such as emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy needed for success in the telecommunication sector.

5.5 Recommendations

The current study on the impact of emotional intelligence, job demand-resources and occupational self-efficacy on millennial work commitment in the telecommunication sector has the following recommendations. First, organizations within the telecommunication sector should consider implementing training programs aimed at enhancing emotional intelligence skills among the staff. This can improve employee engagement and work commitment. Secondly, organizations should conduct job analyses to evaluate job demands and resources of different roles to ensure that they are aligned with employees' capabilities. By redesigning job roles and allocating resources effectively, organizations can create a favourable work environment thereby minimizing job stressors and enhancing employee well-being and commitment while mitigating against high turnover rates among millennial workers. This may involve implementing flexible work arrangements, offering adequate training and support through mentorship and coaching while providing access to the required tools and technology.

Thirdly, to develop occupational self-efficacy of the employees, organizations should invest in initiatives aimed at fostering the attribute among employees within

telecommunication sector. This could be achieved through providing avenues for training, knowledge and skill development, mastery experiences and positive feedback that could enhance confidence building. Fourthly, emotional intelligence should be incorporated into the human resource practices, for instance recruitment, selection, and performance evaluation. This will ensure that candidates and employees possess the necessary emotional intelligence competences for success in the telecommunication sector. In addition, organizations should be proactive in providing training programs on emotional intelligence since the construct is a learnable skill. In addition, job descriptions and competency frameworks should include emotional intelligence as a valued attribute. Moreover, there should continuously monitoring and evaluation to assess the effectiveness of emotional intelligence interventions through surveys to check for effectiveness. Lastly, organizations should create a supportive work environment through mentorship and coaching while recognizing employees' contributions and achievements. This fosters emotional well-being and work commitment.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Study

The current study found that emotional intelligence, job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy has a positive effect on work commitment of millennial employees in Kenya's telecommunication sector. Further research in this field would be necessary in the following areas. A study to investigate how the relationships among emotional intelligence, job demands resources, occupational self-efficacy and work commitment vary across the different generational cohorts within the telecommunication sector in Kenya. This would help compare the attitudes and experiences of millennials with those of older generations (generation X and baby boomers) with the aim of understanding how generational differences influence work commitment and engagement. Studies may also be conducted to extend research in other sectors within Kenya and beyond to examine generalizability of findings beyond telecommunication sector. The variables -emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, occupational self-efficacy and work commitment- can be compared across different organizational contexts to identify sector-specific factors that contribute to work commitment. In addition, longitudinal studies may be conducted to

explore the long-term effects of emotional intelligence, job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy on work commitment on millennials. In addition, this study used cross-sectional research design which do not allow for an assessment of causality. There is need for further research with longitudinal design that might confirm the causality of the hypothesized relationships. The study focused on job demands-resources and occupational self-efficacy as a moderator and mediator respectively between EI and millennial work commitment. Other moderators and mediators may exist that are beyond the span of the study. Lastly, studies may be conducted to examine the implications of technological advancements and remote work arrangements on employee well-being, emotional intelligence, and work commitment within the telecommunication sector.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Letter of Introduction

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT PHD RESEARCH IN YOUR ORGANIZATION

The above matter refers.

I am a Doctor of Philosophy student in Management and Leadership at Management University of Africa (MUA), School of Management and Leadership registration number: DML/11/00108/3/18. I am required to conduct research in organizations under the category- International Gateway Operators- of the telecommunication sector as licensed by the communications authority of Kenya (CA) in Kenya as part of the degree requirements. The Title of my thesis is: "The impact of emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, and occupational self- efficacy on work commitment of millennials in the Kenya's telecommunication sector."

I am pleased to inform you that your organization falls within the population of interest. I therefore wish to kindly request you to allow the data collection process by your staff aged between 23 and 43 years.

On behalf of the University and my supervisors, I promise that the information gathered will BE handled confidentially and will be strictly used for academic purposes only and that no information shall be divulged to third parties. A copy of the final report of the study will be made available to you for review.

I look forward to receiving a positive response to the request.

Sincerely

Joyce W. Thairu
PhD Student

Appendix II: Letter from University

The Management University of Africa

MUA

Sponsored by The Kenya Institute of Management

Date: 5TH JULY 2023

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

REF: THAIRU JOYCE WANJIRU- PHD CANDIDATE

This is to confirm that **THAIRU JOYCE WANJIRU-** admission number: **DML/11/00108/3/18** is a student of the Management University of Africa (MUA) currently pursuing a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degree in Management and Leadership. As part of the requirement for the degree programme, the candidate is expected to carry out a study and write a thesis on a topic of choice. The topic is "**EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, JOB DEMANDS-RESOURCES, OCCUPATIONAL SELF-EFFICACY AND WORK COMMITMENT OF MILLENNIALS IN KENYA'S INTERNATIONAL GATEWAY OPERATORS.**" on which she has developed and successfully defended a proposal which has been approved by the University. She is now expected to collect data before finally writing her thesis.

The University wishes to request for assistance and cooperation from all the concerned parties the student will be engaging with in the course of her study.

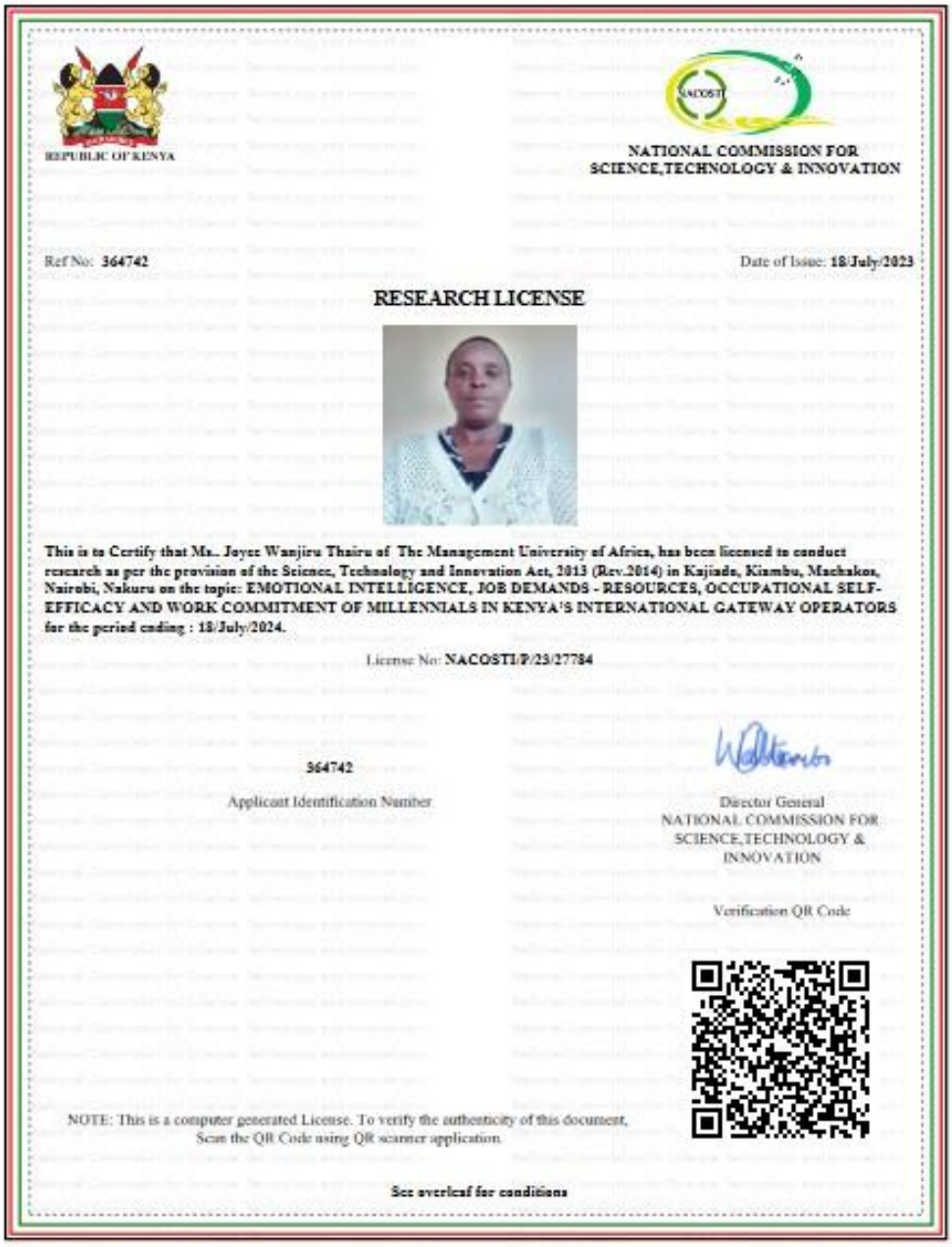
Yours faithfully,
Management University of Africa

Dr. John Chelugut, PhD
Deputy Vice-Chancellor

Disclaimer: *Data collection and thesis writing is the sole responsibility of the student and MUA takes no responsibility on the student's activities and shall not be held liable for his/her actions*

The Management University of Africa | [illegible] | P.O. Box [illegible], Nairobi, Kenya | Tel: [illegible] | Cell: [illegible] | Email: [illegible] | [illegible]

Appendix III: Research Permit



REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Ref No: 364742

Date of Issue: 18/July/2023

RESEARCH LICENSE

This is to Certify that Ms.. Joyce Wanjiru Thairu of The Management University of Africa, has been licensed to conduct research as per the provision of the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 (Rev.2014) in Kajiado, Kiambu, Machakos, Nairobi, Nakuru on the topic: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, JOB DEMANDS - RESOURCES, OCCUPATIONAL SELF-EFFICACY AND WORK COMMITMENT OF MILLENNIALS IN KENYA'S INTERNATIONAL GATEWAY OPERATORS for the period ending : 18/July/2024.

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See overleaf for conditions

Appendix IV: Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to collect data from millennials engaged in the IGOs of Kenyan Telecommunication sector to establish **the impact of emotional intelligence, job demands-resources, occupational self-efficacy and work commitment of millennials in Kenyan telecommunication sector.** We will appreciate it if you can spare some time to respond to the questions in this questionnaire. We estimate that it will take you **45 minutes** to go through the survey. We would like to assure you that the information you share shall be treated anonymously and confidentially and will be used for academic purposes only. Should you have further questions, please feel free to contact me on jthairu12@gmail.com. Your participation in facilitating the study is highly appreciated.

Consent to participate in the study.
Kindly note that you should fill this section in order to proceed with the survey.
Kindly indicate if you wish to participate in this study by checking the appropriate box.
Your participation in facilitating the study is highly appreciated.

☐ I voluntarily give my consent to take part in the study
☐ I do not wish to take part in this survey

SECTION A GENERAL INFORMATION
In this part of the questionnaire, we are interested in your socio-demographic and academic characteristics.

1. Choose your age bracket (to the nearest whole number) amongst the following

   ☐ 23-26 years ☐ 27 -30 years ☐ 31-34 years ☐ 35-38 years

   ☐ 39 - 43 years

2. Please indicate your highest academic qualifications

   ☐ Certificate ☐ Diploma ☐ Higher National Diploma ☐ Bachelor's Degree

   ☐ Postgraduate Diploma ☐ Master's degree ☐ PhD

3. What is your employment status? ☐ Fulltime ☐ Contract ☐ Casual

4. Indicate how long (to the nearest whole number) you have worked in this organization.

   ☐ **0 – 3 years** ☐ **4 -6 years** ☐ **7 -9 years** ☐ **> 9 years**

SECTION B: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Instructions: Indicate the extent to which each item applies to you using the scale in the five columns to the right of each item. 1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neutral 4 = Agree
5 = Strongly agree

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Perceiving Emotion					
1. I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.					
2. I am aware of how my emotions affect my thoughts and behaviors.					
3. I am able to recognize emotions in others based on their facial expressions.					
4. I am able to recognize emotions in others based on their tone of voice.					
5. I can tell when someone is upset even when they do not say anything.					
Understanding Emotion					
6. I understand the relationship between my emotions and my thoughts.					
7. I am able to recognize the complex mix of emotions that can be present in a given situation.					
8. I understand how other people's emotions can influence their behavior.					
9. I am aware of how cultural differences can affect emotional expression and interpretation.					
10. I can describe the emotions I am feeling accurately.					
Utilizing/Facilitating Emotion					
11. I am able to use my emotions to motivate myself to take action.					
12. I am able to use my emotions to connect with others and build relationships.					
13. I am able to use my emotions to communicate effectively with others.					
14. I am able to create a positive emotional atmosphere in my interactions with others.					
15. I am able to express my emotions in appropriate ways.					
Managing Emotion					

16. I am able to regulate my emotions when I need to.					
17. I am able to manage my stress levels effectively.					
18. I am able to recover quickly from negative emotions.					
19. I am able to handle criticism or negative feedback without becoming defensive or upset.					
20. I am able to remain calm and focused under pressure.					

SECTION C: JOB DEMANDS-RESOURCES

Instructions: Indicate the extent to which each item applies to you using the scale in the five columns to the right of each item. 1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neutral 4 = Agree
5 = Strongly agree

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly disagree
A. Job Demands					
(i)Work load					
1. I often have too much work to do in the time available.					
2. I often have to work at a fast pace to keep up with my workload.					
(ii) Time pressure					
3. I often have to work to tight deadlines.					
4. I often have to rush to complete my work.					
5. I often have to deal with angry or upset customers/clients.					
6. I often have to suppress my emotions at work					
(iv) Physical demands					
7. I often have to lift heavy objects at work.					
8. I often have to work in uncomfortable or physically demanding positions.					
(v) Role ambiguity					
9. I often feel uncertain about what is expected of me at work.					
10. I often receive conflicting information from my supervisor and/or colleagues.					
(vi) Work-family conflict					

11. I often have my work demands interfere with my family and /or personal life.					
12. I often have my family or personal responsibilities interfere with my work demands.					
(vii) Job insecurity					
13. I often worry about losing my job					
14. I often feel that my job is at risk.					
B. Job Resources					
(i)Autonomy					
15. I have control over my work tasks					
16. I have discretion in making decisions at work					
(ii) Social support					
17. I often receive support from my supervisor					
18. I often receive support from my colleagues					
(iii) Feedback					
19. I often receive feedback on my performance from my superiors and peers.					
20. The feedback I receive from my superiors and peers is useful.					
(iv) Skill variety					
21. I often use a range of different skills in my job.					
22. I often have to repeat the same tasks over and over again					
(v) Task significance					
23. I often feel that my work is meaningful and important.					
24. I often feel that my work has a positive impact on others.					
(vi) Job control					
25. I often have control over my work schedule.					
26. I often have control over my work environment					
(vii) Career opportunities					
27I often have opportunities for career development presented to me.					
28. I often receive support for career development from my supervisor or organization.					

SECTION D: OCCUPATIONAL SELF-EFFICACY

Instructions: Indicate the extent to which each item applies to you using the scale in the five columns to the right of each item. 1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neutral 4 = Agree
5 = Strongly agree

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Confidence					
1. I can successfully learn and use new skills at work.					
2. I can handle new or unexpected situations at work.					
3. I can solve problems that arise in my work.					
4. I can set priorities and manage my work effectively.					
5. I can handle criticism or negative feedback from others at work.					
Command					
6. I can clearly and effectively communicate my ideas and opinions at work.					
7.I can effectively influence others in my workplace.					
8.I can effectively manage or supervise others in my workplace.					
9.I can effectively work in teams in my workplace.					
10. I can effectively negotiate with others in my workplace.					
Adaptability					
11. I can adjust to changes in my work environment or job duties.					
12. I can work effectively with people from diverse backgrounds.					
13. I can work effectively in a rapidly changing environment.					
14. I can learn from mistakes or failures in my work.					
15. I can manage my emotions and stress levels effectively at work.					
Positive Attitude					
16. I believe that I can accomplish my work goals and objectives.					

17. I am optimistic about my future prospects in my work.					
18. I am motivated to succeed in my work.					
19. I am confident that I can overcome obstacles or challenges in my work.					
20. I feel positive about my work and my ability to contribute to my organization.					

SECTION E: WORK COMMITMENT

Instructions: Indicate the extent to which each item applies to you using the scale in the five columns to the right of each item. 1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neutral 4 = Agree
5 = Strongly agree

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I. JOB INVOLVEMENT					
1. I feel miserable when I have less work to do					
2. I get depressed when I am not working					
3. Irrespective of what happens, I always attend to my work first					
4. I often do extra work in my job which is not really required of me					
5. While at work, I seldom think of anything other than my work					
6. For the sake of my work I can give up what I consider important					
7. While away on leave, I keep on worrying that my work may be suffering					
8. While on the job, I check and re-check my watch wondering when the day will end					
9. I am not willing to devote my free time to my job feel relieved when it is time to go home					
10. I wait impatiently for holidays					
II. ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT					
Affective Organizational Commitment					
11. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this department					
12. If I had not already put so much of myself into this department, I might consider working elsewhere					

13. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my department.					
14. This organization deserves my loyalty and I would feel guilty if I left my organization now					
15. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this department					
16. This department has a great deal of personal meaning for me					
Continuance Organizational Commitment					
17. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this department would be the scarcity of available alternatives					
19. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this department					
20. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my department now					
III. CAREER COMMITMENT					
21. If I could get another job different from the current one and paying the same amount, I would take it					
22. I want to build a career in my current job					
23. If I could do it all over again, I would choose to work in my current field.					
24. If I had all the money, I needed without working, I would still continue working in my current field.					
25. I like this vocation too well to give it up.					
26. This is the ideal vocation for a life work					
27. I am disappointed that I ever entered this profession					
28. I spend significant amount of time reading books and journals related to my field.					
IV. PROTESTANT WORK ETHIC					
29. Anyone who is able and willing to work hard has a good chance of succeeding.					
30. Our society would have fewer problems if people had less leisure time.					
31. I feel uneasy when there is little work for me to do.					
32. There are few satisfactions equal to the realization that one has done one's best at a job.					
33. The self-made person is likely to be more ethical than someone who is born to wealth.					
34. Hard work offers little guarantee of success.					
35. If one works hard enough, they are likely to make a good life for themselves.					

36. A distaste for hard work usually reflects a weakness of character					
37. Most people spend time in unprofitable amusement					
38. Life would be more meaningful if we had more leisure time.					

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