THE EXPLANATORY RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN KNOWLEDGE SHARING,

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, AND GENERATIONAL COHORTS FOR

UNITED STATES HEALTHCARE SERVICES EMPLOYEES

by

Connie J. Woolsey

TERRY M. WALKER, PhD, Faculty Mentor and Chair

JANE PETRICK, PhD, Committee Member

JOHN KLOCINSKI, PhD, Committee Member

Rhonda Capron, EdD, Dean, School of Business and Technology

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy
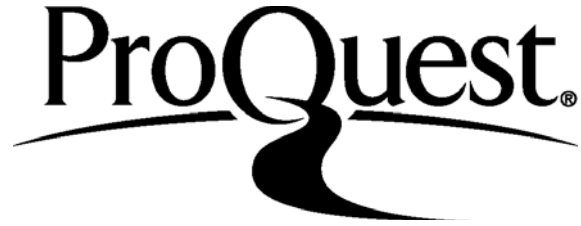
Capella University

September, 2016

ProQuest Number: 10182883

ProQuest 10182883

Published by ProQuest LLC (2016). Copyright of the Dissertation is held by the Author.

ProQuest LLC.
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106 – 1346

© Connie Woolsey 2016

Abstract

The theory of generations states that diverse characteristics are influenced by social, economic, and political occurrences. Where multiple generations may be working side-by-side, each generation's qualities impact the daily routines, decisions, interactions, and relationships of an organization's workforce. Grant's (1996) knowledge-based theory of the firm emphasized that knowledge must be shared and transferred for organizational growth, performance, and in maintaining a competitive advantage. Where knowledge sharing is dependent upon the communication and interactions of the individuals involved in the activity, and those individuals have different generational makeup, emotions may influence the outcome. The theory of emotional intelligence involves the ability to alter emotions in guiding outcomes. This research study investigates the role of emotional intelligence for knowledge sharing between generational cohorts (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y). A sampling of United States employed individuals from the operational and support services (non-provider) side of the healthcare industry completed a survey of two instruments: the Knowledge Sharing Behavior Scale and the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test. A hierarchical multiple linear regression model analyzed the data. The research question was: To what extent does the Emotional Intelligence Index and Generational Cohorts explain the variation in the Knowledge Sharing Index? The null hypothesis was rejected; the alternative hypothesis was supported with the Emotional Intelligence Index contributing 43.6% to the Knowledge Sharing Index. All strategies must be pursued to mitigate risks for losing any organizational knowledge. The results suggest the use emotional intelligence for knowledge sharing in mitigating the potential for lost knowledge.

Dedication

I dedicate all of the efforts invested in my learning and knowledge attainment to my Mother, Anna Rose Schroeder Woolsey. I greatly appreciate her love, belief in me, and the many years of support for my continued education. As she lives on in my memories and in my heart, I will always feel her strength and energy within me to carry on regardless of the circumstances. I know that she would be very proud of me.

Acknowledgments

Table of Contents

List of Tables

ix

List of Figures

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

The workforce composition of a 21st Century organization includes members of multiple generations. Each generational cohort brings their perceptions, values, beliefs, and behaviors into an organization. In spite of the diversity of the generational cohorts, knowledge must be shared or an organization will risk a loss of vital information. Knowledge is an appreciable, strategic asset and key for sustaining a competitive edge (Argote & Ingram, 2000; Calo, 2008; Ipe, 2003; Javernick-Will, 2012; McNichols, 2010; Nonaka, 1991). Bennett, Pitt, and Price (2012) and Harvey (2012) believed that corporate survival requires knowledge sharing between the generational cohorts to ensure that performance and productivity are maintained. Unless one's knowledge is shared within an organization, this interruption in knowledge flow will provide little value and minimal impact towards goal accomplishment.

The resultant collection of employees in today's workplace must operate side-by-side, on the same team, or within the same department or group. Skill development and goals are achieved through collaboration and knowledge sharing for continued organizational growth (Goleman, 1998; Grant, 1996; Kapoor & Solomon, 2011; Kaur & Verma, 2011; Mikitka, 2009). The generational workforce demographics provide a diverse conglomeration of attitudes, motives, values, and work habits which can impact working relationships and knowledge sharing. Any of these can be obstacles to

1

organizational learning, productivity, and performance and can adversely affect achieving corporate objectives.

Another important concern to management is how emotions play a key role in an individual's daily routine and decision-making. An individual utilizes emotional intelligence in being aware of personal feelings, as well as the personal feelings of others, and recognizing the opportunity to manage the personal interactions in accomplishing daily work activities and addressing challenges (Balamohan, Tech, & Gomathi, 2015). In 2006, Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall, and Salovey found that emotional intelligence contributed to work performance through positive social interactions, work relationships, and emotion management. This concept creates the potential for constructive knowledge sharing opportunities.

This research study blends the concepts of three theories (the theory of generations, the knowledge-based theory of the firm, and the theory of emotional intelligence) that can assist an organization in achieving the goals of competitiveness, productivity, and performance, especially with a relationship to knowledge. The diversity of generational cohorts may cause misunderstanding, tension, and conflict (Harvey, 2012; Kupperschmidt, 2000), but maintaining the knowledge of an organization is essential to an organization's life and existence. This research study will provide organizational management with an awareness of the challenges of a multi-generational workforce and a strategy for improving knowledge sharing opportunities in using emotional intelligence within this environment.

2

Background of the Study

Many studies (Dixon, Mercado, & Knowles, 2013; Ferri-Reed, 2013; Lester, Standifer, Schultz, & Windsor, 2012; Srinivasan, 2012) concur that the 21st Century workforce includes three different generations of employees (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y). Each generation's core values have been influenced by parents, the individual's education level, and social, economic, and cultural concepts (Kupperschmidt, 2000; Mannheim, 1952). As each generational cohort matures, different skills, perceptions, motivations, and expectations are brought into the workplace. The result is that differences between the generational cohorts can cause tension (Coulter & Faulker, 2014; Ferri-Reed, 2013; Lester, Standifer, Schultz, & Windsor, 2012) and confusion (Bennett, Pitt, & Price, 2012; Legas & Sims, 2011; Srinivasan, 2012) for collaborating and cohesively working side-by-side, based upon the individual's views and beliefs.

Additionally, emotions, attitudes, and characteristics intertwine and become part of workers' makeup that shapes interactions and behaviors. Furthermore, each generation's attributes transform into distinct work behaviors regarding authority, management, and communication. These variations in work values impact processes for knowledge sharing, problem solving, and interpersonal relationships (Srinivasan, 2012), which can cause the loss of valuable knowledge.

Statement of the Problem

In a workforce of multiple generations with differing characteristics, knowledge must be shared between the generational cohorts to maintain an organization's

3

performance and competitive advantages. Through their study Connelly, Zweig, Webster, and Trougakos (2012) found that workers' behaviors affected their knowledge sharing activities. Research reported by Matzler, Renzl, Mooradian, Krogh, and Mueller (2011) supported that personality traits influenced knowledge sharing. Yet, these differing generational characteristics brought into an organizational environment can impact interactions and relationships.

To support knowledge sharing by removing obstacles and bridging generational divides calls for understanding where generational variations exist in the workplace (Gibson, Greenwood, & Murphy, 2009). Each generation's attributes transform into distinct work behaviors, regarding authority, management, and communication. These variations in work values impact processes for knowledge sharing, problem solving, and interpersonal relationships (Srinivasan, 2012). Tsoukas (2009) suggested that opportunities in productive dialogue for knowledge sharing are obtainable through social interactions. Lawler and Thye (1999) believed emotions can alter the exchange process and the ensuing results, especially as emotions form one's perceptions and interpretations in the interaction. As knowledge sharing requires an interaction between two or more individuals, the emotional dynamics between the parties can play a central role in the outcome of the exchange.

The use of emotional intelligence to bridge the gap for cohesive interactions between these cohorts of diverse attitudes, values, and beliefs, will extend the concepts of the theory emotional intelligence. In their research on emotional intelligence and work performance, Lopes et al. (2006) asserted that emotional intelligence associated positive

4

results on work performance and social interactions. Emotions play a significant role in an individual's life. They guide the intentions, awareness, behavior, and decision-making of the individual within all environments (Chang, Sy, & Choi, 2012; Ljungholm, 2014). As emotions are part of each employee in an organization, the emotional impacts of coworker interactions can be evaluated to achieve positive outcomes toward organizational goals.

Research (Benson & Brown, 2011; Ferri-Reed, 2013; Srinivasan, 2012) confirms that the diversity of generational cohorts may cause misunderstanding, tension, and conflict as varying values and beliefs create opportunities for lost knowledge. Managing the multigenerational memory of an organization and understanding intergenerational differences for effects in the workplace can become a matter of corporate survival (Harvey, 2012). Kupperschmidt (2000) posited that generational characteristics play a role in influencing attitudes toward work responsibilities and expectations. Values and attitudes have a place within an organizational setting, especially when viewed as strengths. But, when they impact accomplishing the goals of an organization, attention must be placed on those characteristics that inhibit interactions where knowledge sharing must occur.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research study is to apply the theory of emotional intelligence that relates knowledge sharing to emotional intelligence for three generational cohorts (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y). This research study will investigate

5

whether emotional intelligence will have any relationship to knowledge sharing for overcoming the diverse generational characteristics of the workforce.

Emotions can play a major role in cohort interactions but were not included as a motivator in any of the following studies. In a knowledge management capacity study performed by Hsiao, Chen, and Chang (2011), the results suggested that social interactions compliment and influence knowledge management for improved organizational performance. Social influence and motivation were found to rank high at 61% as a reason to share knowledge in a study performed by Javernick-Will (2012). Social capital networks were studied for impacts to knowledge sharing by Wei, Zheng, and Zhang (2011). The current research study anticipates extending these research endeavors to investigate emotions' stimulus for knowledge sharing.

Emotional intelligence is a skill that can assist workers to bridge the generational diversity gaps for knowledge sharing. A positive relationship between emotional intelligence and knowledge sharing can provide management with a strategy to address the risks and challenges of a diverse workforce and formulate a program in support of knowledge sharing for attaining organizational goals. As limited research has been found, a gap exists in the use of emotional intelligence for bridging the generational diversity where knowledge sharing is essential to organizational performance and productivity (Lopes et al., 2006; Tsoukas, 2009). As emotions are not always under control by the individual or by management, the results of this research study offer scholars and practitioners a foundational process for initiating, applying, and supporting

any type of change, in any setting, where emotions impact the generational cohorts (Foltin & Keller, 2012).

Rationale

This research study responds to the gap in the literature on emotional intelligence research for influencing positive work performance through social interactions (Andries, 2009; Clarke, 2010; Cote & Hideg, 2011; Hess & Bacigalupo, 2011; Kafetsios, Nezlek, & Vassiou, 2011; Nafukho, 2009; Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman & Lance, 2010). The research study also adds a key element that addresses an opportunity for organizational asset retention with knowledge sharing. This research study provides focus on a highly visible workforce situation, that of the multigenerational environment of workers, which may be experienced in an organization of any size, in any location, and any type of business.

Management needs to institute all measures to bridge the diversity gaps that create obstacles to knowledge sharing for retaining a key resource and maintaining the competitive and strategic aspects of an organization (Argote & Ingram, 2000; Calo, 2008; Gibson, Greenwood, & Murphy, 2009; Ipe, 2003; Javernick-Will, 2012; McNichols, 2010; Nonaka, 1991). Where differences in values, beliefs, attitudes, and work ethics reside within a multigenerational workforce, minimizing the atmosphere of chaos, frustration, and miscommunication is important for impacts to organizational performance and efficiencies.

This research study will investigate the relationship of emotional intelligence for knowledge sharing in a generationally diverse environment. The research study's results

7

will contribute to organization and management information where knowledge sharing must occur among diverse generational cohorts, working side-by-side, while driving toward operational efficiency and effectiveness and maintaining a competitive advantage.

Research Question and Hypotheses

The research question to be studied is: To what extent does the Emotional Intelligence Index and the Generational Cohorts explain the variation in the Knowledge Sharing Index, controlling for Gender and Years of Work Experience?

Hypotheses for this research question are:

H_0:   There is not a statistically significant explanatory relationship between the *Knowledge Sharing Index* (DV) and the *Emotional Intelligence Index* (IV), *Generational Cohort Baby Boomer* (IV), *Generational Cohort Generation X* (IV), *Generational Cohort Generation Y* (IV), *Gender* (CV), and *Years of Work Experience* (CV).

H_A: There is a statistically significant explanatory relationship between the *Knowledge Sharing Index* (DV) and the *Emotional Intelligence Index* (IV), *Generational Cohort Baby Boomer* (IV), *Generational Cohort Generation X* (IV), *Generational Cohort Generation Y* (IV), *Gender* (CV), and *Years of Work Experience* (CV).

The overall predictive validity of the multiple linear regression model was tested for statistical significance using the following null and alternative hypotheses and a level of significance of $\alpha = .05$:

H_0: $\rho^2 = 0$

H_A: $\rho^2 > 0$

8

where ρ^2 is the population coefficient of determination.

If the above null hypothesis (H_0: $\rho^2 = 0$) is accepted, then the multiple linear regression model has no predictive validity (i.e., all of the population regression coefficients $\beta_i = 0$) and no further analysis is warranted. If the above null hypothesis (H_0: $\rho^2 = 0$) is rejected, then each of the population regression coefficients will be tested to determine which of them are statistically significant predictors using the following null and alternative hypotheses and a level of significance of $\alpha = .05$:

H_0: $\beta_i = 0$

H_A: $\beta_i \neq 0$

for i = 0, 1, …, 6 and where: (1) β_0 is the population regression coefficient for the y intercept, (2) β_1 is the population regression coefficient for the independent variable *Emotional Intelligence Index*, X_1, (3) β_2 is the population regression coefficient for the independent variable *Generational Cohort Baby Boomer*, X_2, (4) β_3 is the population regression coefficient for the independent variable *Generational Cohort Generation X*, X_3, (5) β_4 is the population regression coefficient for the independent variable *Generational Cohort Generation Y*, X_4, (6) β_5 is the population regression coefficient for the control variable *Gender*, X_5, and (7) β_6 is the population regression coefficient for the control variable *Years of Work Experience*, X_6.

Significance of the Study

The research study's significance to scholars is that of an extension to the theory of emotional intelligence for addressing barriers that may obstruct knowledge sharing between diverse generational cohorts. Organizational management and leadership can

9

benefit from emotional intelligence by utilizing this conduit for developing a collaborative, responsive workforce for knowledge sharing. Practitioners can find significance in this research study by understanding the use of emotional intelligence as a consideration for initiating, applying, and supporting changes in a cultural environment where generational personalities interact and knowledge loss may result.

Research is needed to determine the impacts of the obstacles to knowledge sharing. Argote and Ingram (2000) posited that people are the most challenging channel for knowledge sharing. With potentially three generations working side by side in the workplace, different perspectives, attitudes, backgrounds, and motivations can cause challenging outcomes to knowledge sharing. A high priority must be given to bridging the differences in work attitude, beliefs, ethics, learning, and relationships, especially where the sharing of knowledge and business wisdom are at stake (McNichols, 2008; Stevens, 2010). Interaction and collaboration are required for effective and productive outcomes from all workers, regardless of age.

Providing a healthy emotional environment for knowledge sharing is essential to sustaining the performance level and competitive advantage to an organization (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011). The acknowledgement and use of emotional intelligence can provide that atmosphere, especially where a multigenerational workforce exists. According to Lawler and Thye (1999) emotions were disregarded from the social exchange theory due to the focus of research being placed on the cognitive dimension of the exchange, in that the individuals were unemotional participants.

10

Further investigation has now determined that emotions can influence the cognitive thought process, especially in decision-making (Lawler & Thye, 1999). Understanding the relationship between emotional intelligence and knowledge sharing in a generationally rich workforce warrants attention as organizational performance becomes reliant on knowledge as a key resource for growth and longevity. Ghosh, Shuck, and Petrosko (2012) suggested that exploratory research is needed to understand the impacts of emotional intelligence for the individual within a work team atmosphere, specifically, calling out diversity influences and related outcomes. The results of this research study may assist organizational management in developing necessary practices to bridge the gaps that the generational diversity presents, especially regarding activities for sharing knowledge, to maintain a productive environment and a competitive advantage.

Definition of Key Terms

The key terms utilized in this research study and provided by the literature are:

Emotional Intelligence is the ability to recognize and manage one's personal emotions and those of others and to use the information to direct one's decision-making and actions (Goleman, 1998; Mayer & Salovey, 1997, as cited in Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999).

Emotional Intelligence Index will be measured using the mean of 33 questions in the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, & Dornheim, 1998), with each question having five Likert-scale-type attributes (from strongly agree to strongly disagree).

11

Gender is defined as either male or female.

Generational Cohorts are the individuals or peers that are employed by an organization, with the concept of more than one generation that engages in activities to achieve organizational goals. Generational associates share birth years, historical events, and a collective personality of values, beliefs, and behaviors as a result of their defining experiences (Kupperschmidt, 2000; Mannheim, 1952; Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000).

Generational cohorts defined in this research study are (Kapoor & Solomon, 2011; Legas & Sims, 2011; Stevens, 2010):

- **Generational Cohort Baby Boomer** is an individual born between the years of 1946 – 1964.

- **Generational Cohort Generation X** is an individual born between the years of 1965 – 1980. Also known as Gen X.

- **Generational Cohort Generation Y** is an individual born between the years of 1981 – 2000. Also known as Gen Y.

Knowledge sharing is the passage of knowledge from one individual to another (Islam, Low, & Rahman, 2012), through interactions of the individuals (Paulin & Suneson, 2012), where the sharing is influenced by the contribution of another (Argote & Ingram, 2000).

Knowledge Sharing Index will be measured using the mean of 23 questions in the Knowledge Sharing Behavior Scale (Yi, 2009), with each question having five Likert-scale-type attributes (from never to always).

12

Years of Work Experience is the total years the respondent has worked at all jobs.

Assumptions and Limitations

Theoretical Assumptions

Three theories provide a foundation for the research study: the theory of generations, knowledge-based theory of the firm, and the theory of emotional intelligence.

- Generational diversities in values, attitudes, and work ethics (theory of generations) impacts social interactions (Joshi, Dencker, & Franz, 2011; Stevens, 2010).

- Within an organization, emotions must be regulated and managed by individuals (theory of emotional intelligence) for productivity.

- Knowledge sharing will provide for the retention of a critical asset (knowledge-based theory of the firm). In that knowledge has a definitive value for a competitive advantage in innovation and performance, and organizational knowledge lies within the individual (Nonaka, 1991), the individual's knowledge must be shared for retention and utilization within the organizational boundaries.

With the potential for three generations working together, managing emotions can break down obstructions in personal and social interactions and bridge diversity gaps for knowledge sharing to occur (Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schutz, Sellin, & Salovey, 2004). Figure 1 represents the Theoretical framework for this research study.

13
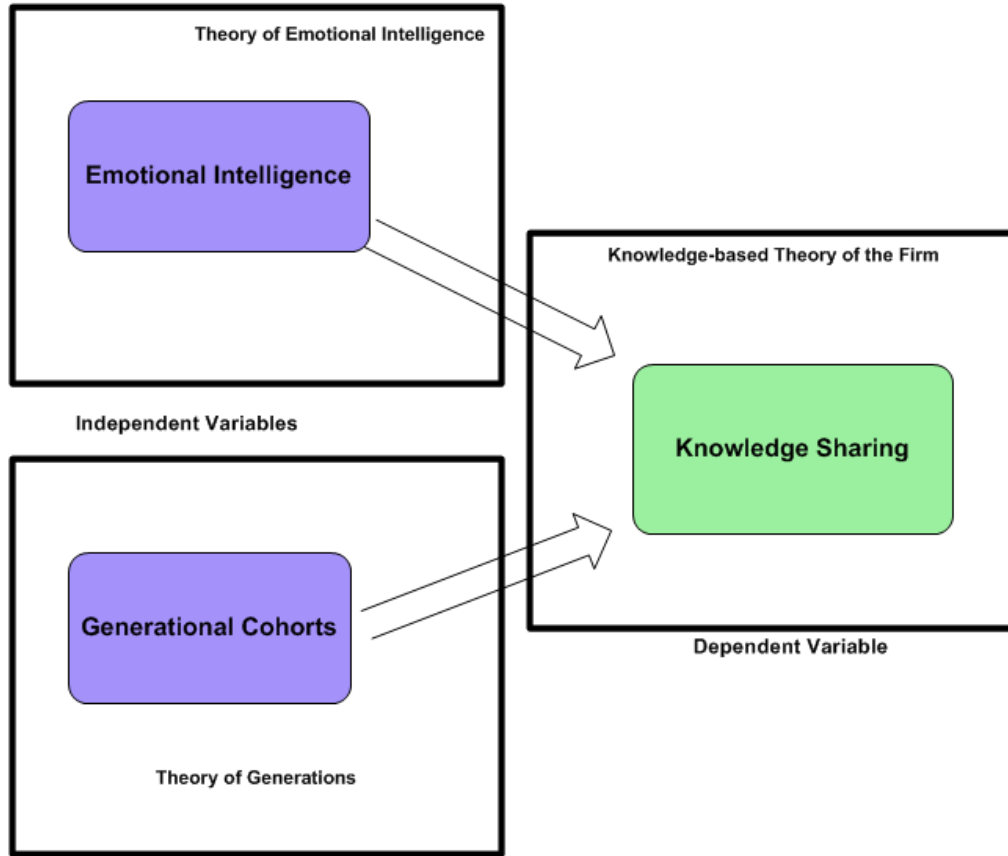
Figure 1. Theoretical Framework

Topical Assumptions

Knowledge has strategic value and can remain within the individual or be shared through transfers to others to accomplish common organizational goals. Each generational cohort retains the values, attitudes, behaviors, and emotions associated with their generational membership throughout their working career (Ferri-Reed, 2013). Generally, individuals are compassionate and considerate towards others, but emotions can deter positive outcomes in decision-making and personal interactions. Subsequently, knowledge sharing can be at risk, resulting in lost knowledge, a decrease in productivity, low performance, and motivation.

14

Methodological Assumptions

The strategy for this research study is the quantitative method, which aligns with the positivist philosophy. To generate rational knowledge with this exploratory model the objective approach will be taken from the positivist's perspective – where the researcher is independent of the activities of the study and has the goal of prediction leading generalization (Holden & Lynch, 2004). All assumptions will be evaluated in alignment with multiple linear regression testing.

Limitations

The importance of recognizing limitations in this research study is necessary so that future research, if performed, may address them. The sample size may appear small for generalization, but in utilizing the G*Power analysis results, the size was sufficient with a 95% power for this research study. Additionally, apprehension in achieving a proportional representation from each generational group could be presented when retrieving participants in the simple random sampling selection. The mitigation plan would be to define a specific stratified random sampling process in the inclusion criteria of the survey services agreement.

Researchers (Côté, 2014; Shahhosseini, Silong, & Ismaill, 2013) have discussed bias occurring in self-reporting measures, especially where emotions are part of the equation. Participants may provide generally acceptable responses as opposed to truthful answers that apply to that individual. Brackett, Rivers, and Salovey (2011) asserted that no ideal method is available for measuring emotional intelligence; therefore, reliability of the instrument must be reviewed.

15

The mitigation plan for using self-reporting surveys was provided through the use of reliable instruments. Research has reported a Cronbach's alpha of 0.90 for internal consistency (Schutte et al., 1998) for the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test, and a Cronbach's alpha of 0.854 (Yi, 2009) for the Knowledge Sharing Behavior Scale, providing a strong foundation for value in this research study.

Nature of the Study

The foundational framework for this research study is based upon three theories: Grant's (1996) knowledge-based theory of the firm, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso's (2004) theory of emotional intelligence, and the theory of generations (Kupperschmidt, 2000; Mannheim, 1952; Parry & Urwin, 2011).

Organizational knowledge is obtained by and resides within the individual throughout his or her employment. As such, an organization needs to retain that knowledge for continued growth and to enhance their economic position (Grant, 1996; Javernick-Will, 2012). Employees of an organization are considered valuable resources or assets that assist in sustainment of an organization's competitive advantage. The knowledge within the individual provides a strategic importance for learning, growth, structure, and decision-making. Grant (1996) believed this relationship formed the foundation of the knowledge-based theory of the firm.

Grant (1996) posited that one of the key characteristics of knowledge is that of sharing and transferability within an organization. This concept is supported by Nonaka (1991) when the individual's knowledge is transformed into organizational value. The individual's interactive participation or expression provides the opportunity for

16

knowledge sharing. As knowledge within an organization is generated through activities and interactions between individuals, Grant contended that minimal encouragement was offered by management to initiate any sharing processes.

As the individual is a primary receptacle of knowledge, the manager's role is to coordinate all efforts for successful knowledge sharing to occur for organizational retention and utilization. Management must ascertain the necessary means for knowledge sharing to occur in the most successful manner possible, including the use of emotional intelligence.

Another theory upon which this research study will be based is the theory of emotional intelligence. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004) have described emotional intelligence as an "evolved area of communication" (p. 199). Employing the concepts of emotion perception, using emotions to facilitate thought, understanding emotions, and managing emotions allow the individual to evaluate emotional signals (from oneself and others) and determine a desired action (Mayer et al., 2004). In an organizational setting Goleman (1998) aligned the emotional intelligence concepts as the emotional competencies of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. In recognizing one's personal emotions as well as others', utilizing those emotions as motivators, and effectively managing one's personal emotions and others', positive outcomes and success can be achieved.

Finally, the theory of generations is presented by Kupperschmidt (2000), Mannheim (1952), and Parry and Urwin (2011) where individuals who are born at a similar time share experiences and events that distinguish them from others. The year of

17

one's birth and the events of his or her development years have created distinct values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors that characterize the members of each generation. This diversity, which has permeated the workforce, may have an operational impact within an organization (Joshi, Dencker, Franz, & Martocchio, 2010; Parry & Urwin, 2011). Organizational goals and objectives must often be accomplished through the multiple generations that coexist in an organization, where despite their differences, collaboration and cooperation may be a challenge (Joshi et al., 2010).

Thompson, Jensen, and DeTienne (2009) believed that knowledge is gained through social interactions. Social exchanges often involve uncertainty. The internal nature of emotions is not always under the control of the individual but often initiated by interaction with others. As emotional tendencies may have laid dormant in these exchanges or were removed from the equation, Lawler and Thye (1999) believed, and supported by Islam, Low, and Rahman (2012), that regulated and managed emotions can enhance this exchange process and the ensuing results, especially as emotions form one's perceptions and interpretations in the interaction.

In summary, each theory applies to this research study in the following manner: generational diversities (the theory of generations) impacts social interactions where emotions play a role in the individual's behavior (theory of emotional intelligence) for a key organizational asset in knowledge sharing (knowledge-based theory of the firm). Positive interactions between generations in the work environment are necessary to meet an organization's challenges for knowledge sharing, growth, and competitiveness.

18

A quantitative, non-experimental, explanatory, cross-sectional, survey research design was used to analyze the relationship between the emotional intelligence and knowledge sharing in the generational cohorts. Non-experimental studies do not control, manipulate, or alter the predictor variables but depend upon the data interpretations to form conclusions. Additionally, non-experimental research has been reported to have a higher external validity with inferences made to the larger population from the sample data (Patten, 2012).

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

This chapter introduced the problem in focus, the purpose, and significance for this research study and asks the research question: To what extent does the Emotional Intelligence Index and the Generational Cohorts explain the variation in the Knowledge Sharing Index, controlling for Gender and Years of Work Experience? The remainder of this dissertation is organized with a literature review in support of this research study (Chapter 2), the description of the research methodology, data collection procedures, and statistical analysis plan (Chapter 3), the data collected and analytical results (Chapter 4), and conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future research (Chapter 5).

19

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In the 21st Century, an organization's workforce often contains employees of all ages, encompassing different generations, specifically Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y. Each generation's value system has been typically influenced by parental, social, educational, economical, and cultural impressions (Kupperschmidt, 2000; Mannheim, 1952). Through each individual's maturation, one's skills, perceptions, motivations, and expectations are carried with him or her into their work experiences. Emotions, attitudes, and other personal characteristics also mix into the individual worker's makeup. The differences between each of these generations' characteristics can cause misunderstanding, tension and confusion, hence, impacting processes for knowledge sharing, problem solving, and social interactions (Srinivasan, 2012). This conglomeration of employees must communicate and work collaboratively to share knowledge and achieve organizational goals, as well as in supporting corporate productivity and competitiveness.

Corporate knowledge, which exists within the individuals, is an appreciable, strategic asset that is essential in supporting the existence and growth of an organization (McNichols, 2010; Calo, 2008; Nonaka, 1991). Obstacles, such as behavioral barriers including attitudes, motives, values, and work habits, in a multigenerational workforce can have operational impacts, especially for knowledge sharing (Cromity & de Stricker,

20

2011; Joshi, Dencker, Franz, & Martocchio, 2010; Sostrin, 2009). Gibson, Greenwood, and Murphy (2009) suggested that sensitivity be used where generational variations exist in the workplace. The relationships and interactions between the generational cohorts are impacted by the way one generation recognizes, respects, and comprehends another.

For organizational success, a priority must be set to develop a position for cooperation and leveraging generational diversity as strengths (McNichols, 2008; Stevens, 2010). While addressing diversity, an organization needs to be proactive, inclusive, collaborative, and innovative in the efforts of decision-making and problem solving to meet operational goals and environmental challenges. To actively and effectively manage the demands and pressures presented in a multigenerational work environment, the emotions of the individuals must be disciplined for positive outcomes, specifically where and when knowledge sharing occurs.

In order for organizational goals to be met, the interactions between the generational cohorts must bridge the gaps of the differences with the appreciation of the knowledge and skills that each has to offer. Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall, and Salovey (2006) found that emotional intelligence contributed to work performance through positive social interactions, work relationships, and emotion regulation. Emotional intelligence represents a set of abilities for recognizing, handling, and controlling emotions. The application and use of emotional intelligence in cohort interactions can help to promote productivity within an organization.

Many strategies may be available for knowledge movement from one individual to another to address the dynamics of the multigenerational workforce, but the

21

significance of emotional intelligence in the interactive process of knowledge sharing can enhance those strategies for management's use in the multigenerational workforce setting (Balamohan, Tech, & Gomathi, 2015; Ljungholm, 2014; Njoroge & Yazdanifard, 2014). The remainder of this chapter will provide a literature review in support of studying the relationship between knowledge sharing and emotional intelligence for generational cohorts. The framework for this research study is based upon three theories: the theory of generations (Kupperschmidt, 2000; Mannheim, 1952; Parry & Urwin, 2011), knowledge-based theory of the firm (Grant, 1996), and the theory of emotional intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004).

The Theory of Generations

The organizational atmosphere is changing, in that, the workforce has expanded to three different generations (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y), with each individual, like each generation, having a makeup of diverse characteristics, influences, work ethics, and core values. The theory of generations states that a generation is identified as a group of individuals, who share birth years and life experiences, being affected by social, economic, and political occurrences (Kupperschmidt, 2000; Mannheim, 1952; Parry & Urwin, 2011). These common events cultivate into generational characteristics, which impact daily routines, social interactions and relationships, and decision-making. Table 1 presents characteristics identified by generation (Gibson, Greenwood, & Murphy, 2009; Kupperschmidt, 2000; Rood, 2010; Srinivasan, 2012). Table 2 presents views identified by generation (Dixon, Mercado, Knowles, 2013; Ferri-Reed, 2013; Wilson, 2009).

22

Table 1. Generataional Characteristics

Generation	Baby Boomers	Generation X	Generation Y
Birth Years	1946-1964	1965-1980	1981-2000
Major Events impacting the Generation	Civil rights movement Space travel Vietnam War Abortion rights Kennedy/King assassinations Nixon/Watergate incident Woodstock Television	Gulf War Challenger disaster Berlin Wall teardown AIDS epidemic Reagan/Bush presidencies High divorce rates Latch-key kids Personal computers; video games High immigration	Internet Globalization School violence Clinton/Lewinsky affair 9/11 Iraq/Afghanistan wars The Great Recession
Characteristics	Loyal Idealistic Independent Competitive Confident Self-reliant Hard-working Workaholics Goal-directed Career focused Minimal work-life balance Political Optimistic Team-player	Individualistic Independent Reactive Anti-authority Confident Achievement-oriented Technology-driven Assertive Often disloyal; mistrusts organizations Informal Prefer self-leadership, real-time communication	Individualistic Self-centered Purposed Optimistic Flexibility Technology-savvy Multi-taskers Outcome driven
Work Ethics	Work and personal sacrifice equals financial success	Work needs to fit into personal life Solves problem on own Mobility vs. stability	Wants to be recognized for talents and knowledge at work Sense of entitlement
Managing Change	Somewhat resistant to change	Open to change; more concerned with the outcome rather than the process	Open to change; must see real value
Perception of Organizational Hierarchy	Respect hierarchy	Will change jobs if manager's philosophy does not fit Expect a say and want to heard	Wants to make a difference and be recognized for contributions

Table 2. Generational Views

Generation | View	Baby Boomer	Generation X	Generation Y
Birth Years	1946 – 1964	1965 – 1980	1981 – 2000
Work Concept	Live to Work	Work to live	Work to make a difference
Relationships	Loyal but private	Network to get ahead	Connected globally
Work Style	Committed	Seeks personal fulfillment	Tentative; divided loyalty
Authority	Questions authority	Self-reliant	Tenacity

Life is filtered and interpreted through the beliefs, values, attitudes, and preferences of these generations. Pilcher (1994) supported the division of generations in that the individual's generational position directs one's behaviors, emotions, and perceptions. Moreover, each generation's characteristics (including skills, knowledge, experiences, and resources) can provide both positive and negative outcomes within an organization (Coulter & Faulkner, 2014; Wilson, 2009). The strengths and challenges of a diverse multigenerational workforce should be met with proactive measures to create a cohesive and collaborative organizational environment. New generations introduced into an organization must adapt to the cultural environment and older generations must learn to work with the newer generations.

Impacts of Generational Differences

The following research on generational differences depicts various studies on concepts that are necessary to maintain organizational competencies, achieve goals and objectives, and provide for a productive workforce.

In response to finding limited research on managing generational differences and the challenges to an organization Benson and Brown (2011) conducted an explanatory

24

study on Baby Boomers and Gen X, based on Mannheim's (1952) theory of generations. Minimal research was found on the effects of the generationally diverse work attitudes and values for understanding the impacts of job satisfaction, willingness to quit, and commitment on performance in an organization.

Benson and Brown used a questionnaire to collect 2,267 responses, while Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression analysis tested the hypotheses. The results of the study indicated that Baby Boomers had a high significance level of job satisfaction and a low significance level of willingness to quit than their Gen X counterparts. Organizational and work factors for commitment were also higher for Boomers than Gen X. Additionally, the results showed that job security, adequate resources, and job roles were important to Baby Boomers where freedom from supervision and co-worker support were important to Gen X. Between the two generations that participated in this study, the work attitudes presented varying results for each generation. Accommodating diverse generational cohorts' attitudes and values are necessary to ensure a unified and productive work environment.

A study was performed by Bell (2008) to understand the differences in generational cohorts' interactions and perceptions regarding individual performance in the workplace. This research was based on the Human Performance Technology (HPT) theory which considers an individual's nature and perceptions on the work setting for performance improvements and interventions. The measurement that was used to analyze the collected data was David Ripley's Performance Environment Perception Scale (PEPS). This self-report instrument is comprised of work-related variables that

25

depict an influence on employee performance (communication and participation at work, work organization and design, work setting characteristics, employees fit to work and the work setting, and personal fit of the work group to work and work setting).

Bell (2008) believed that individuals define their own connotations to stimuli within the workplace centered on personal and cultural experiences, values, and requisites. The goal of the research was to assist organizations to understand the diversity in generational perceptions, values, beliefs, and attitudes that guide one's behavior. The overall findings for sampling four generations (Traditionalists, Baby Boomers, Gen X, and Gen Y), totaling 312 participants, reported that no significant similarities or differences in each of the four generation's perceptions on the variables. They all differed on what impacted their performance. In other words, the individual's assessment of the work environment influences their resulting behavior which can be heavily affected or even distorted based on past experiences, beliefs, and values. Defining interventions to address workforce generational diversity must consider an organizational environment to determine the type of support necessary for performance improvements.

The research performed by Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, and Lance (2010) examined the generational differences in work values. This time-lag study of cohorts from three generations (Baby Boomers, Gen X, and GenMe/Gen Y) utilized three data collection periods with a span of 15 years, creating a total sample group of 16,507, representing high school seniors from 1976, 1991, and 2006. The study was performed to analyze the attitudes of the three generations regarding future employment with

questions related to one's job value, leisure, and rewards. Twenge et al. (2010) believed that work values influenced workplace perceptions, preferences, behaviors, and attitudes, with the study's goal to assist management in defining organizational strategies for a diverse workforce. Data was collected using a questionnaire and assessed utilizing confirmatory factor analysis with LISREL. Some key findings were: Gen X and GenMe/Gen Y valued leisure time more than the Baby Boomers and that the Gen X and GenMe/Gen Y individuals were not looking for personal value from their work, but desired more work-life balance; and Gen X scored highest in rewards, possibly due to increased financial needs related to higher education costs.

The results of this same-age comparison research indicated evidence that the cohorts from these three generations have differences in their work values, which, in turn, can determine behavioral outcomes. Values that influence attitudes towards work and the related organizational objectives should be of great importance to management. In consideration of the diversity of the generational cohorts within an organization's workforce, strategies must be defined that will increase worker productivity, efficiency, and overall organizational profitability.

A research study by Meriac, Woehr, and Banister (2010) on generational differences on work ethics measured the variables of self-reliance, morality/ethics, leisure, hard work, and centrality of work. The Multidimensional Work Ethic Profile (MWEP), a self-report instrument, was used to assess 1,860 participants of Baby Boomers, Gen X, and Gen Y cohorts for beliefs, attitudes, and values reflecting the essential value of work (work ethic). One-way ANOVA was used for analyses and

indicated significant differences for all cohorts from the three generations on all variables. Baby Boomers and Gen Y scored morality/ethics as the highest, while Gen X noted centrality of work and wasted time as equally high dimensions. The lowest scoring dimensions reported for the three groups were: Baby Boomers – leisure, Gen X – morality/ethics, and Gen Y – self-reliance. Misinterpretations, work expectations, and tensions due to generational diversity can suggest differences in the work ethics of the workforce. The research draws management awareness to the differences which occur in work-related attitudes and values, which can then be reflected in behaviors and cause potential conflict and confusion.

Higgs and Lichtenstein (2011) maintained that the individual's values or beliefs guide one's reality and directly influence his/her behavioral outcomes. Similarly, Rokeach (1973) believed that values provide motivation towards a behavior. The authors, Gibson, Greenwood, and Murphy (2009), took a different approach in their research in using the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) to compare frequently accepted generational values and beliefs to terminal and instrumental values. According to Rokeach and Ball-Rokeach (1989) terminal values are the ultimate end goals of life (wisdom, equality, peace, family security) and instrumental values are the behavioral means for achieving the end goals (being honest, ambitious, forgiving, logical). The goal of the research was to understand the diverse characteristics for leading, motivating, and communicating with the generational cohorts. The survey data comprised responses from 5,057 cohorts of Baby Boomers, Gen X, and Gen Y participants, who were tested between 2003 and 2008. The results ranked the values in order of importance to the

28

individual respondent. The study's findings validated that differences existed between the cohorts from the three generations. The top five terminal values and top five instrumental values are presented in Tables 3 and 4.

Table 3. Top Five Terminal Values

Baby Boomers	Gen X	Gen Y
Health	Family Security	Family Security
Family Security	Health	Health
Self-respect	Freedom	Freedom
Comfortable Life	Comfortable Life	True Friendship
Freedom	Inner Harmony	Self-respect

Note. Compiled from "Generational Differences in the Workplace: Personal Values, Behaviors, and Popular Beliefs," by J. Gibson, R. Greenwood, and E. Murphy, 2009, *Journal of Diversity Management*, 4, p. 1-7.

Table 4. Top Five Instrumental Values

Baby Boomers	Gen X	Gen Y
Honest	Honest	Honest
Responsible	Responsible	Responsible
Loyal	Capable	Loving
Capable	Loyal	Independent
Independent	Loving	Ambitious

Note. Compiled from "Generational Differences in the Workplace: Personal Values, Behaviors, and Popular Beliefs," by J. Gibson, R. Greenwood, and E. Murphy, 2009, *Journal of Diversity Management*, 4, p. 1-7.

The findings support that generalities and categorizing cannot be assumed or automatically assigned to a generationally diverse workforce. Equally, these interpretations suggest that sensitivity, appreciation, and respect of the diversity of each generational group are essential to overcoming the divisions between the generations.

Work completed by Murphy, Gibson, and Greenwood (2010) also used the RVS instrument to collect data from 4,446 participants for differences between managers and non-managers of the three generations of Baby Boomers, Gen X, and Gen Y. Mannheim's theory of generations (1952) offered foundational work for Murphy et al.'s (2010) research in that each generation presents characteristics (values, beliefs, and attitudes) influenced by social, economic, and political events that are distinctive to the specific generation. The goal of the research was to ascertain models among the managers and non-managers to increase the efficiency and effectiveness in the multigenerational work environment. The results of the research between the generations, as studied independently for the managers and non-managers, indicated that differences existed in each group's ranking for both the terminal and instrumental values. Table 5 and Table 6 represent the findings from the research.

Table 5. Terminal and Instrumental Values – Managers (by Generation)

Terminal Values			Instrumental Values		
Baby Boomers	Gen X	Gen Y	Baby Boomers	Gen X	Gen Y
Family Security	Family Security	Family Security	Honest	Honest	Honest
Health	Health	Health	Responsible	Responsible	Independent
Comfortable Life	Freedom	Freedom	Loyal	Loyal	Responsible

Note. Compiled from "Analyzing Generational Values among Managers and Non-Managers for Sustainable Organizational Effectiveness," by E. Murphy, J. Gibson, and R. Greenwood, 2010, *SAM Advanced Management Journal, 75,* p. 33-43.

Table 6. Terminal and Instrumental Values – Non-Managers (by Generation)

Terminal Values			Instrumental Values		
Baby Boomers	Gen X	Gen Y	Baby Boomers	Gen X	Gen Y
Family Security	Health	Comfortable Life	Honest	Logical	Ambitious
Health	Wisdom	Family Security	Responsible	Honest	Loving
Comfortable Life	True Friendship	Health	Loving	Independent	Honest

Note. Compiled from "Analyzing Generational Values among Managers and Non-Managers for Sustainable Organizational Effectiveness," by E. Murphy, J. Gibson, and R. Greenwood, 2010, *SAM Advanced Management Journal,* 75, p. 33-43.

When comparing overall manager to non-manager results, some alignment was shown for the top terminal and instrumental values. Different values impact attitudes resulting in different behaviors. Thus, managers must understand the diverse values systems of the workforce within an organization to bridge the generational gaps and develop a collaborative, cohesive, effective, and productive environment.

Dixon, Mercado, and Knowles (2013) performed two separate generational studies (employees in technical and non-technical positions) analyzing behavior and commitment across three generations of cohorts in the workplace (Baby Boomers, Gen X, and Gen Y). The authors believed that generational behaviors and commitment are associated with job performance and outcomes, team cooperation, and positive work activities. The follower's theory was applied to the research, in that, attitudes influence behavior. Data was collected from 42 technical volunteer leaders using a paper version of the survey, and an online version was provided to 70 non-technical volunteer leaders, with participants in each survey representing all three generations.

31

Followers' behaviors being evaluated included: assume responsibility, serve, challenge, participate in transformation, and take moral action. Commitment related to an individual's loyalty to the objectives and principals of an organization and in supporting a constructive work setting. The analyses were compared using independent samples t-test and presented mixed generational notions. The results from the technical study indicated more generational relationship of follower behaviors (highest ranking were: serve and assume responsibility) and less on commitment; where the opposite results were found in the non-technical study (highest ranking were: do what is needed for the organization and working toward organization's success).

Dixon et al. (2013) concluded that all employees should benefit from a multigenerational workforce, where understanding and acceptance of diversity can provide value to an organization. As each leader in organizational management is also a member of a generation, focus must be placed on the responsibilities of leading integrative, collaborative, effective, and performing groups, regardless of the generational workforce makeup.

Stress and frustration have often become key concerns in a multigenerational workforce environment (Rood, 2010). Generational differences exist that affect cohort interactions and no industry is exempt. Rood's (2010) study on generational diversity in the resort lodging industry analyzed 428 participants from the Baby Boomer, Gen X, and Gen Y generations. This exploratory research was based on the generational cohort theory (theory of generations), where members of a specific generation share similar attitudes, beliefs, and values primarily based on shared life experiences during their

32

formative years (Kupperschmidt, 2000; Mannheim, 1952). An online survey was provided to resort managers to analyze work ethics, respect for authority, organizational loyalty, work fulfillment, and employee interactions. The study's results support previously reported findings in that diversity among the generational cohorts affect work ethics and in understanding an organization's chain of command. Baby Boomers' attitudes related to work were defined as highly competitive and personally fulfilling; Gen X's attitudes viewed work as a challenge and were skeptical about job security; and Gen Y's attitudes included the need for feeling valued and respected. Understanding each generation's work attitudes and ethics will assist leaders to leverage the best abilities in each group for efficiencies and effectiveness.

In general, the individual's characteristics are not good or bad, right or wrong, just different. Employees in a corporation must develop the awareness and competencies necessary to bring out the best in each other and take responsibility to find common ground to cultivate working relationships. Embracing the differences in all generational cohorts, recognizing their strengths, and addressing the challenges as they arise are all important. The result of effective interactions will generate productive operations and organizational success.

Some of the research contributions previously discussed have reported generational impacts of attitudes, values, behavior to job satisfaction, commitment, individual performance, and work ethics. When generational characteristics collide and interactions create stress, productivity and performance suffer. This suffering can run rampant across an organization, impacting many key areas and corporate assets. For a

33

collaborative and effective workforce of multiple generations, management should recognize and value differing views, acknowledge and appreciate hard work, provide guidance as necessary, and support change.

Knowledge-based Theory of the Firm and Knowledge Sharing

In Grant's (1996) knowledge-based theory of the firm, the transfer and sharing of knowledge is essential to an organization's strategies and competitive advantage. Key knowledge that resides within the individual must be communicated and requires the involvement of individuals for sharing to occur. Nonaka (1991) also supported this concept of the value of knowledge and explained that knowledge translates economically into organizational efficiencies and returns on investments. Grant believed that knowledge is exchanged in the interactions of the individuals within an organization and that uncooperative participants often impose challenges to accomplishing the activity. Grant further posited that an organizational management's role is to ensure that cooperation is achieved in any and all activities where knowledge has a role. Without the communication of valuable knowledge, whether impacting daily work processes and routines or in decision-making, negative results can be detrimental to the efficiency, effectiveness, and productivity of an organization.

Knowledge, as offered by Ulrich (as cited in Stevens, 2010), ranks next to land and buildings as a significant corporate asset. During one's tenure in an organization, the individual becomes a key receptacle of knowledge through acquisition and accumulation. Many times that knowledge can be difficult, if not impossible, to duplicate or replace (Stevens, 2010), and therefore, must be shared to maintain value to an organization.

34

Knowledge sharing is dependent upon communication and interactions of the individuals involved in the activity, but, most importantly, the sharing does not happen instinctively or naturally (Calo, 2008). Legas and Sims (2011) reportedly found minimal research on overcoming the challenges of tension, confusion, and frustration for effective communication within the multigenerational work environment. Performance and productivity suffers due to misinterpretations and disagreements. Such situations can disrupt the transmission of critical knowledge and compromise opportunities for ensuring that an organization will meet defined objectives and retain a competitive advantage.

As knowledge continues to evolve over time and become enriched, the process of knowledge sharing can be impacted by the generational workforce. Generational diversities can prevent dialogs from even occurring, and thereby, create the risk for lost knowledge. Legas and Sims (2011) believed that miscommunication contributes to unproductive interactions among cohorts in a multigenerational workforce due to the diverse attitudes and beliefs that each generational cohort brings into the work setting. Srinivasan (2012) believed that differing generational work values influence several areas within an organization: employee interactions, decision-making, communication, and knowledge sharing.

The strengths of one generation can positively or negatively impact another. Leveraging the strengths of the diverse characteristics of a multigenerational workforce in a proactive rather than a reactive manner provides for continued success, as well as productive and efficient operations within an organization. Strategies must be designed

to induce constructive interactions among all organizational employees to ensure that knowledge is shared and recycled for continuous growth.

The micro or individual facets of knowledge sharing are essential to the process. In research performed by Szulanski (1996) obstacles reported to impede the knowledge sharing process included the traits and characteristics of the participants in the activity (source and recipient), the knowledge to be shared, and the situation or opportunity where the interaction occurs. Szulanski further expounded that these types of impediments affect organizational capabilities and commitment. Thompson, Jensen and DeTienne (2009) contended that knowledge is not a 'one-and-done' objective but a reusable product that holds value, especially in an organizational setting. For relevance and value, knowledge must be realized or recognized through continued use. When knowledge is not shared and gaps materialize, an organization, as a whole, suffers with lack of motivation and in potential growth opportunities.

Sostrin (2009) defined workplace barriers as any characteristic (behavior, attitude, or value) that hinders cohorts from learning and performing. Examples provided by Sostrin include motivation issues, opposition to learning, change, and performance, and unsettled conflict that impacts communication and collaboration. By recognizing and addressing these barriers in the workplace setting, influences to knowledge sharing can be minimized and opportunities for efficient and effective alliances can be developed.

In studying behavioral considerations related to knowledge retention, Martins and Meyer (2012) argued that key risks, related to lost knowledge, reside at the individual level. The authors found that behaviors, attitudes, and emotions affected individuals'

36

cooperation, commitment, willingness to share, and communication abilities. As reported by Thompson (2005) a main barrier to knowledge sharing is people's behavior, having a mark of 80%, with technology barriers representing 20%. Pinho, Rego and Cunha (2012) emphasized that impediments to the individual's knowledge sharing included the lack of motivation to share, interpersonal trust, and poor social and relational skills. Connelly, Zweig, Webster, and Trougakos (2012) pointed out that hiding knowledge or evading knowledge sharing activities often entails mistrust. Continuous interaction and socialization can assist in the acceptance of the beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions that coalesce within the diverse generational workforce. Therefore, through the understanding and removal of obstacles and the installation of mediators, knowledge sharing can become a standard practice within an organizational culture.

The investment of time and effort are integral to the interactive process of knowledge sharing. In their research, Hau, Kim, Lee, and Kim (2013) confirmed that motivational aspects of social interactions between employees are necessary to achieve knowledge sharing and that the specific knowledge to be shared holds different values to the sources. Hau et al.'s (2013) study was based on two theories: the rational action theory where knowledge sharing occurs when the benefits received surpass the related costs and the social capital theory where knowledge sharing transpires when employee interactions are responsive and genial. The authors desired to understand how rewards, reciprocity, enjoyment, and social capital influenced knowledge sharing. A survey was used to collect 2,010 responses and the analysis was performed using partial least squares with a structural equation model. The study provided interesting results in that

37

reciprocity, enjoyment, and social capital indicated higher positive impacts than rewards on knowledge sharing. While the ultimate goal was to understand organizational knowledge sharing drivers, the findings present organizational management with an incentive to take a different approach to the motivations that individual employees may follow for sharing knowledge.

In an examination of knowledge sharing and innovative behavior, Yu, Yu, and Yu (2013) believed that an organization's future depends upon the innovation and creativity achieved through knowledge sharing. In their research, based on the knowledge spiral theory, Yu et al. (2013) posited that personal knowledge is transformed through socialization, externalization, combination, and internalization. A total of 403 participants from 33 organizations responded to the survey for examining the relationships of knowledge sharing and innovative behavior at both the individual and organizational levels. The results from the hierarchical linear model indicated that knowledge sharing positively enhanced innovative behavior at an individual level and at an organizational level. Yu, Yu, and Yu asserted that individual knowledge sharing provides for the internalization of knowledge with extended use in decision-making and goal accomplishment. Managers should actively promote endeavors that encourage knowledge sharing, not only to enhance individual employee performance, but also for the welfare of an organization.

In 2012, Chow insisted that social networking promoted knowledge sharing. However, minimal research was found by Chow (2012) in understanding how networking and knowledge sharing impacted performance. Chow's study investigated the effect of

38

the collaborative network setting on a knowledge sharing-performance correlation. The social exchange theory provided the foundation for the study, where information and knowledge are exchanged through social interactions and that a reciprocal relationship provides balance. A sample size of 168 individuals completed a survey with constructs of network structure, knowledge sharing, and performance, reporting a Cronbach alpha range of 0.74 to 0.90. Through hierarchical multiple regression analysis the findings supported that knowledge sharing positively affected performance. Knowledge sharing provides the opportunities for retention and growth of a corporate asset. The impact of the network setting was defined by the position (central or in-between) of the individual within the network for influencing knowledge sharing. When the individual is in a central position in the network, the individual experiences more influence to share knowledge (Chow, 2012). The only way for knowledge to be shared between individuals is through communication and interactions, and unless this sharing occurs, knowledge will have inadequate usefulness within an organization or possibly even dissipate. Although the study's results did not indicate significance for all variables, the research does support a strategy that can encourage knowledge sharing between individuals through social interactions and networking for performance improvements.

McNichols (2010) performed a study to understand knowledge sharing and transfers between Baby Boomers and Gen X employees. From the research, McNichols determined that sharing knowledge was futile unless a cooperative individual was available to receive the knowledge. To obtain the research data McNichols used a purposive sampling procedure to secure engineers with an interest and understanding of

the subject matter. A qualitative modified Delphi survey was given to six Baby Boomers and 24 Gen X participants. Two themes surfaced from the research: the significance of a relationship between the knowledge source and the receiver, and the workplace setting or culture must support knowledge sharing behaviors. McNichols reported that barriers included: time and cost restraints for knowledge owners, mistrust, and no defined organizational process for transitioning knowledge. An environment where knowledge sharing has a priority in work activities and where trust between cohorts can be developed provides the conditions ripe for positive knowledge sharing.

Lam and Lambermont-Ford (2010) observed that regardless whether an individual contributed to knowledge sharing activities, all individuals of an organization often benefit. In essence, for those who do not contribute, personal gain can be achieved without cost to the individual. Many times the knowledge becomes public (within an organization). Non-contributing efforts and the individual's hesitancy for knowledge sharing focus around the personal loss of ownership or control of the knowledge, as well any potential for organizational leveraging that may be attributed to the perceived value of the knowledge. Motivators that support improved personal abilities, experiences, and self-esteem may initiate contributing activities within interactions between the individuals within an organization.

Reychav and Weisberg (2010) discovered that knowledge can be shared by both social interactions and by the study of activities or behavior, as a result of the cooperation between two or more individuals. The authors believed that one's attitudes relate to and explain one's behavior within an organizational work setting. Basing their study on two

40

theories (the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior), Reychav and Weisberg attempted to understand the relationship of the individual's intention to share knowledge with his/her knowledge sharing behavior. After a successful pilot study, the questionnaire, which yielded a Cronbach's alpha average of 0.90, was utilized to obtain 278 responses. Confirmatory factor analysis was employed to evaluate the correlation of intention to share to knowledge sharing behavior, where the results positively substantiated the hypotheses of intention to share to knowledge sharing behavior. These findings support that organizational management must understand the complications and ramifications of the workforce's intentions and related behaviors regarding knowledge sharing activities in order to employ constructive strategies to mitigate risks for lost knowledge.

Where knowledge exists in the individuals of an organization, this knowledge must be shared in all directions, across all generations, in which the individual interacts within the workplace. The preceding research presented various challenges to the organizational knowledge within the individual and how those factors influence knowledge sharing behaviors. While knowledge sharing can be viewed as a 'giving' process where effectiveness occurs with an individual's willingness to share (Matzler, Renzl, Muller, Herting, & Mooradian, 2008; McLaughlin, Paton, & Macbeth, 2008), attitudes, values, and other personal characteristics often direct one's tendencies for knowledge sharing. Some individuals may even view knowledge as power when perceived as having more personal value to the individual than the company, and thus, creating the reluctance to share.

41

Obstacles to knowledge sharing can impact organizational operations and performance differently; therefore, management needs to understand these impediments and strategize in managing and mitigating any risks presented. Acknowledging and comprehending such barriers presents the opportunities for developing cohort alliances and relationships to build trust and break down such obstructions. The continuous sharing of knowledge provides all organizations with opportunities for knowledge appreciation which can enhance overall efficiencies, effectiveness, growth, and continued competitive advantages.

The Theory of Emotional Intelligence

Emotions are part of the human nature and composition of the individual, no matter where one's placement may be – at home or at work. They cannot be placed on a shelf for a period of time and picked up at a later time; in essence, emotional impacts, whether positive or negative, are experienced by the individual in most activities and interactions. The internal nature of emotions is not always under the control of the individual but often initiated by interaction with others. Lawler and Thye (1999) believed that emotions communicate information within and between the parties involved in the interaction. Emotions become ingrained into the relations and can alter the outcomes. Hence, emotions play a role in one's motivations, thinking, and behavior whether engaging in social interactions or for decision-making.

A third theory upon which this research study will be based is the theory of emotional intelligence. Seminal research on emotional intelligence was performed by Salovey and Mayer in 1990 and 1993; and in collaboration with Caruso, continued

42

research occurred in 1999 and 2004. Additionally, exploration and research by Goleman occurred in 1995 and 1998. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004) have described emotional intelligence as an "evolved area of communication" (p.199). Emotional intelligence involves identifying, utilizing, and managing personal emotions as well as interpreting other's emotions as guidance for one's actions. Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) maintained that emotional intelligence guides the individual in recognizing how emotions participate in interactions, problem-solving, and decision-making.

Cherniss (2010) posed three assumptions on emotional intelligence:

1. Emotions perform an essential function in an individual's life.
2. All individuals differ in their abilities of emotional intelligence.
3. The variations in individual abilities shape one's acclimatization to his/her environment, including the workplace.

Cherniss offered that emotional intelligence was central to social interactions and in dealing with change and stress. As previously stated emotions proliferate into the individual's activities and can determine behaviors and outcomes, both positively and negatively.

Applegate, Timur, and Locklear (2009) claimed that the use of emotional intelligence in an organization produces sharper, more efficient and effective employees. Gopinath (2011) contended that the work environment presents many situations where managing one's emotions is needed. Emotions displayed in a workplace setting may be associated to the individual's attitudes and behavior and may not meet organizational policies. From their study Applegate et al. (2009) posited that self-awareness provided

43

essential support in the relationship of emotional intelligence for positive productive results in behavior of organizational employees. Consistent with this notion, Goleman (1998) believed that self-awareness allows the individual to comprehend how different emotions influence one's behavior. The importance of emotional intelligence cannot be understated regarding support for cooperation and collaboration in the workplace environment (Applegate et al., 2009).

Understanding and evaluating emotional signals (from oneself and others) provides guidance in determining a desired action. Balamohan, Tech, and Gomathi (2015) maintained that emotional intelligence factors into the individual's competence for handling both personal and workplace challenges, including managing and mediating experiences of discord and dissention. Individuals receive assistance from emotional intelligence where and when organizational changes require flexibility and the management of one's interactions (Ljungholm, 2014). This comprehension can offer effective working relations in an organizational setting where interaction results require positive outcomes versus reactions (Applegate et al, 2009). As such, emotional intelligence can provide individuals with an advantage and capacity to guide and direct behavioral effects which can noticeably impact organizational activities.

Balamohan, Tech, and Gomathi (2015) reported in their research analyses that emotional intelligence influenced the individual's personal behavior in the work environment. While maintaining that cohorts must work collaboratively and resolve any concerns that negatively impact work activities, the authors asserted that emotional intelligence provides abilities that enable the individual to manage personal and work-

44

related challenges. Optimistic and encouraging emotions inspire cooperation, learning, and innovation within individuals in the work setting and help them to feel valued.

Hess and Bacigalupo (2011) reviewed various studies to understand the relationship between emotional intelligence and decision-making processes. The theory of emotional intelligence formed the basis for their analysis where the knowledge and management of one's emotions, as well as the recognition of emotions in others, can assist in promoting positive outcomes in interactions and relations with individuals within an organization. Hess and Bacigalupo believed that organizational strategies must be developed to enhance the value of decision-making by the individual. Kunnanatt (2008) posited that emotional intelligence provided a way for the individual to discover self-awareness, contributing to communication skills and assertiveness, while achieving success in their social interactions. Emotions faced by the individual, as a consequence of decisions made, can be factors that guide future performance.

In an effort to evaluate the relationship between emotional intelligence, job performance, and attitudes at work, Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall, and Salovey (2006) analyzed 44 participants using the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). The study was based on Mayer and Salovey's theory of emotional intelligence with the four abilities of emotional information processing (perceiving emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions, and managing emotions). The results provided positive associations of emotional intelligence to job performance, as a total and for all four abilities, denoting a high significance for a positive work environment. Positive interaction and sociability ranked significantly high in perceiving and using

45

emotions. The authors suggested their study provided groundwork in that the capabilities of emotional intelligence can influence positive and productive work outcomes. Further support is provided by analysis on 43 studies reviewed by O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver, and Story (2011) where influences of emotional intelligence for job performance were found significant.

Shahhosseini, Silong, and Ismaill (2013) performed a study to understand the impacts of emotional intelligence and leadership styles as related to individual job performance. For their examination of emotional intelligence, the Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) was presented to 192 bank managers. The results of their research suggested that emotional intelligence was the most significant contributor to the managers' job performance. Shahhosseini, Silong, and Ismaill (2013) found that their results were consistent with other researchers (Hosseini, 2007; Reissi & Malehi, 2008; Terani, 2004) who also reported significance for the effectiveness of emotional intelligence toward the individual's job performance. Success in the use and practice of emotional intelligence at a management level has shown contributions to higher levels of collaboration and cooperation, boosts in morale and motivation, and an overall positive organizational environment.

Kafetsios, Nezlek, and Vassiou (2011) organized a study to investigate the relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence and subordinates' emotion and work attitudes. Kafetsios, Nezlek, and Vassiou believed that the leader's use of emotion in communication and motivation could provide positive effects for their subordinates. The Wong Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS), a self-report instrument, was used to

46

measure the constructs of self-emotion appraisal, appraisal of emotion in others, use of emotion, and emotion regulation. Wong and Law (2002) suggested that emotional intelligence should be examined at the component levels to determine the abilities that support an organizational environment. The participants of the study consisted of 33 school leaders and 179 school teachers. The findings indicated that the leaders' use of emotion proved the most significant with positive results for subordinates' work attitudes. No relationship was found for leaders' appraisal of other's emotions, whereas self-emotion appraisal and emotion regulation negatively influenced work attitude. Where leaders managed their emotions versus sharing them, subordinates felt that they were controlling and less sincere. Overall, interactions and relationships between leaders and subordinates within an organizational environment can be positively influenced in various manners by the use of emotional intelligence.

The goal of research performed by Chang, Sy, and Choi (2012) was to investigate emotional intelligence at the group level for team performance. Team communications and relations are often positively positioned by those who are experienced in using emotional intelligence. Chang, Sy, and Choi implied that emotional intelligence supported team trust and therefore, enhanced team performance. With a sample size of 347 individuals, consisting of 91 teams, data was collected using the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS). For this instrument the four dimensions of emotional intelligence (mood regulation, emotion appraisal, social skills, and emotion utilization) were analyzed. The findings indicated that emotion appraisal and social skills were positive predictors of team performance. These results further support that when an

47

individual works on or with teams, his or her level and use of emotional intelligence can impact the team's outcomes, most importantly for decision-making and problem solving. Individuals that manifest emotional intelligence can provide the leverage that can trigger behavioral adjustments in team interactions. Organizational leaders should pay close attention to individuals with these skills and attributes as they can be integral to team performance.

Ghosh, Shuck, and Petrosko (2012) also focused their study on the relationship between emotional intelligence and collective team learning for effects on performance improvements. Emotions can affect the cohesion and collaboration of the team; thus, conflict, decision-making, and problem solving can be challenging. Convenience sampling was used for data collection from 11 different organizational project teams. The Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (WEIP, Version 3) was the survey instrument used to measure the work teams. The results found that emotional intelligence presented a positive correlation in work teams for team learning, specifically for the awareness and management of emotions in their environment. Managing personal emotions and acknowledging another's emotions creates a protected atmosphere for team learning. Thus, emotionally intelligent work teams can engage in constructive ways to communicate, share, and manage emotions for team efficiencies and productivity.

Decker, Landaeta, and Kotnour (2009) argued that the individual employee, as the primary holder of knowledge within an organization, has the obligation to ensure that the knowledge is shared with his or her cohorts. This concept pertains to individuals at all levels of an organization. Individual-level emotions can generate behaviors that can

48

advance or impair the interactions within the team setting. Where emotional intelligence has influenced team performance through collaboration, inspiration, and efficiencies, team building can also benefit (Douglas, Frank, & Ferris, 2004). To further knowledge that resides within the individual or within a group or unit, knowledge sharing is essential with other organizational members.

The characteristics of and the relationship between the parties involved in the activity are important to the process of conveying knowledge (Decker et al., 2009). In their research Decker et al. (2009) collected data from 31 individuals involved in project teams within various organizations to evaluate emotional intelligence's influence on knowledge transfer methods in projects. Emotional intelligence constructs included: awareness of own emotions, ability to discuss own emotions, ability to control own emotions to facilitate thinking, ability to recognize emotions of others, and ability to manage emotions of others. Knowledge transfer methods constructs included: people-to-people, people-to-documents, and people-to-events (across and within projects). Similar to Ghosh et al.'s (2012) study, the WEIP self-report survey was also used in collecting the data from the individuals. Linear regression analysis results indicated that there was no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and knowledge transfer methods, as single variables, in a project environment (Decker et al., 2009). The construct level provided a different picture. At the factor level across projects, marginal positive correlations were reported for ability to discuss own emotions to people-to-people, ability to recognize emotions of others to people-to-documents, and ability to manage others' emotions to people-to-people and people-to-documents transfer methods.

49

For the factor level within projects, significant positive correlations were found for ability to discuss own emotions to people-to-people and ability to control own emotions to facilitate thinking to people-to-documents transfer methods.

Decker et al. (2009) posited that their research results indicated that knowledge is moved most effectively and efficiently using the people-to-people transfer method when emotions can be communicated, comprehended, and controlled. Identifying and managing emotions in a knowledge transfer situation can offer positive outcomes for both parties involved and can support similar future relations. When emotions are managed, barriers are reduced and confusion, conflicts, and misunderstandings are minimized, especially in a team setting. Benefits to both the individuals and an organization can be achieved from a balanced emotional position as received from the efficiencies and effectiveness of working environment.

Controversies Regarding Emotional Intelligence

Disagreements on emotional intelligence research entail two major concerns: a common definition of emotional intelligence and the measurement of emotional intelligence. One controversy lies in the lack of agreement on a definition of emotional intelligence. Several emotional intelligence definitions have evolved with the research, ultimately all focusing on the awareness and management of emotions (Cherniss, 2010; Côté, 2014; Nafukho, 2009). Mayer et al. (1993) held fast to the notion that emotional intelligence has four branches which incorporates the ability to recognize emotions in self and others, to comprehend emotions, to utilize emotions in thought and reasoning, and to manage emotions in self and others. Bar-On's (1997) definition included personal and

50

social competencies and skills that help the individual manage the stress and demands of his or her environment. Goleman (1998) added the social skill of relationship management to Mayer's definition where all the dimensions work together toward the desired objective. Cherniss (2010) pointed out that the basic definition of emotional intelligence should focus on the abilities of the perception, rationalization, and management of emotions.

Options offered to resolve the definition controversy are to completely reject the concept of emotional intelligence, to accept all the different definitions, or to select the best the definition for adoption. Cherniss (2010) further elaborated that many researchers have based their definition on Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey's 1997 definition of emotional intelligence. Others have added new factors to this base definition. Cherniss noted that some definitions relate to emotional-social competences (Boyatzis, Goleman, Petrides, and Bar-On) versus emotional intelligence (Mayer et al. and Schutte). Cherniss claimed that an agreement on the definition of emotional intelligence can provide clarification and unify the field of research on emotional intelligence.

The second controversy surrounds the many different approaches to measuring emotional intelligence. Cause for concern is that content validity is deficient for these measurements as the theoretical development is ambiguous, as well as the emotional intelligence content for each measurement is disparate (Cherniss, 2010; Conte, 2005; Côté, 2014). Cherniss (2010) noted that all the models have strengths and limitations. The challenge remains to identify a method that is efficient and cost-effective. Table 7 provides a comparative view of different emotional intelligence measurements.

51

Other instruments exist in addition to the ones listed in Table 7 which add to the controversy of an emotional intelligence measurement approach in assessing the knowledge of emotions or the ability to assess emotions.

- Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI)

- Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue)

- Emotional Self-Awareness Questionnaire (ESQ)

- Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS)

Table 7. Emotional Intelligence Measurements

Measurement	Author(s) / Year	Constructs / Factors	Internal Consistency
Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI)	Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee (2000)	self-awareness social awareness self-management social skills	0.80 – 0.95
Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I)	Bar-On (2000)	intrapersonal interpersonal adaptability general mood stress management	0.86 – 0.94
Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS)	Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1993)	perception assimilation understanding managing emotions	0.95
Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)	Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1997)	perceive emotions utilize emotions in thought understand emotions regulate emotions in self and others	0.86
Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT)	Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, and Dornheim (1998)	ability to perceive emotions understand emotions regulate emotions express emotions	0.90
Wong-Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS)	Wong and Law (2002)	awareness of emotion in self awareness of emotion in others use of emotion emotion regulation	0.83 – 0.90
Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (WEIP)	Jordan, Ashkanasy, Härtel, and Hooper (2002)	awareness of own emotions ability to discuss own emotions use of own emotions to facilitate thinking ability to recognize others' emotions ability to detect false displays of emotion in others empathetic concern ability to manage others' emotions	0.82

Conclusion

The environment in which an organization participates has become vigorous, multifaceted, and unpredictable. Increases in productivity and performance are continually in demand. A generationally rich workforce in any organization can be ripe with diversity and challenges. Gaps in the generations not only cause a decrease in productivity and decision-making errors, but also create the potential for lost knowledge (Davis, Sarkani, & Mazzuchi, 2012). The differences in generational characteristics could result in communication issues, and hence, the resistance and inability to share knowledge. As the evolution and advancement of knowledge continues over time, this key organizational asset must be shared among the workforce groups regardless of the makeup. The interactions between cohorts will determine the outcomes of the activities, even for knowledge sharing.

Dissimilar attitudes, values, and beliefs within the workforce can incite many different emotions in working towards operational needs and organizational goals. Emotions corroborate behavior, motivation, learning, and responses to change, where both positive and negative emotions influence one's thinking and actions. When emotions are left unmanaged, they can cause a domino effect, especially when expressed through behaviors. The quality of interactions can be positively impacted when emotions are understood and managed, especially where and when tense situations occur, for anticipating emotional reactions and managing responses more effectively (Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schűtz, Sellin, & Salovey, 2004). The generational workforce must exhibit the appropriate behavior necessary to perform at expected levels in achieving

54

corporate goals. The range and intensity of attitudes and values of a generationally

diverse workforce must be harnessed for positive effects towards organizational goals;

therefore, strategies must be formed to support and overcome challenges to

organizational success, specifically where knowledge sharing is affected.

Emotions impact an individual's judgments and decision-making; and as such, the

best, positive results benefit all participants in their interactions. Emotional intelligence

can assist the individual in managing emotions and adapting to the experiences and

situations that are presented in an organizational setting, especially with a diverse

workforce. In order to engender employees who are efficient, collaborative, and

productive, leaders must strategize to overcome diversities that can negatively impact

essential areas of an organization that relate to knowledge sharing, competitive

advantages, and growth potential.

This research study presents relevancy with respect to a current organizational

situation – multigenerational cohorts working together to accomplish corporate goals and

objectives, in an environment where a valuable organizational asset and activity –

knowledge sharing must continue to ensure growth and competitiveness, presenting a

way to bridge the generational diversities that exist in an organizational environment –

emotional intelligence. The selection of the United States employees from the

operational and support services (non-physician/provider) side of the healthcare industry

as the population for this research study stems from the fact that the researcher is

currently employed by an international healthcare organization. Many of the emotional

intelligence research studies have analyzed the nursing profession, doctors, clinicians,

psychiatrists, and medical students. Faguy (2012) argued that the healthcare industry has taken a slow interest in emotional intelligence due to the caring nature of the profession. No study has been found on the operational and services side of healthcare which is often considered the other side of the healthcare delivery system. Additionally, no prior research has been located that includes emotional intelligence, knowledge sharing, and generational cohorts. As presented by Delmatoff (2014), in order to improve on the productivity and performance in any area of the healthcare organization where constant changes and compliance must be met head on, employees must be inspired and supported. Positive emotions and behaviors can bring out the best in the cohort interactions with others, especially where generational diversity can present challenges.

Chapter 2 has presented a review of literature regarding generational diversities and impacts, the value of knowledge and importance of sharing, and the influences of emotional intelligence in various organizational endeavors. Chapter 3 will discuss the research design, measurements, data collection, and statistical analysis process of this research study.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this research study was to investigate whether emotional intelligence has any relationship to knowledge sharing for overcoming the diverse generational characteristics of the workforce. This research study applied the theory of emotional intelligence that relates knowledge sharing to emotional intelligence for three generational cohorts (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y). Emotions, attitudes, and characteristics work together as part of the cohort's composition that motivates relationships, interactions, and behaviors. While each generational cohort conveys related perceptions, values, and beliefs in an organizational environment, the cohort's diversity can present obstacles to interactions and behaviors where knowledge sharing must occur. Srinivasan (2012) posited that generational differences can impact problem-solving, decision-making, and knowledge sharing.

This quantitative, non-experimental, explanatory, cross-sectional, survey research study investigated the research question: to what extent does the Emotional Intelligence Index and the Generational Cohorts explain the variation in the Knowledge Sharing Index, controlling for Gender and Years of Work Experience. Responses from one survey, consisting of two instruments, were collected and analyzed to determine the significance of emotions' stimulus from the cohorts of three generations for knowledge sharing. The methodological approach and design, assumptions, sampling strategy, survey instruments utilized, data collection process, data analysis technique exercised, the

57

validity and reliability in support of the measurements employed, and the ethical considerations applied to this study are explained in further detail in the remainder of this chapter.

Research Design

A quantitative, non-experimental, explanatory, cross-sectional, survey research design was used in this research study. This research design was suitable for investigating the relationships between variables for overall fit and for any relative support of a specific variable as the variables are studied as they exist and are not manipulated (Vogt, 2012). In alignment with the research question and in extending the theoretical perspectives of the knowledge-based theory of the firm, the theory of emotional intelligence, and the theory of generations, this explanatory research study examined variations in the Knowledge Sharing Index (DV) resulting from changes in the Emotional Intelligence Index (IV) and Generational Cohort (IV), controlling for Gender (CV) and Years of Work Experience (CV). The use of self-reporting surveys is supported by Groves (2011) in that feelings, ambitions, and actions are measured as indications from the population. The statistical model used for this research study was hierarchical multiple linear regression. The design aligned with the research question and supported the purpose because the objective of hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis is to demonstrate the contributing relationship between explanatory and response variables (Field, 2009).

The assumptions for this research study fell into three categories: theoretical, topical, and methodological. The theoretical assumption maintained that, conceptually,

58

three theories applied to this research study in the following manner: generational diversities (theory of generations) impacts social interactions where emotions must be regulated and managed (theory of emotional intelligence) for knowledge sharing and retention (knowledge-based theory of the firm) within an organizational environment. The topical assumption pointed out that emotions challenge the outcomes in decision-making and personal interactions; and therefore, knowledge sharing activities can be deterred by emotions associated to an individual's diversity and generational membership. A primary methodological assumption was that the independent variables (emotional intelligence and generational cohorts) have an effect on the dependent variable (knowledge sharing). Assumptions additionally identified and reviewed, in support of the multiple linear regression model, were independence, linearity, homoscedasticity of residuals, the absence of multicollinearity, no significant outliers, and normality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). While aligning with the positivist perspective, this research study was designed to generate rational knowledge with this exploratory model, using objective measurement and analysis – where the activities of the research study had the goal of prediction leading to generalization (Holden & Lynch, 2004).

Population, Sample Frame, Sample Size, and Sampling Plan

Population

The target population for this research study was individuals employed within the United States in the operational and support services side of the healthcare industry who were born between the years of 1946 and 2000.

59

Sample Frame

The sampling frame consisted of members of the SurveyMonkey Audience who were employed within the United States in the operational and support services side of the healthcare industry who were born between the years of 1946 and 2000.

Sample Size

A minimum of 138 participants were required for this research study based upon the G*Power 3.1.9.2 analysis (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2009). Table 8 displays the protocol of the power analyses and Figure 2 depicts the central and non-central test distributions.

Table 8. Protocol of Power Analysis (G*Power 3.1.9.2)

F tests - Linear multiple regression: Fixed model, R² deviation from zero
Analysis: A priori: Compute required sample size
Input: Effect size f²   = 0.15
               α err prob   = 0.05
               Power (1-β err prob)   = 0.95
               Number of predictors   = 5
Output: Noncentrality parameter λ = 20.7000000
               Critical F   = 2.2828562
               Numerator df   = 5
               Denominator df   = 132
               Total sample size   = 138
               Actual power   = 0.9507643
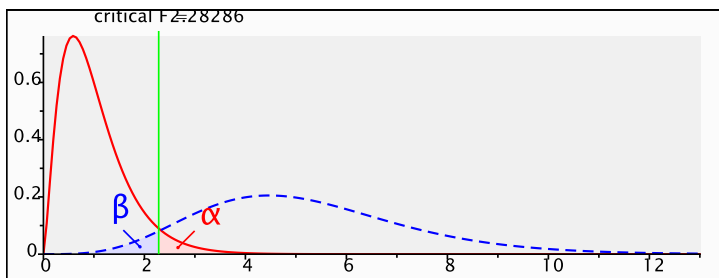
Figure 2. Central and Non-central Test Distributions (G*Power 3.1.9.2)

60

Sampling Plan

To prevent bias, a sampling design must be consistent with the research question (Pannucci & Wilkins, 2010). This cross-sectional research study is based on data from different groups of participants (Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Generation Y) who share characteristics based upon their generational birth years, where the data is non-experimental and not manipulated. Simple random sampling was used to achieve an unbiased representation of the population providing each member an equal opportunity of being included in the sample. Table 9 depicted the Generational Cohort anticipated percentage response breakdown in relation to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2015) for United States individuals employed in the operational and support services of healthcare sectors.

Table 9. Generational Cohort Breakdown (Anticipated)

Category	Percentage of employed US Individuals in Healthcare operational and services sectors Bureau of Labor Statistics (2015)
Baby Boomers (1946-1964)	12%
Generation X (1965-1980)	36%
Generation Y (1981-2000)	52%

Instrumentation/Measures

Two instruments were combined into one survey and utilized in this research study. The instruments were the Knowledge Sharing Behavior Scale (KSBS) created by Yi (2009) and the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) developed by Schutte et al. (1998).

61

Yi (2009) believed that knowledge sharing has benefits to both an individual and an organization but found no measuring tool to assess the behavior, other than with counts, posts, reports, or through verbal inquiries. Ramayah, Yeap, and Ignatius (2014) reported that the academics have invested little effort in developing a knowledge sharing instrument that is valid and reliable. After in-depth research was undertaken to find an instrument for measuring knowledge sharing with little success, the KSBS survey was identified and ascertained that the instrument met the research study's knowledge sharing criteria.

The variable, Knowledge Sharing Index, was measured using the KSBS instrument. The survey questions in this research study consisted of 23 items related to knowledge sharing behavior, focusing on the organizational communications, personal interactions, and communities of practice factors, and were combined to determine the knowledge sharing index. As knowledge is shared through interactions, Ji's KSBS survey provided questions on the dimensions of the knowledge sharing behavior. The survey questions required a Likert scale response with 5 choices: 1=never, 2=rarely, 3=sometimes, 4=often, and 5=always.

Many tests have been designed to evaluate emotional intelligence. Some of the specific instruments that were reviewed included: the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso (1997) Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) which includes 141 items and tests the four factors of perceiving, identifying, understanding, and managing emotions; Goleman and Boyatzis' (2004) Emotional Competence Inventory (ECi) consisting of 117 questions and covers self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills; and Bar-

62

On's (1997) Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQi), a self-reporting test which includes 133 items and measures interpersonal, intrapersonal, adaptability, stress management, and mood. Cherniss (2010) maintained that emotional intelligence should be tested on the core capabilities (emotion recognition, reasoning, and management). The selected instrument for the Emotional Intelligence Index construct was the SSEIT. In matching the desired research question and, in light of participant response time and cost efficiencies, further analysis led to SSEIT as the chosen measurement.

The SSEIT is a 33-item self-reporting survey developed by Schutte et al. (1998), based on the comprehensive emotional intelligence scale authored by Salovey and Mayer in 1990 and revised in 1997. The same four components of perceiving, identifying, understanding, and managing emotions are replicated in the SSEIT instrument. Similar to the KSBS measurement, the SSEIT required Likert-type responses with frequency values of 1=strongly disagree, 2=somewhat disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4= somewhat agree, and 5=strongly agree.

Validity and Reliability

Tavakol and Dennick (2011) stated that validity and reliability are essential in the evaluation of an instrument. Validity, specifically construct validity, examines whether the instrument measures the intended construct. For consistency of the scale, Nunnally (1978) supported a minimum acceptable criterion for internal consistency to be 0.70. Construct validity for the KSBS scale has been demonstrated and supported by the research performed by Ji (2009), Özbebek and Toplu (2011), and Ramayah, Yeap, and Ignatius (2014). In the verification testing of the KSBS instrument, Ji (2009) reported a

63

Cronbach's coefficient reliability of 0.854 for the 23 items used in this research study. In a study of the relationship between empowerment and knowledge sharing, Özbebek and Toplu (2011) used the KSBS survey and conveyed a reliability of 0.76. Ramayah, Yeap, and Ignatius (2014) confirmed a reliability value of 0.938 for the same 23 items of the KSBS instrument in their validation study of knowledge sharing behavior.

Schutte et al. (1998) has validated the SSEIT survey with an internal consistency Cronbach's alpha of 0.90, with a secondary test reporting an internal consistency of 0.78. In a study by Bhochhibhoya, Branscum, Taylor, and Hofford (2014), where the SSEIT was used to measure emotional intelligence in relation to physical activity and mental health, the instrument reported a Cronbach's alpha of 0.88. Additionally, validity has been demonstrated with the use and reference of the SSEIT in over 2,400 academic publications.

Data Collection

The process for collecting data for this research study utilized SurveyMonkey Audience services in distributing the survey questions, via the Internet, to the participants and collecting the resulting responses. Simple random sampling was used to collect data from the three generational cohorts (Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Generation Y). Specific inclusion criteria required that the participant must be born between the years of 1946 and 2000 and employed in the United States in the operational and support services of the healthcare industry.

The survey communication to the participant began with informed consent, the reasons for the survey, the researcher's contact information, a statement that participation

64

Cronbach's coefficient reliability of 0.854 for the 23 items used in this research study. In a study of the relationship between empowerment and knowledge sharing, Özbebek and Toplu (2011) used the KSBS survey and conveyed a reliability of 0.76. Ramayah, Yeap, and Ignatius (2014) confirmed a reliability value of 0.938 for the same 23 items of the KSBS instrument in their validation study of knowledge sharing behavior.

Schutte et al. (1998) has validated the SSEIT survey with an internal consistency Cronbach's alpha of 0.90, with a secondary test reporting an internal consistency of 0.78. In a study by Bhochhibhoya, Branscum, Taylor, and Hofford (2014), where the SSEIT was used to measure emotional intelligence in relation to physical activity and mental health, the instrument reported a Cronbach's alpha of 0.88. Additionally, validity has been demonstrated with the use and reference of the SSEIT in over 2,400 academic publications.

Data Collection

The process for collecting data for this research study utilized SurveyMonkey Audience services in distributing the survey questions, via the Internet, to the participants and collecting the resulting responses. Simple random sampling was used to collect data from the three generational cohorts (Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Generation Y). Specific inclusion criteria required that the participant must be born between the years of 1946 and 2000 and employed in the United States in the operational and support services of the healthcare industry.

The survey communication to the participant began with informed consent, the reasons for the survey, the researcher's contact information, a statement that participation

64

was completely voluntary, and that all information would be kept confidential. Before launching into the actual survey, a question was presented to the participant if he or she wanted to participate in the survey. A positive response initiated the demographic questions (male/female, birth year, and years of work experience) and then continued with the knowledge sharing and emotional intelligence survey questions. A negative response exited the participant from the survey site.

Responses to one survey (with two instruments) were used to collect the data: SSEIT with 33 items and the KSBS with 23 items. In actuality, a total of 172 participants responded to the survey; 30 responses were eliminated, with 28 being removed for a negative response to participate and 2 for incomplete surveys, leaving 142 responses that were included in the analyses. The researcher was notified by SurveyMonkey when the desired number of responses was received and the survey was closed. The data was then downloaded for review and analysis.

Data Analysis

Upon reaching the required number of responses and survey closure, the data was downloaded into an Excel spreadsheet for review and analysis before entering into IBM SPSS version 23 statistical software. The data for the 142 cases were transformed in the following manner: the birth year was converted to the generational category of BB (Baby Boomer), GenX (Generation X), and GenY (Generation Y). The mean values for the Knowledge Sharing Index and Emotional Intelligence Index were calculated for each respondent. Dummy variables were defined for the Generational Cohort independent

65

variable, creating one variable for each generation, with only two of these dummy variables used in the regression.

The null and alternative hypotheses for the research study were evaluated for a statistical significance of $\alpha = .05$:

H_0: $\rho^2 = 0$

H_A: $\rho^2 > 0$

where ρ^2 is the population coefficient of determination.

If the above null hypothesis (H_0: $\rho^2 = 0$) is accepted, then the multiple linear regression model has no predictive validity. If the above null hypothesis is rejected, then each of the population regression coefficients will be tested to determine which of them are statistically significant predictors using the following null and alternative hypotheses and a level of significance of $\alpha = .05$:

H_0: $\beta_i = 0$

H_A: $\beta_i \neq 0$

for $i = 0, 1, \ldots, 6$ and where: (1) β_0 is the population regression coefficient for the y intercept, (2) β_1 is the population regression coefficient for the independent variable *Emotional Intelligence Index*, X_1, (3) β_2 is the population regression coefficient for the independent variable *Generational Cohort Generation X*, X_2, (4) β_3 is the population regression coefficient for the independent variable *Generational Cohort Generation Y*, X_3, (5) β_4 is the population regression coefficient for the control variable *Gender*, X_5, and (6) β_5 is the population regression coefficient for the control variable *Years of Work Experience*, X_5.

66

Hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis was executed for the dependent variable, Knowledge Sharing Index, with forced entry in three models for the independent variables:

- Model 1 consisted of the control variables of Gender and Years of Work Experience.

- Model 2 added the independent variable Emotional Intelligence Index.

- Model 3 added the independent variables of GenX and GenY.

The resulting output was reviewed and analyzed for violations of the following multiple linear regression assumptions and then evaluated for interpretation against the hypotheses.

- Independence of errors assumed that no correlation existed between the residuals and was analyzed by the Durbin-Watson statistic.

- Linearity was tested collectively with a scatterplot of studentized residuals against the unstandardized predicted values and individually for each independent variable with partial regression plots to determine whether a linear relationship existed between the independent variables and the dependent variable.

- Homoscedasticity of residuals were also analyzed by the scatterplot of studentized residuals against the unstandardized predicted values to determine that the residual values are equal for the dependent variable.

- Multicollinearity occurs when two or more independent variables are highly correlated. This situation can create issues in determining which independent

67

variable contributed to the variance of the dependent variable. The results
were analyzed with Pearson's correlation and the collinearity diagnostics of
the Tolerance and VIF (variation inflation factor) statistics.

- No significant outliers or influential points should be present as they may bias
  the regression model to fit the data (Field, 2009); data was analyzed with
  residual statistics using Cook's Distance.

- Normality was analyzed with a histogram, normal P-P plot, normal Q-Q plot,
  and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test.

Ethical Considerations

The SurveyMonkey Audience services were used for sampling and data
collection, where no contact with the participants or conflict of interest applied; thus, bias
was eliminated. The informed consent section included a statement indicating the survey
was voluntary, with respect for confidentiality and privacy of the data received. As
gender and birth year were the only identifying data elements, these items of information
did not present any threat to the participant. All questions presented in the survey did not
pose any risk or harm to the participants as the individual questions could have been
encountered in their daily activities and interactions.

The following points were the main focus of the ethical concerns for this research
study:

- Each individual who participated had complete anonymity. The only
  identifying attributes obtained were gender and birth year.

68

- Each individual participant was shown respect with confidentiality and privacy of all information received.

- A statement was made on each survey indicating to the participant that no right or wrong answer exists.

- A statement was made on each survey requesting honesty in answering the questions.

- The data will be retained and stored on a USB drive in a locked security box and then destroyed after seven years.

- The researcher is accountable for reporting the findings – fully, responsibly, and truthfully.

69

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

Introduction

In this chapter the analysis details and results of the research study have been discussed. The prior chapters presented the purpose and literature background for this research study related to the theory of generations, the knowledge-based theory of the firm, and the theory of emotional intelligence. This chapter presented the data to answer the null and alternative hypotheses for the research question: to what extent does the Emotional Intelligence Index and the Generational Cohorts explain the variation in the Knowledge Sharing Index, controlling for Gender and Years of Work Experience? The statistical equation for the hierarchical multiple linear regression model used in the analysis was:

$$y_j = b_0 + b_1 x_{1j} + b_2 x_{2j} + b_3 x_{3j} + b_4 x_{4j} + b_5 x_{5j} + e_j$$

where

(1) $j = 1, 2, \ldots, n$, where *n* is the sample size

(2) y_i is the dependent variable *Knowledge Sharing Index* (Y)

(3) b_0 is the sample regression coefficient for the Y-intercept

(4) b_1 is the sample regression coefficient for the independent variable *Emotional Intelligence Index* (x_1)

(5) b_2 is the population regression coefficient for the independent variable *Generational Cohort Generation X* (x_2)

www.manaraa.com

(6) b_3 is the population regression coefficient for the independent variable

Generational Cohort Generation Y (x_3)

(7) b_4 is the population regression coefficient for the control variable *Gender* (x_4)

(8) b_5 is the population regression coefficient for the control variable *Years of*

Work Experience (x_5)

(9) e is the error term

The remainder of this chapter includes the population and sample, tables and figures

representing the summary and details of the analyses and results, and the conclusion of

the research study findings.

Population and Sample

An original total of 172 responses were received from SurveyMonkey Audience.

The final total of 142 participants were included in the analyses. Thirty respondents were

removed from the overall data collection as they declined to participate and/or finish the

survey as all survey questions required a response. Tables 10 and 11 depict the

descriptive statistics of the research study.

Table 10. Descriptive Statistics - Gender

	Gender	N	Percent
KS Index	Male	43	30%
	Female	99	70%
Total Cases		142	

Table 11. Descriptive Statistics - Years of Work Experience

	Yrs of Work Exp	N
KS Index	1 - 5	8
	6 - 10	10
	11 - 15	10
	16 - 20	15
	21 - 25	18
	26 - 30	21
	31 - 35	17
	36 - 40	19
	41 - 45	17
	47 - 52	7
Total Cases		142

Table 12 represented the breakdown of the percentages achieved in the research

study as compared to the 2015 Bureau of Labor Statistics percentages of employed

individuals in the healthcare operational and services sectors for the same generational

categories. The achieved percentages exhibited a skewed view in comparison to the

percentages for the anticipated participants, especially for the Baby Boomers and

Generation Y cohorts.

Table 12. Generational Cohort Breakdown (Anticipated versus Achieved)

Generational Cohort Breakdown Category	Percentage for employed US Individuals in Healthcare operational and services sectors (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015)	Percentage from SurveyMonkey Audience Participants per survey results
Baby Boomers (1946-1964)	12%	46%
Generation X (1965-1980)	36%	43%
Generation Y (1981-2000)	52%	11%

72

Instrumentation Reliability

Table 13 compared the Cronbach alpha results of the two survey instruments for this research study to the original authors' results. Both instruments used in this research study recorded a high reliability score for internal consistency.

Table 13. Comparison of Cronbach Alpha for Internal Consistency

Survey	Survey Author's Results	Dissertation Study Results
KSBS – Yi	0.854	0.943
SSEIT – Schutte	0.938	0.916

Testing Multiple Linear Regression Assumptions

Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) identified specific assumptions to be reviewed for multiple linear regression models. In particular, a theoretical consideration is that regression analyzes how strongly correlated each independent variable is with the dependent variable. The following assumptions were assessed for adherence or violations and relate to how well the model fits the data: independence of errors, a linear relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable, homoscedasticity of residuals, no multicollinearity, no significant outliers or influential points, and normality. Review and analysis of the research study's findings have been testing these assumptions.

Independence of Errors

For the assumption of independence of errors (residuals), the Durbin-Watson statistic was assessed for the autocorrelation of residuals, where a value between 0 and 4 indicates the residuals are not correlated (Field, 2009). For model summary (Table 14),

73

this statistic computed a value of 2.098, which falls within the range, indicating a lack of

autocorrelation existed between residuals and thus an independence of errors.

Table 14. Durbin-Watson Statistic

Model Summary[d]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.242[a]	.059	.045	14.49814	.059	4.330	2	139	.015	
2	.496[b]	.246	.230	13.01995	.188	34.354	1	138	.000	
3	.506[c]	.256	.229	13.03160	.010	.877	2	136	.419	2.098

a. Predictors: (Constant), Yrs of Work Exp, Gender

b. Predictors: (Constant), Yrs of Work Exp, Gender, EI Index

c. Predictors: (Constant), Yrs of Work Exp, Gender, EI Index, Gen=X, Gen=Y

d. Dependent Variable: KS Index

74

Linearity

Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) stated that scatterplots serve as visual evidence for testing whether a linear relationship exists between the dependent variable and the independent variables. The generalizability of the findings are limited if violations occur. The assumption of linearity was analyzed by visual inspection of the following figures for meeting this assumption, collectively with a scatterplot of studentized residuals against the standardized predicted values, and individually for each independent variable with partial regression plots.
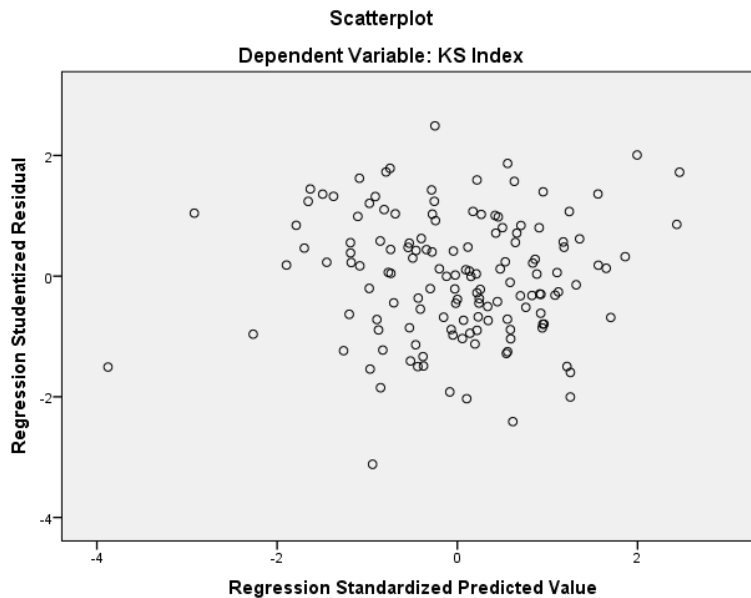

Figure 3. Scatterplot of Studentized Residual and Standardized Predicted Value
for Knowledge Sharing Index

According to Field (2009), linearity is noted when the data points are viewed in a random array in the scatterplot. As depicted in Figure 3, the residuals form the appearance of a positive horizontal band. To test the null hypothesis H_0: $\rho = 0$ for $\alpha = .05$ the Pearson's correlations (from Table 15) for the independent variables were reviewed.
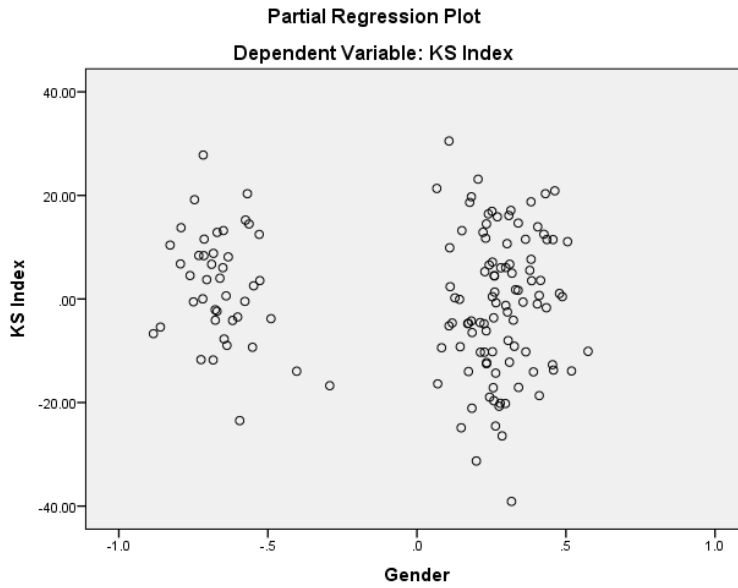
75

Figure 4. Partial Regression Plot of Gender

The partial regression plot between Knowledge Sharing Index and Gender resulted in two

clusters – one for male and one for female. A Pearson's correlation for Gender resulted

in a weak value of $r = -.038$, thus accepting the null hypothesis $H_0: \rho = 0$ because [(p =
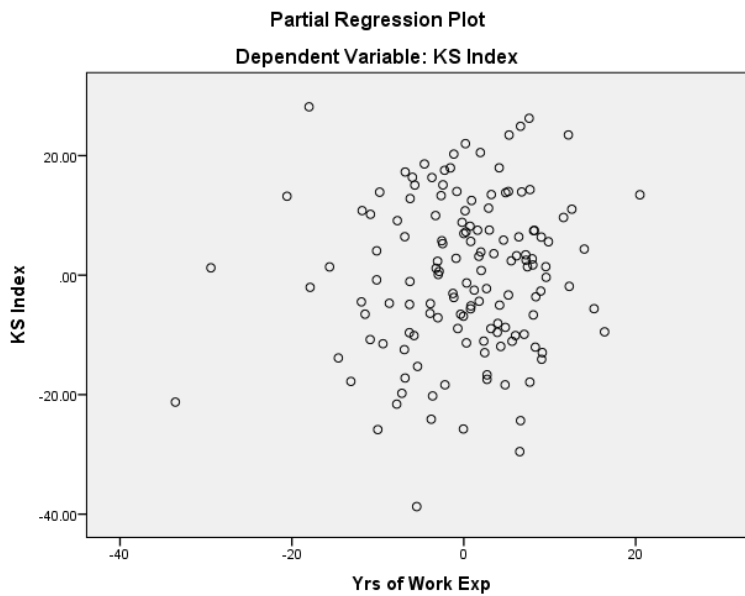
.656) > (α/2 = .025)].

Figure 5. Partial Regression Plot of Years of Work Experience

76

The partial regression plot between Knowledge Sharing Index and Years of Work

Experience displayed a weak-to-moderate positive linear relationship. A Pearson's

correlation for Years of Work Experience resulted in a weak-to-moderate value of $r =$

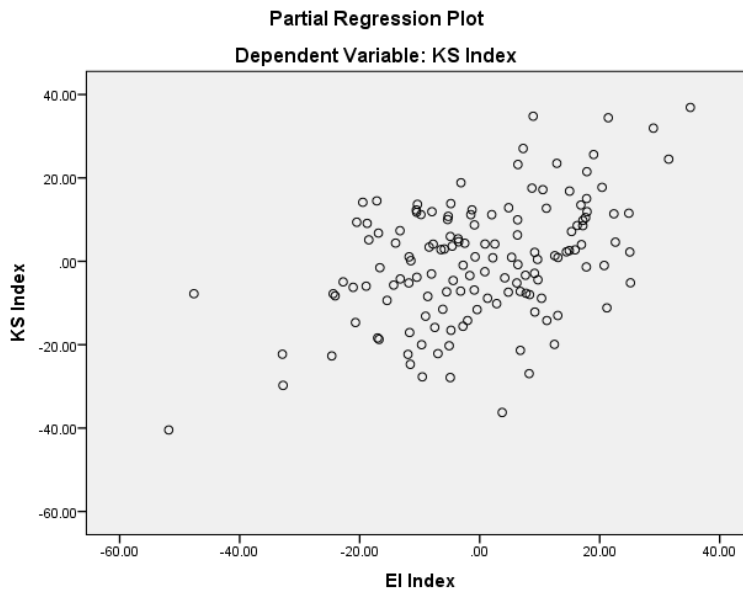.241, rejecting the null hypothesis $H_0: \rho = 0$ because $[(p = .004) < (\alpha/2 = .025)]$.

Figure 6. Partial Regression Plot of Emotional Intelligence Index

The partial regression plot between Knowledge Sharing Index and Emotional Intelligence

Index displayed a moderate linear relationship. A Pearson's correlation for the EI Index

resulted in a moderate value of $r = .438$, thus rejecting the null hypothesis $H_0: \rho = 0$

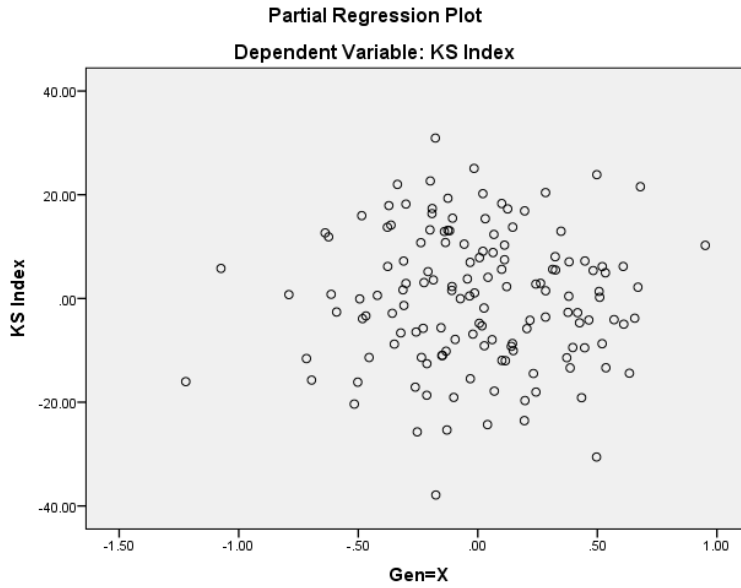because $[(p < .0005) < (\alpha/2 = .025)]$.

Figure 7. Partial Regression Plot of Generation X

The shape of this partial regression plot between Knowledge Sharing Index and

Generation X patterned no linear relationship. A Pearson's correlation of GenX resulted

in a weak value of $r = -.041$, thus accepting the null hypothesis H_0: $\rho = 0$ because [$(p = .627) > (\alpha/2 = .025)$].
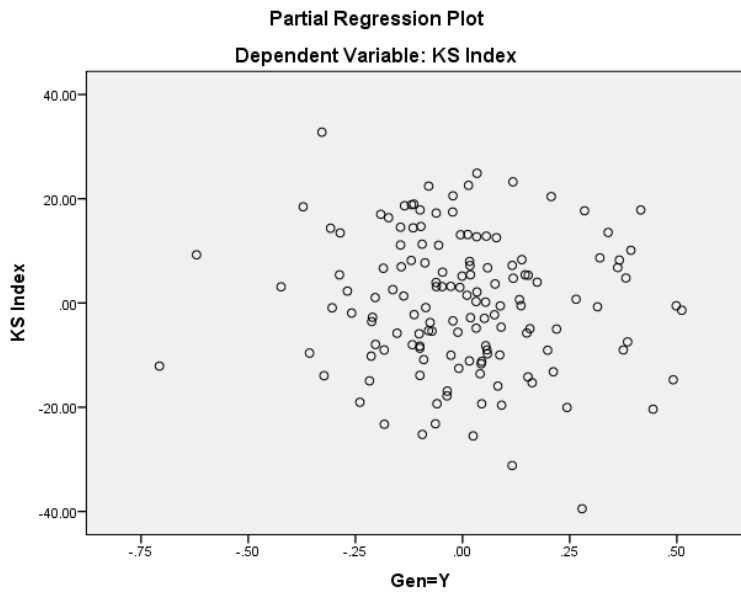

Figure 8. Partial Regression Plot of Generation Y

78

The shape of this partial regression plot between Knowledge Sharing Index and Generation Y displayed the data points as having no linear relationship. A Pearson's correlation for GenY resulted in a weak value of $r = -.164$, thus accepting the null hypothesis $H_0: \rho = 0$ because $[(p = .051) > (\alpha/2 = .025)]$.

Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity was also analyzed by visual examination of the scatterplot of studentized residuals against the unstandardized predicted values to determine that the residual values are equal for the dependent variable. In Figure 9 the data plots exhibited no real pattern (such as a funnel or fan shape), and therefore, have met the assumption of homoscedasticity (Field, 2009).
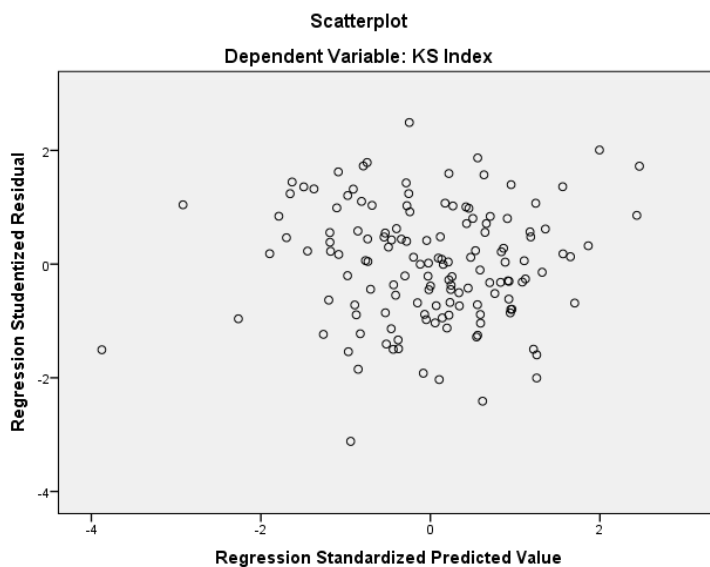

Figure 9. Scatterplot of Studentized Residual and Standardized Predicted Value for Knowledge Sharing Index

79

Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity occurs when a high correlation exists between two or more independent variables. If this situation should occur, then an assessment would be impossible to determine which independent variable had a greater impact, where a perfect correlation would equal ± 1.0. For identifying multicollinearity, a review of Pearson's correlations (two-tailed) for the independent variables (Table 15), presented no correlations higher than 0.7 which signifies that no correlations existed (Field, 2009; Laerd Statistics, 2015). In Table 15, two independent variables presented significance: Years of Work Experience $[(p = .004) < (\alpha/2 = .025)]$ and EI Index $[(p = .0005) < (\alpha/2 = .025)]$; therefore, this data supported rejecting the null hypothesis for no correlation. Additionally, the Collinearity Statistics from the Coefficients, shown in Table 16, presented the variance inflation factor (VIF) and Tolerance. VIF values greater 1 but less than 10 and Tolerance values of a minimum .421 and a maximum of .995 indicated that no multicollinearity was evident.

Table 15. Pearson's Correlations

Correlations

		KS Index	Gender	Yrs of Work Exp	EI Index	Gen=X	Gen=Y
KS Index	Pearson Correlation	1	-.038	.241**	.438**	-.041	-.164
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.656	.004	.000	.627	.051
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142
Gender	Pearson Correlation	-.038	1	-.072	.182*	.129	-.056
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.656		.392	.030	.125	.508
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142
Yrs of Work Exp	Pearson Correlation	.241**	-.072	1	.072	-.313**	-.557**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.392		.393	.000	.000
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142
EI Index	Pearson Correlation	.438**	.182*	.072	1	-.042	.050
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.030	.393		.618	.551
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142
Gen=X	Pearson Correlation	-.041	.129	-.313**	-.042	1	-.305**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.627	.125	.000	.618		.000
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142
Gen=Y	Pearson Correlation	-.164	-.056	-.557**	.050	-.305**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.051	.508	.000	.551	.000	
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 16. Collinearity Statistics

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	67.698	3.555		19.041	.000	60.668	74.727		
	Gender	-.657	2.655	-.020	-.247	.805	-5.906	4.592	.995	1.005
	Yrs of Work Exp	.279	.096	.240	2.907	.004	.089	.469	.995	1.005
2	(Constant)	17.882	9.079		1.970	.051	-.070	35.834		
	Gender	-3.338	2.428	-.104	-1.375	.171	-8.138	1.463	.959	1.042
	Yrs of Work Exp	.235	.087	.202	2.714	.008	.064	.406	.987	1.013
	EI Index	.423	.072	.442	5.861	.000	.280	.566	.959	1.042
3	(Constant)	19.495	9.738		2.002	.047	.236	38.753		
	Gender	-3.790	2.456	-.118	-1.543	.125	-8.648	1.067	.939	1.065
	Yrs of Work Exp	.153	.133	.131	1.153	.251	-.109	.415	.421	2.374
	EI Index	.436	.073	.456	5.975	.000	.292	.580	.940	1.064
	Gen=X	-.073	2.943	-.002	-.025	.980	-5.894	5.748	.566	1.768
	Gen=Y	-5.680	5.303	-.121	-1.071	.286	-16.167	4.806	.425	2.351

a. Dependent Variable: KS Index

82

Outliers

Table 17 presented the minimum and maximum values of -2.918 and 2.382, respectively, for the standardized residuals for the dependent variable. Laerd Statistics (2015) emphasized that a value of $\pm$3 denotes the criteria for determining if a case represents an outlier. One case (#130) presented a minimum value of -3.119, which landed outside the criteria range of $\pm$3. A total of three cases (as shown in Figure 10) were identified as outliers but did not prove to be influential as all data were analyzed using Cook's Distance. Table 17 indicated values less than 1. Any value greater than 1 would present a cause for concern where the case may influence the model (Field, 2009; Laerd Statistics, 2015).
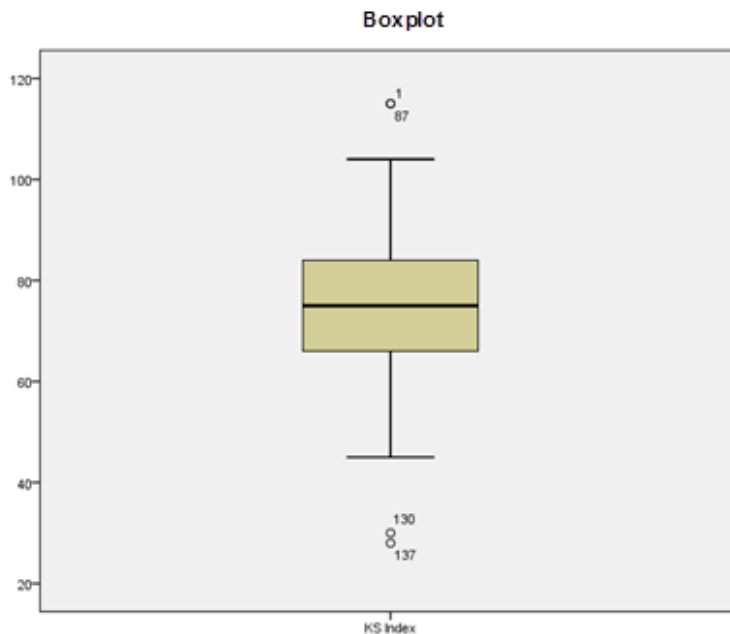

Figure 10. Boxplot showing Outliers for Knowledge Sharing Index

83

Table 17. Residuals Statistics for Knowledge Sharing Index

Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	45.8533	93.4495	74.9437	7.50487	142
Std. Predicted Value	-3.876	2.466	.000	1.000	142
Standard Error of Predicted Value	1.353	5.193	2.322	.741	142
Adjusted Predicted Value	49.2532	92.4980	74.9249	7.45272	142
Residual	-37.88296	30.92324	.00000	12.79849	142
Std. Residual	-2.918	2.382	.000	.986	142
Stud. Residual	-3.024	2.445	.001	1.006	142
Deleted Residual	-40.68940	32.58524	.01878	13.32564	142
Stud. Deleted Residual	-3.119	2.491	.000	1.012	142
Mahal. Distance	.538	21.563	3.972	3.388	142
Cook's Distance	.000	.135	.008	.016	142
Centered Leverage Value	.004	.153	.028	.024	142

a. Dependent Variable: KS Index

Normality

Evaluation of the normal P-P plot, normal Q-Q plot, a histogram, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistics provided the assessment of normality. As presented in the normal P-P plot (Figure 11), normality appeared with the residuals because the points aligned along the diagonal line. Figure 12 also presented the data points normally aligned in the Normal Q-Q plot.
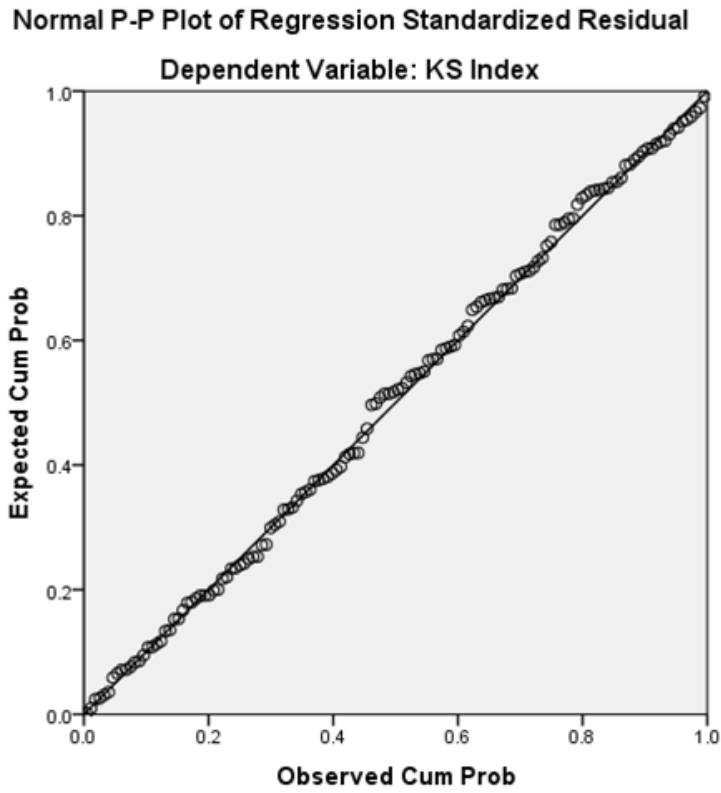
84

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: KS Index

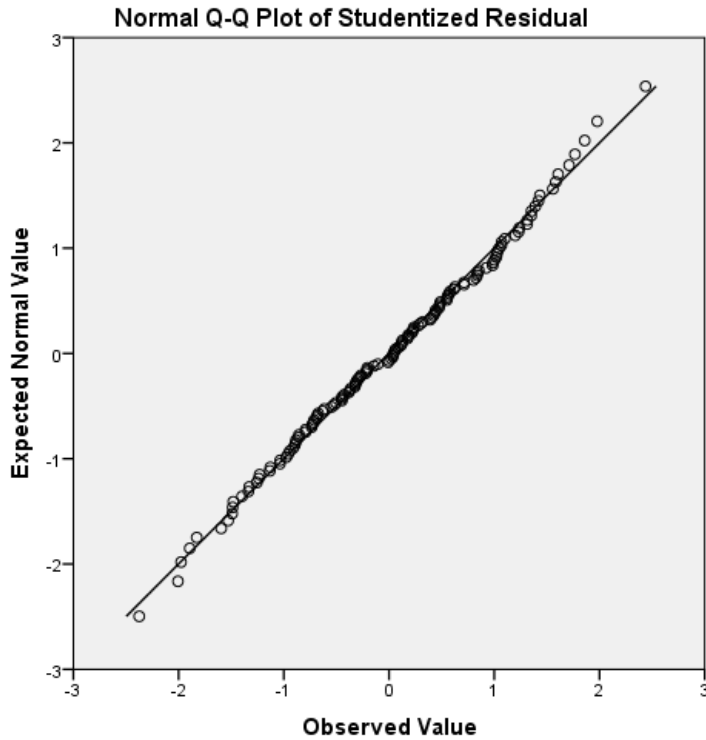Figure 11. Normal P-P Plot for Knowledge Sharing Index

85

Figure 12. Normal Q-Q Plot for Knowledge Sharing Index

        The Histogram in Figure 13 depicted that the standardized residuals appeared with a slight negative skewness and not normally distributed where the distributed data deviated from a bell-shaped curve (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The null hypothesis of normally distributed residual values was accepted because the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic in Table 18 presented a value for the KS Index where [(p = .200) > (α =.05)].
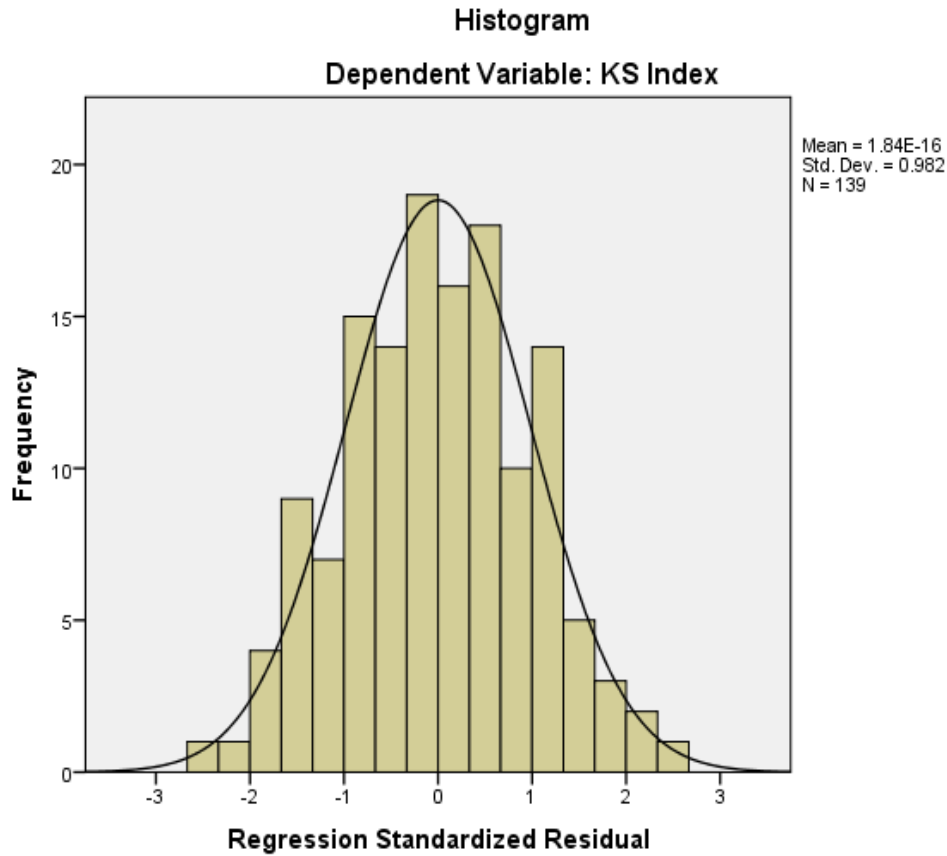
86

Histogram

Dependent Variable: KS Index

Mean = 1.84E-16
Std. Dev. = 0.982
N = 139

Figure 13. Histogram for Knowledge Sharing Index

Table 18. Test of Normality - Kolmogorov-Smirnov Statistic

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
KS Index	.051	142	.200[*]	.989	142	.330

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Exploratory Data Analysis - Results

A hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis with three models was utilized

in this research study for comparison to determine how well each model explains the

87

dependent variable, Knowledge Sharing Index. Table 19 presented the models from the regression analyses.

Table 19. Hierarchical Multiple Linear Regression Models

Hierarchical Multiple Linear Regression

Model	Variables Entered	Method
1	Yrs of Work Exp, Gender	Enter
2	EI Index	Enter
3	Gen X, Gen Y	Enter

Dependent Variable: KS Index

An evaluation of each regression model was reviewed for the null hypothesis where H_0: $\rho^2 = 0$; $\alpha = .05$ and coefficients of $\beta_1 = 0$; $\beta_2 = 0$; $\beta_3 = 0$; $\beta_4 = 0$; $\beta_5 = 0$; $\beta_6 = 0$. This hypothesis stated that there is not a statistically significant relationship ($\alpha = .05$) between the dependent variable (KS Index) and the independent variables (Gender, Years of Work Experience, EI Index, Gen X, and Gen Y). The alternative hypothesis where H_A: $\rho^2 > 0$; $\alpha = 0.05$ and coefficients of $\beta_1 \neq 0$; $\beta_2 \neq 0$; $\beta_3 \neq 0$; $\beta_4 \neq 0$; $\beta_5 \neq 0$; $\beta_6 \neq 0$ stated that there is a statistically significant relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables because $[(p < .0005) < (\alpha = .05)]$. Each of the population regression coefficients must be tested to determine which of them identify as statistically significant predictors if the null hypothesis is to be rejected.

Detailed Analysis of Results

Table 20 represented the ANOVA output from the regression analyses with the results of the hierarchical multiple linear regression being tested for statistical

88

significance using the following null and alternative hypotheses and a level of significance of $\alpha = .05$:

H_0: $\rho^2 = 0$

H_A: $\rho^2 > 0$

where ρ^2 is the population coefficient of determination.

The null hypothesis for Model 1 (H_0: $\rho^2 = 0$) was not supported because [(p = .015) < ($\alpha = .05$)]; therefore, for Model 1, one or more regression coefficients $\beta_i \neq 0$.

The values for R, R^2, and adjusted R^2 are presented in the Model Summary table (Table 21). For Model 1, the independent variables (a) Gender (x_4) and (b) Years of Work Experience (x_5) were force-entered into the regression analysis. The value of $R^2 = 0.59$ in Table 21. This may be interpreted that 5.9% of the variance in the dependent variable KS Index is explained by the independent variables Gender and Years of Work Experience.

Examining the Coefficients table (Table 22) for Model 1, (a) the null hypothesis (H_0: $\beta_4 = 0$) for the independent variable Gender (x_4) was supported because [(p = .805) > ($\alpha/2 = .025$)] and (b) the null hypothesis (H_0: $\beta_5 = 0$) for the independent variable Years of Work Experience (x_5) was not supported because [(p = .004) < ($\alpha/2 = .025$)]. Thus, the estimated regression equation for Model 1 is:

$\hat{y}_i = 67.698 + .279 * x_{5i}$

where

(1) $\hat{y}$ = the estimated dependent variable Knowledge Sharing Index

(2) x_5 = the sample independent variable Years of Work Experience.

89

The null hypothesis for Model 2 (H_0: $\rho^2 = 0$) was not supported because [(p < .0005) < ($\alpha = .05$)]; therefore, for Model 2, one or more regression coefficients $\beta_i \neq 0$. For Model 2, the independent variables (a) the Emotional Intelligence Index (x_1), (b) Gender (x_4), and (c) Years of Work Experience (x_5) were force-entered into the regression analysis. The value of $R^2 = 0.246$ in Table 21. This may be interpreted that 24.6% of the variance in the dependent variable KS Index is explained by the independent variables the Emotional Intelligence Index, Gender, and Years of Work Experience.

Examining the Coefficients table (Table 22) for Model 2, (a) the null hypothesis (H_0: $\beta_1 = 0$) for the independent variable Emotional Intelligence Index (x_1) was not supported because [(p < .0005) < ($\alpha/2 = .025$)], (b) the null hypothesis (H_0: $\beta_4 = 0$) for the independent variable Gender (x_4) was supported because [(p = .805) > ($\alpha/2 = .025$)], and (c) the null hypothesis (H_0: $\beta_5 = 0$) for the independent variable Years of Work Experience (x_5) was not supported because [(p = .008) < ($\alpha/2 = .025$)]. Thus, the estimated regression equation for Model 2 is:

$\hat{y}_i = 17.882 + .423 * x_{1i} + .235 * x_{5i}$

where

(1) y = the dependent variable Knowledge Sharing Index

(2) x_1 = the independent variable Emotional Intelligence Index

(3) x_5 = the independent variable Years of Work Experience

The null hypothesis for Model 3 (H_0: $\rho^2 = 0$) was not supported because [(p < .0005) < ($\alpha = .05$)]; therefore, for Model 3, one or more regression coefficients $\beta_i \neq 0$.

90

For Model 3, the independent variables (a) Emotional Intelligence Index (x_1), (b) Generational Cohort Generation X (x_2), (c) Generational Cohort Generation Y (x_3), (d) Gender (x_4), and (e) Years of Work Experience (x_5) were force-entered into the regression analysis. The value of $R^2 = 0.256$ in Table 21. This may be interpreted that 25.6% of the variance in the dependent variable KS Index is explained by the independent variables Emotional Intelligence Index, Generational Cohort Generation X, Generational Cohort Generation Y, Gender, and Years of Work Experience.

Examining the Coefficients table (Table 22) for Model 3, (a) the null hypothesis (H_0: $\beta_1 = 0$) for the independent variable Emotional Intelligence Index (x_1) was not supported because $[(p < .0005) < (\alpha/2 = .025)]$, (b) the null hypothesis (H_0: $\beta_2 = 0$) for the independent variable Generational Cohort Generation X (x_2) was supported because $[(p = .980) > (\alpha/2 = .025)]$, (c) the null hypothesis (H_0: $\beta_3 = 0$) for the independent variable Generational Cohort Generation Y (x_3) was supported because $[(p = .286) > (\alpha/2 = .025)]$, (d) the null hypothesis (H_0: $\beta_4 = 0$) for the independent variable Gender (x_4) was supported because $[(p = .125) > (\alpha/2 = .025)]$, and (e) the null hypothesis (H_0: $\beta_5 = 0$) for the independent variable Years of Work Experience (x_5) was supported because $[(p = .251) > (\alpha/2 = .025)]$. Thus, the estimated regression equation for Model 3 is:

$\hat{y}_i = 19.495 + .436 * x_1$

where

(1) $\hat{y}$ = the dependent variable Knowledge Sharing Index

(2) x_1 = the independent variable Emotional Intelligence Index

91

Table 20. ANOVA

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1820.277	2	910.139	4.330	.015[b]
	Residual	29217.272	139	210.196		
	Total	31037.549	141			
2	Regression	7643.930	3	2547.977	15.031	.000[c]
	Residual	23393.620	138	169.519		
	Total	31037.549	141			
3	Regression	7941.666	5	1588.333	9.353	.000[d]
	Residual	23095.884	136	169.823		
	Total	31037.549	141			

a. Dependent Variable: KS Index

b. Predictors: (Constant), Yrs of Work Exp, Gender

c. Predictors: (Constant), Yrs of Work Exp, Gender, EI Index

d. Predictors: (Constant), Yrs of Work Exp, Gender, EI Index, Gen=X, Gen=Y

Table 21. Model Summary

Model Summary[d]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.242[a]	.059	.045	14.49814	.059	4.330	2	139	.015	
2	.496[b]	.246	.230	13.01995	.188	34.354	1	138	.000	
3	.506[c]	.256	.229	13.03160	.010	.877	2	136	.419	2.098

a. Predictors: (Constant), Yrs of Work Exp, Gender

b. Predictors: (Constant), Yrs of Work Exp, Gender, EI Index

c. Predictors: (Constant), Yrs of Work Exp, Gender, EI Index, Gen=X, Gen=Y

d. Dependent Variable: KS Index

93

Table 22. Coefficients

Coefficients[a]

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	67.698	3.555		19.041	.000
	Gender	-.657	2.655	-.020	-.247	.805
	Yrs of Work Exp	.279	.096	.240	2.907	.004
2	(Constant)	17.882	9.079		1.970	.051
	Gender	-3.338	2.428	-.104	-1.375	.171
	Yrs of Work Exp	.235	.087	.202	2.714	.008
	EI Index	.423	.072	.442	5.861	.000
3	(Constant)	19.495	9.738		2.002	.047
	Gender	-3.790	2.456	-.118	-1.543	.125
	Yrs of Work Exp	.153	.133	.131	1.153	.251
	EI Index	.436	.073	.456	5.975	.000
	Gen=X	-.073	2.943	-.002	-.025	.980
	Gen=Y	-5.680	5.303	-.121	-1.071	.286

a. Dependent Variable: KS Index

Conclusion

The purpose of this research study was to assess the relationship of emotional

intelligence to knowledge sharing for generational cohorts. A hierarchical multiple

regression was run to determine if the addition of the Emotional Intelligence Index and

then Generation X and Generation Y improved the proportion of variation in the

Knowledge Sharing Index over and above Gender and Years of Work Experience alone.

For this research study, three hierarchical multiple linear regression models were run.

94

Several tables were presented in which the results of the data analysis were presented. The findings of this research study presented an overall significant positive relationship with the Emotional Intelligence Index determining 43.6% of the proportion of the variation in the Knowledge Sharing Index, thus rejecting the null hypothesis. In Chapter 5, the implications from these results will be discussed, as well as theoretical and practical inferences, limitations, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

A summary of the research study's results, a discussion of those results, the implications and limitations of the research study, recommendations for future research, and a conclusion have been included in this chapter. As knowledge is a valuable asset to an organization, the activity of knowledge sharing is integral to productivity, performance, and an organization's competitive advantage. Knowledge sharing requires interaction between two or more individuals where the emotional dynamics between the parties can play a central role in the outcome of the exchange. Diversity in the generational cohort's attitudes and work behaviors can impact processes for knowledge sharing, problem solving, and interpersonal relationships, which can cause the loss of valuable knowledge.

The current research study filled the gap in research to investigate emotions' stimulus for knowledge sharing with cohorts from three generations (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y). The research study's significance was to extend the theory of emotional intelligence for addressing barriers that may obstruct knowledge sharing between diverse generational cohorts. A positive relationship between emotional intelligence and knowledge sharing can provide organizational leaders with a strategy to mitigate the risks for lost knowledge and address challenges of a diverse workforce for

96

formulating a program in support of knowledge sharing for retention and in attaining organizational goals.

Summary of the Results

The question analyzed by this quantitative research asked: to what extent do the Emotional Intelligence Index and Generational Cohorts explain the variation in the Knowledge Sharing Index, controlling for Gender and Years of Work Experience? This research study investigated whether emotional intelligence has any significance for knowledge sharing for three diverse generational cohort groups (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y). The foundational framework for this research study was based upon three theories where each theory applied to the research in following manner: generational diversities (the theory of generations) impacts social interactions where emotions play a role in the individual's behavior (theory of emotional intelligence) for a key organizational asset in knowledge sharing (knowledge-based theory of the firm).

In extending the theoretical perspective, an explanatory research study was used to assess the proportional variations for the Knowledge Sharing Index (DV) from the Emotional Intelligence Index (IV) and Generational Cohorts (IV), controlling for Gender (CV) and Years of Work Experience (CV). A hierarchical multiple linear regression statistical model was used for evaluation to validate the contributing relationship between explanatory and response variables (Field, 2009). Thus, this model aligned with the research question and supported the research study's purpose for testing the hypotheses and assessing for the proportion of variances in the dependent variable.

97

A hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis modeling approach evaluated the hypothesis and assessed for a proportional variance in the dependent variable. In Model 2, the addition of Emotional Intelligence Index (IV) resulted in an increase in R^2 of .188. In Model 3, Generational Cohort-Gen X and Generational Cohort-Gen Y provided an R^2 Change of .010 for the Knowledge Sharing Index. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected because H_0: $[(\rho^2 = 0); (\alpha = .05)]$. The inclusion of emotional intelligence in an organization's mitigation plan can stimulate, improve, and promote knowledge sharing among all organizational cohorts. Additionally, Years of Work Experience, entered as an independent variable in Model 1 (and carried through the additional models) supported the variance for the Knowledge Sharing Index with B coefficients of .279 in Model 1, .235 in Model 2, and .153 in Model 3. The addition of Generation X and Generation Y in Model 3 did not present significance to the dependent variable. For the Model 3, a 44% contribution to the Knowledge Sharing Index variable was generated from the Emotional Intelligence Index.

Key literature in support of pursuing the research study was provided by Lopes et al. (2006) where emotional intelligence contributed to work performance through positive social interactions, work relationships, and emotion regulation. Ljungholm (2014) asserted that emotional intelligence assisted individuals in understanding one's emotions as well as the emotions of others in decision-making and achieving strategic goals. Emotions are often expressed through behaviors, where positive emotions and behaviors bring out the best in interactions with others. Balamohan, Tech, and Gomathi (2015)

98

emphasized in their study that emotional intelligence positively contributed to guiding the individual's behavior toward personal performance and organizational growth.

Discussion of the Results

A hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis model was used to evaluate the results for statistical significance where $\alpha = .05$. Examination and testing of the assumptions of multiple linear regression analysis modeling (independence of errors, linearity, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity, and normality) provided the following results.

- For the independence of errors – the Durbin-Watson statistic for the overall model reported a value of 2.098 where an assessed value of between 0 and 4 identified no autocorrelations.

- Pearson's correlations provided the evaluation for linearity and resulted in three independent variables showing weak correlations: Gender $r = .038$ [($p = .656$) > ($\alpha/2 = .025$)], GenX $r = .041$ [($p = .004$) < ($\alpha/2 = .025$)], and GenY $r = .164$ [($p = .051$) > ($\alpha/2 = .025$)]; and two independent variables showing stronger correlations: Years of Work Experience $r = .241$ [($p = .004$) < ($\alpha/2 = .025$)] and Emotional Intelligence Index $r = .438$ [($p < .0005$) < ($\alpha/2 = .025$)].

- For homoscedasticity, visual inspection of the scatterplot of studentized residuals against the unstandardized predicted values resulted in no violation of homogeneity of variance.

- Review of multicollinearity from Pearson's correlations and the Tolerance and VIF (variation inflation factor) statistics from the Collinearity diagnostics

99

resulted in no evidence of multicollinearity. Tolerance values of .421 as a

minimum and .995 as a maximum with acceptable values greater than 0.1 and

VIF values greater than 1 but less than 10 indicated no multicollinearity was

evident which supports the alternative hypothesis of H_A: [($\beta_i \neq 0$); ($\alpha = .05$)].

- Outliers – Residual Statistics identified three cases as outliers but these did not

  prove influential. Cook's Distance presented values less than 1 and identified

  no influential data in the residuals.

- Visual inspection of a histogram, a normal P-P plot, and a normal Q-Q plot

  resulted in a slight negative skewness and a deviation from normally

  distributed data. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic for the KS Index resulted

  in a value of [(p=.200) > (α=.05)], where a value less than .05 indicated the

  data was not normally distributed.

In summary, the assumptions were met by the hierarchical multiple linear regression

modeling for testing the hypotheses and reported no significant violations.

For Model 1, the independent variables (a) Gender (x_4) and (b) Years of Work

Experience (x_5) provided an R^2 value = 0.59 in Table 21, indicating that 5.9% of the

variance in the dependent variable KS Index is explained by the independent variables

Gender and Years of Work Experience. Also, for Model 1, the Coefficients table (Table

22) supported the alternative hypothesis (H_A: $\beta_5 \neq 0$), with a B Coefficient of .279, for the

independent variable Years of Work Experience (x_5) because [(p = .004) < ($\alpha/2$ = .025)].

For Model 2, the independent variables (a) the Emotional Intelligence Index (x_1),

(b) Gender (x_4), and (c) Years of Work Experience (x_5) provided an R^2 value = 0.246 in

Table 21, indicating that 24.6% of the variance in the dependent variable KS Index is explained by the independent variables the Emotional Intelligence Index, Gender, and Years of Work Experience. Also in the Coefficients table (Table 22) for Model 2, the alternative hypothesis (H_A: $\beta_1 \neq 0$), with a B Coefficient of .423, for the independent variable Emotional Intelligence Index (x_1) was supported because [(p < .0005) < ($\alpha/2$ = .025)] and the alternative hypothesis (H_A: $\beta_5 \neq 0$), with a B Coefficient of .235 for the independent variable Years of Work Experience (x_5) was supported because [(p = .008) < ($\alpha/2$ = .025)].

For Model 3, the independent variables (a) Emotional Intelligence Index (x_1), (b) Generational Cohort Generation X (x_2), (c) Generational Cohort Generation Y (x_3), (d) Gender (x_4), and (e) Years of Work Experience (x_5) provided an R^2 value = 0.256 in Table 21, indicating that 25.6% of the variance in the dependent variable KS Index is explained by the independent variables Emotional Intelligence Index, Generational Cohort Generation X, Generational Cohort Generation Y, Gender, and Years of Work Experience. For this model the Coefficients table (Table 22) indicated only the independent variable Emotional Intelligence Index (x_1) supported the alternative hypothesis (H_A: $\beta_1 \neq 0$), with a B Coefficient of .436, because [(p < .0005) < ($\alpha/2$ = .025)].

Emotions can influence the outcomes in an organizational setting for decision-making and social interactions and thus impact efficiencies, effectiveness, and productivity. These findings are aligned with previous emotional intelligence research as reviewed and presented in Chapter 2. Lopes et. al. (2006) and Shahhosseini, Silong, and Ismaill (2013) researched individual job performance; Kafetsios, Nezlek, and Vassiou

101

(2011) evaluated work attitudes; Chang, Sy, and Choi (2011) researched team performance; and Decker, Landaeta, and Kotnour (2009) evaluated knowledge sharing and team learning. Emotional intelligence can positively assist in bridging gaps where emotions, behaviors, and attitudes impact cohesiveness, collaboration, and performance, and mitigate the risk for lost knowledge.

Implications of the Study's Results

The results of this research study offered theoretical and practical implications. This research study supported the theory of emotional intelligence for knowledge sharing activities in that the Emotional Intelligence Index contributed a positive 43.6% to the Knowledge Sharing Index.

Theoretical Implications

The theory of emotional intelligence involves the identification, utilization, and management of one's personal emotions as well as the interpretation of other's emotions to guide one's actions. The results of this research study are consistent with previous works identified in the literature review, as shown in Table 23, where emotional intelligence has reported positive relationships in the following organizational areas:

Table 23. Previous research on Emotional Intelligence

Influence of Emotional Intelligence	Author(s)	Contribution % based on R^2	Significance
Individual's satisfaction with social support at work	Schutte & Loi, 2014	34	$p < .01$
Individual's job performance	Shahhosseini, Silong, & Ismaill, 2013	55	$p < .01$
Mediator in work teams	Ghosh, Shuck, & Petrosko, 2012	88	$p < .001$
People-to-people knowledge transfer within projects	Decker, Landaeta, & Kotnour, 2009	39	$p = .015$

In comparison to the current research study where emotional intelligence alone supported 44% towards knowledge sharing, emotional intelligence was reported statistically significant and contributed 34% toward an individual's satisfaction with social support at work (Schutte & Loi, 2014), 55% toward an individual's job performance (Shahhosseini, Silong, & Ismaill, 2013), 88% toward mediator influence in work teams (Ghosh, Shuck, & Petrosko, 2012), and 39% toward people-to-people knowledge transfer within projects (Decker, Landaeta, & Kotnour, 2009). As with other studies, this research study on emotional intelligence supports the awareness of emotions and how they can influence knowledge sharing and related interactions for positive results in an organization.

In relation to this research study and knowledge sharing, the identification and management of emotions can offer positive outcomes for all parties involved and can

103

support similar future interactions and relationships. Both management and practitioners can agree on the value of knowledge to an organization. If faced with the potential and risk for lost knowledge, the best strategy is prevention. When emotions are managed, barriers are reduced and confusion, conflicts, and misunderstandings are minimized. Knowledge has a better chance of being shared and retained. The role of emotional intelligence in an organization can be positively applied where behaviors and attitudes can become challenging. Emotional intelligence can provide favorable opportunities and positive outcomes versus reactionary ones, whether for a diversified workforce or in maintaining a productive and performing working atmosphere. In an organizational environment, regardless of the workforce composition, management needs to develop a culture where respect, learning, and knowledge sharing can co-exist. In this setting, institutional knowledge is retained, offering opportunities for organizational growth, providing productivity and performance, and supporting an organization's competitive advantage.

Practical Implications

The results indicated that emotional intelligence supports activities where cohort interactions are impacted by emotions, behaviors, and attitudes that can alter the outcome of the activity.   In relation to work experience and generational cohort diversity, the research study's results indicated that work experience combined with emotional intelligence may override the generational differences that can exist between organizational cohorts. Individuals that apply overall emotional intelligence in their interactions and relationships can experience positive effects. The research study's

104

results suggested that improvements in emotional intelligence relate to improvements in knowledge sharing. Thus, where emotions play an integral role in the individual's daily work activities, specifically for decision-making and problem solving, both an individual and an organization can benefit from the positive use of emotional intelligence.

Limitations

The method of sampling presented a limitation, which also created a statistical limitation. Table 12 presented skewed results for the comparison of the anticipated participants versus the actual participants. It was anticipated that approximately 12% of the participants would be Baby Boomers, 36% would be Generation X, and 52% would be Generation Y, based upon data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2015) for employed individuals in the healthcare operational and services sectors for the same generational categories. The percentages by generational category in this study were: Baby Boomers with 46%, Generation X with 43%, and Generation Y with 11%. The use of SurveyMonkey's services for random sampling may have provided for a more timely selection and participant response efficiencies, based upon a vast resource database of potential participants (Symonds, 2011). The younger generation may not actually participate or have membership in this type of survey response service for the age breakdown of survey participants required. Additionally, the possibility exists that a large number Generation Y cohorts are not employed in the healthcare field. This limitation can be mitigated with the execution of a stratified random sampling where the participants are divided into generational strata and the final subjects randomly and proportionally selected.

105

A limitation may be perceived in the use of the quantitative research method. The goal of quantitative research is to accept or reject the null hypothesis(ses) to produce generalizable results. The representation and diversity of the sample can suffer due to a trade-off with the cost, timeliness, and efficiency of the collected data. The results and findings of the research may be impacted with generous time, financial support, and ability to collect a large(r) sample size.

As reported in other peer-reviewed articles (Bhochhibhoya, et al., 2014; Côté, 2014; Kafetsios, Nezlek, & Vassiou, 2011; Shahhosseini, Silong, & Ismaill, 2013; Schutte, 1998), self-reporting surveys may generate inaccurate findings, as the participants are not able to report self-ratings but often offer anticipated responses. In contrast, Babbie (1990) believed that surveys were valuable in learning about a population and in collecting the opinions, beliefs, and attitudes of individuals. In an attempt to reduce this concern, honest answers to the survey questions were requested from the participants.

Recommendations for Future Research

Recommendations based on the current research study have been identified to support both emotional intelligence and knowledge sharing.

- Further research can be performed to determine what additional factor(s) might contribute to the other 41% for knowledge sharing. In Model 3 of the current research study, Years of Work Experience contributed 15.3% to the Knowledge Sharing Index and the Emotional Intelligence Index contributed 43.6% to the Knowledge Sharing Index, totaling 59% (see Table 22).

106

- As the current research study examined the Emotional Intelligence Index as the main independent variable, a recommendation is that the four factors of emotional intelligence (emotional perceptions, using emotions to facilitate thought, understanding emotions, and managing emotions, as based on Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso's definition) be studied to determine the highest contributing component to knowledge sharing. Wong and Law (2002) suggested that an examination of emotional intelligence at the component levels can help to determine the abilities that support an organizational environment.

- The analysis and assessment through a qualitative or mixed methods study where a survey plus observations and interviews can be obtained to gain a personal perspective of the individual's understanding of the role that emotional intelligence plays in contributing to knowledge sharing.

- A research study analyzing whether emotional intelligence contributes to knowledge sharing in the manufacturing industry, which is a very "hands on" industry, with manual repetitive and routine processes, is recommended where knowledge sharing is important for an organization's continued performance and productivity. The findings may suggest that value can be found in emotional intelligence training for knowledge sharing.

- A study similar to the current research study within another cultural setting, other than the United States should be undertaken. This type of study may provide interest to international or global organizations and management,

107

especially where employee resources are being shared and/or new markets are being entered and knowledge must be shared 'almost immediately' for performance and productivity.

Conclusion

The current research study presented a problem that can be experienced by many organizations around the globe (Ferri-Reed, 2013; Njoroge & Yazdanifard, 2014; Srinivasan, 2012) – that of a multigenerational workforce and retaining a valuable organizational asset of knowledge. Specifically, a gap exists for bridging the characteristics of the multigenerational workforce for knowledge sharing in maintaining a productive, performing, and competitive organization. The research question inquired if emotional intelligence contributed to knowledge sharing for a multigenerational workforce of Baby Boomers, Generational X, and Generation Y individuals. An examination of published peer-reviewed articles helped in understanding previous research on emotional intelligence and the influence in an organizational setting.

Hierarchical multiple linear regression evaluated the dependent variable of Knowledge Sharing Index to the independent variables of Emotional Intelligence Index and Generational Cohorts, with control variables of Gender and Years of Work Experience. The sample included 142 responses from United States employed healthcare operational and support services individuals born between 1946 and 2000. The null hypothesis was rejected; the alternative hypothesis was supported for significance with the Emotional Intelligence Index contributing 43.6% to the Knowledge Sharing Index. Years of Work Experience also contributed another 15.3%. The full regression model of

108

all predictors (Gender, Years of Work Experience, Emotional Intelligence Index, Generation X, and Generation Y) indicated significance ($p < .0005$) with an $R^2 = .256$ and R^2 change $= .010$. The Generational Cohorts (Generation X and Generation Y entered in Model 3) did not show individual significance in contributing to the dependent variable, Knowledge Sharing Index.

This research study aligned with previous research on emotional intelligence and the respective value in addressing individuals' emotions for impacts in many organizational areas, such as individual job performance, team performance and learning, work attitudes, and work ethics. As presented in Chapter 2, in Shahhosseini, Silong, and Ismaill's study (2013), emotional intelligence contributed to increased morale, motivation, collaboration, and cooperation; in Ghosh, Shuck, and Petrosko's study (2012), team performance was enhanced using emotional intelligence in constructive ways for communicate and sharing knowledge; and in Hess and Bacigalupo's study (2011), emotional intelligence enhanced individual decision-making for emotion recognition in cohort interactions.

Emotions are part of and come with the employee into the environment. Organizations cannot control those emotions and the interactions that the employee experiences within the workplace setting. For an organization's best interest, the pursuit of all strategies is necessary to mitigate risks for lost assets, especially knowledge, and to ensure collaboration and cohesion for performance and productivity. This research study suggested the use of emotional intelligence in mitigating these consequences.

109

REFERENCES

Andries, A. (2009). Emotions management within organizations. *The Annuals of. Economics and Applied Informatics,* 17-34. Retrieved from http://www.researchgate.net/profile/Andrei_Jean/publication/49605065_Quality_-_a_Factor_for_Competitiveness_Improvement_for_Small_and_Medium_Enterprises/links/00b7d521ca68be1010000000.pdf#page=17

Applegate, K., Timur, A., & Locklear, K. (2009). Linking self-perception and emotional intelligence. *The Business Review, Cambridge, 13*(1), 43-52. Retrieved from http://www.jaabc.com

Argote, L., & Ingram, P. (2000). Knowledge transfer: A basis for competitive advantage in firms. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 82*(1), 150-169. doi: 10.1006/pbhd.2000.2893

Ashkanasy, N., & Humphrey, R. (2011). Current emotion research in organizational behavior. *Emotion Review, 3*(2), 214-224. doi: 10.1177/1754073910391684

Babbie, E. (1990). *Survey research methods*. (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Balamohan, P., Tech, M., & Gomathi, S. (2015). Emotional intelligence – its importance and relationship with individual performance, team-effectiveness, leadership and marketing effectiveness. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 6*1), 120-128. doi: 10.5901/mjss.2015.v6n1p120

Bar-On, R. (1997). *Bar-On emotional quotient inventory: A test of emotional intelligence.* Toronto: Multi-Health Systems.

Bell, E. (2008). Exploring employee perception of the work environment along generational lines. *Performance Improvement, 47*(9), 35-45. doi: 10.1002/pfi.20032

Bennett, J., Pitt, M., & Price, S. (2012). Understanding the impact of generational issues in the workplace. *Facilities, 30*(7/8), 278-288. doi: 10.1108/02632771211220086

Benson, J., & Brown, M. (2011). Generations at work: Are there differences and do they matter? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 22*(9), 1843-1865. doi: 101080/09585192.2011.573966

110

Bhochhibhoya, A., Branscum, P., Taylor, E. , & Hofford, C. (2014). Exploring the relationships of physical activity, emotional intelligence, and mental health among college students. *American Journal Of Health Studies*, *29*(2), 191-198. Retrieved from http://wv9lq5ld3p.search.serialssolutions.com.library.capella.edu

Boyatzis, R. E., & Sala, F. (2004). Assessing emotional intelligence competencies. The measurement of emotional intelligence, 147-180. Retrieved from http://www.eiconsortium.org/pdf/Assessing_Emotional_Intelligence_Competencies.pdf

Brackett, M., Rivers., S., & Salovey, P. (2011). Emotional intelligence: Implications for personal, social, academic, and workplace success. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 5*(1), 88-103. doi: 10.1111/j.1751-9004.2010.00334.x

Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2015). Retrieved from http://www.bls.gov/data/#employment

Calo, T. J. (2008). Talent management in the era of the aging workforce: The critical role of knowledge transfer. *Public Personnel Management, 37*(4), 403-416. doi: 10.1177/009102600803700403

Chang, J., Sy, T., & Choi, J. (2012). Team emotional intelligence and performance: Interactive dynamics between leaders and members. *Small Group Research, 43*(1), 75-104. doi: 10.1177/1046496411415692

Cherniss, C. (2010). Emotional intelligence: Toward clarification of a concept. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 3*, 110–126. doi: 10.1111/j.1754-9434.2010.01231.x

Chow, I. (2012). The role of social network and collaborative culture in knowledge sharing and performance relations. *SAM Advanced Management Journal, 77*(2), 24-37. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/openview/106ff21fd474159d4284e9a88d2cfaa8/1?pq-origsite=gscholar

Clarke, N. (2010). Emotional intelligence and learning in teams. *Journal of Workplace Learning, 22*(3), 125-145. doi: 10.1108/13665621011028594

Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological bulletin*, *112*(1), 155-159. Retrieved from http://www2.psych.ubc.ca/~schaller/528Readings/Cohen1992.pdf

Connelly, C., Zweig, D., Webster, J., & Trougakos, J. (2012). Knowledge hiding in organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 33*, 64-88. doi: 10.1002/job.737

Conte, J. (2005). A review and critique of emotional intelligence measures. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*, 443-440. doi: 10.1002/job.319

Côté, S. (2014). Emotional Intelligence in Organizations. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 1*, 459-488. doi: 10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-031413-091233

Côté, S., & Hideg, I. (2011). The ability to influence others via emotion displays: A new dimension of emotional intelligence. *Organizational Psychology Review, 1*(1), 53-71. doi: 10.1177/2041386610379257

Coulter, J., & Faulkner, D. (2014). The multigenerational workforce. *Case Management Matters,19*(1), 46-51. doi: 10.1097/NCM.0000000000000008

Cromity, J., & de Stricker, U. (2011). Silo persistence: It's not the technology, it's the culture! *New Review of Information Networking, 16*(2), 167-184. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13614576.2011.619924

Davis, S., Sarkani, S., & Mazzuchi, T. (2012). A systematic approach to identifying engineering generational knowledge transfer boundaries. *Journal of Information & Knowledge Management, 11*(3), 1250015-1-14. doi: 10.1142/S0219649212500153

Decker, B., Landaeta, R., & Kotnour, T. (2009). Exploring the relationships between emotional intelligence and the use of knowledge transfer methods in the project environment. *Knowledge Management Research & Practice, 7*, 15-36. doi: 10.1057/kmrp.2008.29

Delmatoff, J. (2014). The most effective leadership style for the new landscape of healthcare. *Journal of Healthcare Management*, *59*(4), 245. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/openview/3d012ffbd64f89a3df5b7d0bc2d62f7d/1?pq-origsite=gscholar

Dixon, G., Mercado, A., & Knowles, B. (2013). Followers and generations in the workplace. *Engineering Management Journal*, *25*(4), 62-72. doi: 10.1080/10429247.2013.11431996

Douglas, C., Frink, D., & Ferris. G. (2004). Emotional intelligence as a moderator of the relationship between conscientiousness and performance. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 10*(3), 2-13. doi: 10.1177/107179190401000301

Faguy, K. (2012). Emotional intelligence in health care. *Radiologic technology*, *83*(3), 237-253. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Nina_Kowalczyk/publication/221768715_Pe

rceptions_of_the_use_of_critical_thinking_teaching_methods/links/54199b5c0cf2
03f155ae0831.pdf#page=27

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A. (2009). Statistical power analyses using
G*Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behavior Research
Methods, 41*(4), 1149-1160. doi:10.3758/BRM.41.4.1149

Ferri-Reed, J. (2013). Quality, conflict, and communication across the generations. *The
Journal for Quality and Participation, 35*(4), 12-14. Retrieved from
http://search.proquest.com/openview/13f35f2f21ba836f1169df7dae11a965/1?pq-
origsite=gscholar

Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS (3rd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Foltin, A., & Keller, R. (2012). Leading change with emotional intelligence. *Nursing
Management, 11,* 21-25. doi: 10.1097/01.NUMA.0000421675.33594.63

Ghosh, R., Shuck, B., & Petrosko, J. (2012). Emotional intelligence and organizational
learning in work teams. *Journal of Management Development, 31*(6), 603-619.
doi:10.1108/02621711211230894

Gibson, J., Greenwood, R., & Murphy, E. (2009). Generational differences in the
workplace: Personal values, behaviors, and popular beliefs. *Journal of Diversity
Management, 4*(3), 1-7. Retrieved from
http://search.proquest.com/openview/86a1bb94d578547610a5336efb081f2a/1?pq
-origsite=gscholar

Goleman, D. (1998). What makes a leader? *Harvard Business Review, 76*(6), 93-102.
Retrieved from http://c.ymcdn.com/sites/aect.site-
ym.com/resource/dynamic/forums/20130118_183018_26306.pdf

Gopinath, R. (2011). Employees' emotions in workplace. *Research Journal of Business
Management,* 1-15. doi: 10.3923/rjbm.2011

Grant, R. (1996). Toward a knowledge-based theory of the firm. *Strategic Management
Journal, 17,* 109-122. Retrieved from
http://memberfiles.freewebs.com/84/90/65819084/documents/TOWARD%20A%
20KNOWLEDGE-BASED%20THEORY%20OF%20THE.pdf

Groves, R. M. (2011) Three eras of survey research. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 75*(5),
861-871. doi: 10.1093/poq/nfr057

113

Harvey, J. (2012). Managing organization memory with intergeneration knowledge transfer. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 18*(3), 400-417. doi:10.1108/13673271211238733

Hau, Y., Kim, B., Lee, H., & Kim Y. (2013). The effects of individual motivations and social capital on employees' tacit and explicit knowledge sharing intentions. *International Journal of Information Management, 33*, 356-366. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10/1016./j.ijinfomgt.2012.10.009

Hess, J., & Bacigalupo, A. (2011). Enhancing decisions and decision-making processes through the application of emotional intelligence skills. *Management Decision, 49*(5), 710-721. doi: 10.1108/00251741111130805

Higgs, M., & Lichtenstein, S. (2011). Is there a relationship between emotional intelligence and individual values? An exploratory study. *Journal of General Management, 37*(1), 65-79. Retrieved from http://www.braybrooke.co.uk/tabid/99/Default.aspx?issueid=105

Holden, M., & Lynch, P. (2004). Choosing the appropriate methodology: Understanding research philosophy. *The Marketing Review*, *4*(4), 397-409. Retrieved from http://repository.wit.ie/1466/1/Choosing_the_Appropriate_Methodology_Underst anding_Research_Philosophy_(RIKON_Group).pdf

Hosseini, M. (2007). *Important leadership characteristics of nurse leaders in 2010*. Retrieved from https://books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=YOOCAtXELi0C&oi=fnd&pg= PR7&dq=hosseini,+emotional+intelligence&ots=sYg8URwGSq&sig=5MVhUw We5abTMHdLW_KQgphJzXQ#v=onepage&q&f=false

Hsiao, Y., Chen, C., & Chang, S. (2011). Knowledge management capacity and organizational performance: The social interaction view. *International Journal of Manpower, 32*(5/6), 645-660. doi:10.1108/014377231111158242

Ipe, M. (2003). Knowledge sharing in organizations: A conceptual framework. *Human Resource Development Review, 2*(4), 337-359. doi: 10.1177/1534484303257985

Islam, M., Low, K., & Rahman, M. (2012). Towards understanding knowledge transfer: In search of a theoretical construct. *Franklin Business & Law Journal, 1,* 39-60. Retrieved from http://www.franklinpublishing.net

Javernick-Will, A. (2012). Motivating knowledge sharing in engineering and construction organizations: Power of social motivations. *Journal of Management in Engineering, 28*(2), 193-202. doi: 10.1061/(ASCE)ME.1943-5479.0000076

114

Joshi, A., Dencker, J., & Franz, G. (2011). Generations in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 31*, 177-205. doi: 10.1016/j.riob.2011.10.002

Kapoor, C., & Solomon, N. (2011). Understanding and managing generational differences in the workplace. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes, 3*(4), 308-318. doi: 10.1108/17554211111162435

Kaur, K., & Verma, K. (2011). Managing wiser workforce. *Review of Management, 1*(2), 116-126. Retrieved from http://mdrfindia.org/pdf/Review%20of%20Management-PDF/Review%20of%20Management,%20Vol.%201,%20No.%202,%20June%20 2011.pdf#page=116

Kafetsios, K., Nezlek, J., & Vassiou, A. (2011). A multilevel analysis of relationships between leaders' and subordinates' emotional intelligence and emotional outcomes. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 41*(5), 1121-1144. doi: 10.1111/j.1559-1816.2011.00750.x

Kupperschmidt, B. (2000). Multigeneration employees: Strategies for effective management. *Health Care Manager, 19*(1), 65-76. Retrieved from http://journals.lww.com/healthcaremanagerjournal/abstract/2000/19010/multigene ration_employees__strategies_for.11.aspx

Laerd Statistics (2015). *Statistical tutorials and software guides*. Retrieved from https://statistics.laerd.com/

Lam, A., & Lambermont-Ford, J. (2010). Knowledge sharing in organizational contexts: A motivation-based perspective. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 14*(1), 51-66. doi: 10.1108/13673271011015561

Lawler, E., & Thye, S. (1999). Bringing emotions into social exchange theory. *Annual Review of Sociology, 25*, 217-244. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/223504

Legas, M. & Sims, C. (2011). Leveraging generational diversity in today's workplace. *Online Journal for Workforce Education and Development. 5*(3), 1-9. Retrieved from http://opensiuc.lib.siu.edu

Lester, S., Standifer, R., Schultz, N., & Windsor, J. (2012). Actual versus perceived generational differences at work: An empirical examination. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 19*(3), 341-354. doi: 10.1177/1548051812442747

115

Ljungholm, D. (2014). Emotional intelligence in organizational behavior. *Economics, 9*(3), 128-133. Retrieved from http://www.ceeol.com/aspx/issuedetails.aspx?issueid=f647ef50-b06a-45c2-8177-131d9af343fd&articleId=8aeb5145-9837-456b-afe4-055fd1b50f20

Lopes, P., Brackett, M., Nezlek, J., Schutz, A., Sellin, I., & Salovey, P. (2004). Emotional intelligence and social interaction. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 30*(8), 1018-1034. doi: 10.1177/0146167204264762

Lopes, P., Grewal, D., Kadis, J., Gall, M., & Salovey, P. (2006). Evidence that emotional intelligence is related to job performance and affect and attitudes at work. *Psicothema*, *18,* 132-138. Retrieved from http://www.psicothema.com/pdf/3288.pdf

Mannheim, K. (1952). The sociological problem of generations. *Essays on the Sociology of Knowledge*, 276-322. Retrieved from http://1989after1989.exeter.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2014/03/01_The_Sociological_Problem.pdf

Martins, E., & Meyer, H. (2012). Organizational and behavioral factors that influence knowledge retention. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 16*(1), 77-96. doi: 10.1108/13873271211198954

Matzler, K., Renzl, B., Mooradian, T., von Krogh, G., & Mueller, J. (2011). Personality traits, affective commitment, documentation of knowledge, and knowledge sharing. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 22*(2), 296-310. doi: 10.1080/09585192.2011.540156

Matzler, K., Renzl, B., Műller, J., Herting, S., & Mooradian, T. (2008). Personality traits and knowledge sharing. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 29*, 301-313. doi: 10.1016/j.joep.2007.06.004

Mayer, J., & Salovey, P. (1993). The intelligence of emotional intelligence. *Intelligence, 17*, 433-442. Retrieved from http://s3.amazonaws.com/academia.edu.documents

Mayer, J., Caruso, D., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for intelligence. *Intelligence, 27*(4), 267-298. Retrieved from http://www.unh.edu/emotional_intelligence/EIAssets/EmotionalIntelligenceProper/EI1999MayerCarusoSaloveyIntelligence.pdf

Mayer, J., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. (2004). Emotional intelligence: Theory, findings, and implications. *Psychological Inquiry*, 15(3), 197-215. Retrieved from http://www.calcasa.org/wp-content/uploads/files/ei2004mayersaloveycarusotarget.pdf

McLaughlin, S., Paton, R., & Macbeth, D. (2008). Barrier impact on organizational learning within complex organizations. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 12*(2), 107-123. doi: 10.1108/13673270810859550

McNichols, D. (2010). Optimal knowledge transfer methods: A generation X perspective. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 14*(1), 24-37. doi:10.1108/13673271011015543

Meriac, J., Woehr, D., & Banister, C. (2010). Generational differences in work ethic: An examination of measurement equivalence across three cohorts. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 25*, 315-324. doi: 10.1007/s10869-010-9164-7

Mikitka, M. (2009). Managing the multi-generational workforce. *Material Handling Management, 64*(11). Retrieved from http://www.mhmonline.com

Murphy, E., Gibson, J., & Greenwood, R. (2010). Analyzing generational values among managers and non-managers for sustainable organizational effectiveness. *SAM Advanced Management Journal, 75*(1), 33-43, 55. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/openview/7f365e8be92b88cbca6ada813531e9b9/1?pq-origsite=gscholar

Nafukho, F. (2009). Emotional intelligence and performance: Need for additional empirical evidence. *Advances in Developing Human Resources, 11*(6), 671-689. doi: 10.1177/1523422309360838

Njoroge, C., & Yazdanifard, R. (2014). The impact of social and emotional intelligence of employee motivation in a multigenerational workplace. *International Journal of Information, Business and Management, 6*(4), 163-170. Retrieved from https://globaljournals.org/GJMBR_Volume14/5-The-Impact-of-Social-and-Emotional-Intelligence.pdf

Nonaka, I. (1991). The knowledge-creating company. *Harvard Business Review, 11-12*, 96-104. Retrieved from http://www3.uma.pt/filipejmsousa/ge/Nonaka,%201991.pdf

O'Boyle, E., Humphrey, R., Pollack, J., Hawver, T., & Story, P. (2011). The relation between emotional intelligence and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 32*, 788-818. doi: 10.1002/job.714

Ozbebek, A., & Toplu, E. K. (2011). Empowered employees' knowledge sharing behavior. *International Journal of Business and Management Studies, 3*(2), 69-76. Retrieved from http://www.reserachgate.net/publication/275866706

117

Parry, E., & Urwin, P. (2011). Generational differences in work values: A review of theory and evidence. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 13,* 79-96. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-2370.2010.00285.x

Patten, M. (2012). *Understanding research methods*. Glendale, CA: Pyrczak Publishing.

Paulin, D., & Suneson, K. (2012). Knowledge transfer, knowledge sharing, and knowledge barriers – three blurry terms in KM. *The Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management, 10*(1), 82-92. Retrieved from http://www.ejkm.com/volume10/issue1

Pilcher, J. (1994). Mannheim's sociology of generations: An undervalued legacy. *British Journal of Sociology, 45*(3), 481-495. Retrieved from http://is.muni.cz/el/1423/podzim2013/SOC573/um/Pilcher.pdf

Pinho, I., Rego, A., & Cunha, M. (2012). Improving knowledge management processes: A hybrid positive approach. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 16*(2), 215-242. doi: 10.1108/13673271211218834

Ramayah, T., Yeap, J. A. L., & Ignatius, J. (2014). Assessing knowledge sharing among academics: A validation of the knowledge sharing behavior scale (KSBS). *Evaluation Review, 38*(2), 160-187. doi: 10.1177/0193841X14539685

Reychav, I., & Weisberg, J. (2010). Bridging intention and behavior of knowledge sharing. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 14*(2), 285-300. doi: 10.1108/13673271011032418

Rokeach, M. (1973). *The nature of human values* (Vol. 438). New York: Free press.

Rokeach, M., & Ball-Rokeach, S. (1989). Stability and change in American value priorities, 1968–1981. *American Psychologist, 44*(5), 775-784. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.44.5.775

Rood, A. (2010). Understanding generational diversity in the workplace: What resorts can and are doing. *Journal of Tourism Insights, 1*(1), 1-10. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.9707/2328-0824.1009

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, cognition and personality*, *9*(3), 185-211. Retrieved from http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.385.4383&rep=rep1&type=pdf

Schutte, N., Malouff, J., Hall, L., Haggerty, D., Cooper, J., Golden, C., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence.

Personality and Individual Differences, 25, 167-177. Retrieved from http://s3.amazonaws.com/academia.edu.documents

Shahhosseini, M., Silong, A., & Ismaill, I. (2013). Relationship between transactional, transformational leadership styles, emotional intelligence, and job performance. *Journal of Arts, Science & Commerce, 4*(1), 15-22. Retrieved from http://www.researchersworld.com/vol4/vol4_issue1_2/Paper_03.pdf

Sostrin, J. (2009). A conceptual framework of barriers to workplace learning and performance. *OD (Organization Development) Practitioner, 41*(3), 42-49. Retrieved from http://www.odnetwork.org/publications/practitioner/index.php

Stevens, R. (2010). Managing human capital: How to use knowledge management to transfer knowledge in today's multi-generational workforce. *International Business Research, 3*(3), 77-83. Retrieved from http://www.ccsenet.org/ibr

Srinivasan, V. (2012). Multi generations in the workforce: Building collaboration. *SciVerse ScienceDirect, 24,* 48-66. doi:10.1016/j.iimb.2012.01.004

Szulanski, G. (1996). Exploring internal stickiness: Impediments to the transfer of best practice within the firm. Strategic management journal, 17(S2), 27-43. doi:10.1002/smj.4250171105

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistic (*6th ed.) Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.

Tavakol, M., & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education, 2,* 53-55. doi: 10.5116/ijme.4dfb.8dfd

Thompson, A. (2005). Creating need-to-have portals: Addressing the real-world barriers at KBR production services. *Knowledge Management Review, 8*(4), 24-27. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com

Thompson, M., Jensen, R., & DeTienne, K. (2009). Engaging embedded information. Toward a holistic theory of knowledge transfer in organizations. *Competitiveness Review: An International Business Journal, 19*(4), 323-341. doi: 10.1108/10595420910977434

Tsoukas, H. (2009). A dialogical approach to the creation of new knowledge in organizations. *Organization Science, 20*(6), 941-957. doi:10.1287/orsc.1090.0435

Twenge, J., Campbell, S., Hoffman, B., & Lance, C. (2010). Generational differences in work values: Leisure and extrinsic values increasing, social and intrinsic values

119

decreasing. *Journal of Management, 36*(5), 1117-1142. doi: 10.1177/0149206309352246

Vogt, W. (2007). *Quantitative research methods for professionals* (custom ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson, Education Inc.

Wei, J., Zheng, W., & Zhang, M. (2011). Social capital and knowledge transfer: A multi-level analysis. *Human Relations, 64*(11), 1401-1423. doi: 10.1177/0018726711417025

Wilson, L. (2009). Generations at work: The problems, power, and promise explored. *Journal American Water Works Association, 5*, 46-52. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/openview/28f10979d58473fa8ce69ad88dc32a70/1?pq-origsite=gscholar

Wong, C. S., & Law, K. S. (2002). The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *13*(3), 243-274. doi:10.1016/S1048-9843(02)00099-1

Yi, Jialin. (2009). A measure of knowledge sharing behavior: Scale development and validation. *Knowledge Management Research & Practice, 7*(1), 65-81. doi:10.1057/kmrp.2008.36

Yu, C., Yu, T., & Yu, C. (2013). Knowledge sharing, organizational climate, and innovative behavior: A cross-level analysis of effects. *Social Behavior and Personality, 41*(1), 143-156. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2013.41.1.143

Zemke, R., Raines, C., & Filipczak, B. (2000). *Generations at work*. New York, NY: American Management Association.

APPENDIX A. STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL WORK

Academic Honesty Policy

Capella University's Academic Honesty Policy (3.01.01) holds learners accountable for the integrity of work they submit, which includes but is not limited to discussion postings, assignments, comprehensive exams, and the dissertation or capstone project.

Established in the Policy are the expectations for original work, rationale for the policy, definition of terms that pertain to academic honesty and original work, and disciplinary consequences of academic dishonesty. Also stated in the Policy is the expectation that learners will follow APA rules for citing another person's ideas or works.

The following standards for original work and definition of *plagiarism* are discussed in the Policy:

> Learners are expected to be the sole authors of their work and to acknowledge the authorship of others' work through proper citation and reference. Use of another person's ideas, including another learner's, without proper reference or citation constitutes plagiarism and academic dishonesty and is prohibited conduct. (p. 1)

> Plagiarism is one example of academic dishonesty. Plagiarism is presenting someone else's ideas or work as your own. Plagiarism also includes copying verbatim or rephrasing ideas without properly acknowledging the source by author, date, and publication medium. (p. 2)

Capella University's Research Misconduct Policy (3.03.06) holds learners accountable for research integrity. What constitutes research misconduct is discussed in the Policy:

> Research misconduct includes but is not limited to falsification, fabrication, plagiarism, misappropriation, or other practices that seriously deviate from those that are commonly accepted within the academic community for proposing, conducting, or reviewing research, or in reporting research results. (p. 1)

Learners failing to abide by these policies are subject to consequences, including but not limited to dismissal or revocation of the degree.

Statement of Original Work and Signature

I have read, understood, and abided by Capella University's Academic Honesty Policy (3.01.01) and Research Misconduct Policy (3.03.06), including the Policy Statements, Rationale, and Definitions.

I attest that this dissertation or capstone project is my own work. Where I have used the ideas or words of others, I have paraphrased, summarized, or used direct quotes following the guidelines set forth in the APA *Publication Manual*.

Learner name
and date   Connie J. Woolsey   9/6/2016
_____

Mentor name
and school   Terry M. Walker, PhD – School of Business and Technology
_____